

CALIFORNIA BAPTIST UNIVERSITY

Riverside, California

Servant Leadership: U.S. Navy Job Satisfaction

A Dissertation Submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
Requirements for the degree  
Doctor of Business Administration

Jocelyn M. Johannsen

Division of Online and Professional Studies

Department of Public Administration

October 2021

Servant Leadership: U.S. Navy Job Satisfaction

Copyright © 2021

by Jocelyn M. Johannsen

This dissertation written by

Jocelyn M. Johannsen

has been approved by the

The Division of Online and Professional Studies at California Baptist University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree Doctor of Business Administration

---

William Whitlatch, DM/IST, Committee Chair

---

Kenneth W. Minesinger, J.D., Committee Member

---

Kenny George, Ph.D., Committee Member

---

Dr. Dirk Davis, Ed.D., Dean/Program Chair

## ABSTRACT

This quantitative study was an examination of the level of servant leadership characteristics practiced by U.S. Navy leadership and the impact they have on job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. The survey instrument used to measure servant leadership of leaders as received by the U.S. Navy personnel was the Servant Leadership Measure. The Job Description Index (JDI) was used to measure the level of job satisfaction of the U.S. Navy personnel. In this quantitative, correlational research study, 148 participants completed an online survey comprising the Servant Leadership Measure and Job Descriptive Index. The population comprised individuals selected from two private U.S. Navy Reserve groups through a social media platform.

*Keywords:* Servant Leadership, Servant Leadership Measure, Job Descriptive Index, U.S. Navy Personnel, U.S. Navy Leadership, Leadership

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The journey completing this research project came with many challenges, learning curves, sacrifices, and support from many people.

To my husband, no words can express how grateful I am for the love given, support provided, and sacrifices made for our family while I chased this dream. Thank you for believing in me, encouraging me, and for enduring when everything in life seemed impossible.

To my children Isaac, Seth, and Matthew, you three kept me busy. Although it was sometimes distracting, thank you for sitting next to me or on my lap day or night while I wrote. You three helped me more than you will ever know. Thank you for making me smile during the long days.

To my parents, Diana Tabet and Wilfred and Marline Moya, who set the foundation for many of my successes going up, thank you for always encouraging and supporting every dream I ever had.

To my siblings, you all have been a part of my support system, thank you. Julia, big sis, we lost you only a few months before I finished this paper, thank you for setting the example to help others and for always making time to help me.

To the individuals who participated in my research project, I appreciate your time. Thank you for your support and expertise where provided.

Finally, to my committee Dr. Whitlatch, Dr. Minesinger, and Dr. George, I would like to express my deepest appreciation. Thank you for your guidance and the time you gave to support this research. Many thanks to Dr. Whitlatch for the encouraging words when everything seemed impossible.

## DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my family.

Seth Joel Johannsen (my best friend) thank you for being you.

Isaac, Seth, and Matthew (my three blessings), words cannot express how grateful and proud I am to be your mother.

I love you all so much. Thank you.

*And do not be conformed to this world, but be transformed by the renewing of your mind,  
that you may prove what is that good and acceptable and perfect will of God.*

*Romans 12:2*

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT .....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	v
DEDICATION .....	vi
LIST OF TABLES .....	x
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION .....	1
Background .....	4
Statement of the Research Problem .....	7
Purpose Statement .....	8
Research Questions .....	9
Hypotheses .....	11
Significance of the Problem .....	12
Definitions .....	14
Organization of the Study .....	15
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE .....	17
History of the Subject Being Studied .....	17
Evolution of Leadership and Theoretical Frameworks .....	17
Great Man Theory .....	19
Trait Theory .....	20
Situational Leadership .....	21
Transformational and Transactional Leadership .....	23
Evolution of Military Leadership .....	25
Job Satisfaction Theories .....	29
Impact of Job Satisfaction .....	37
Measurements of Job Satisfaction .....	38
Military Job Satisfaction .....	40
Evolution of the Characteristics of Servant Leadership .....	43
Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction .....	56
Criticisms of Servant Leadership .....	58
The Relevance of servant leadership to the U.S. Navy .....	61
Summary .....	64
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY .....	68
Purpose Statement .....	68
Research Questions .....	69
Hypotheses .....	70
Research Design .....	71
Servant Leadership .....	74
Job Satisfaction .....	81

The Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation .....	83
Standard Q-Q Plot.....	84
Descriptive Statistics.....	84
Multiple Regression Model.....	85
ANCOVA and Scatter Plots.....	85
Shapiro-Wilk Test.....	86
Levene's Test.....	87
Bonferroni Post Hoc Analysis .....	87
Sample.....	88
Instrumentation .....	90
Data Collection .....	91
Data Analysis .....	92
Limitations .....	94
Summary .....	95
 CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH, DATA COLLECTION, AND FINDINGS.....	96
Overview .....	96
Purpose Statement.....	96
Research Questions.....	97
Hypotheses.....	98
Research Methods and Data Collection Procedures .....	99
Presentation and Analysis of Data .....	101
Data Preparation.....	101
Instrument Reliability for Sample.....	102
Descriptive Statistics.....	102
Data Screening.....	104
Research Question 1/Hypothesis 1 .....	112
Research Question 2/Hypothesis 2 .....	113
Research Question 3/Hypothesis 3 .....	114
Research Question 4/Hypothesis 4 .....	116
Research Question 5/Hypothesis 5 .....	117
Research Question 6/Hypothesis 6 .....	118
Research Question 7/Hypothesis 7 .....	119
Research Question 8/Hypothesis 8 .....	120
Summary .....	123
 CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	125
Major Findings.....	126
Conclusions.....	128
Implications for Action.....	129
Recommendations for Further Research.....	130
Concluding Remarks and Reflections.....	131



REFERENCES .....	134
APPENDICES .....	174
A. SERVANT LEADERSHIP MEASURES .....	175
B. PERMISSION TO USE THE SERVANT LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE .....	177
C. JOB DESCRIPTION INDEX (JDI).....	178

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Reliability Coefficients .....	103
Table 2. Descriptive Statistics.....	104
Table 3. Skewness and Kurtosis Coefficients.....	104
Table 4. Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality Results .....	105
Table 5. Correlation Matrix .....	112
Table 6. Hypothesis Summary and Outcomes .....	122

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. The Army Leadership Requirements Model .....	62
Figure 2. Screenshot of Values Entered for Power Analysis.....	88
Figure 3. The Relationship Between Sample Size and Statistical Power .....	89
Figure 4. Box and Whisker Plot for Job Satisfaction.....	106
Figure 5. Box and Whisker Plot for Emotional Healing.....	107
Figure 6. Box and Whisker Plot for Creating Value for the Community .....	107
Figure 7. Box and Whisker Plot for Conceptualizing.....	108
Figure 8. Box and Whisker Plot for Empowering .....	109
Figure 9. Box and Whisker Plot of Helping Followers Grow and Succeed .....	109
Figure 10. Box and Whisker Plot for Putting Followers First .....	110
Figure 11. Box and Whisker Plot of Behaving Ethically.....	111
Figure 12. Box and Whisker Plot for Servant Leadership .....	111
Figure 13. Scatterplot of Relationship Between Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction.....	113
Figure 14. Scatterplot of Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Conceptualizing and Job Satisfaction.....	114
Figure 15. Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Emotional Healing and Job Satisfaction .....	115
Figure 16. Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Putting Followers First and Job Satisfaction .....	116
Figure 17. Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Helping Followers Grow and Succeed and Job Satisfaction.....	118
Figure 18. Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Behaving Ethically and Job Satisfaction .....	119

Figure 19. Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Empowering and Job Satisfaction .....	120
Figure 20. Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Creating Value for the Community and Job Satisfaction.....	121

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The U.S. Department of Defense (DOD) is America's largest employer. As of June 2021, the DOD had grown to a combined 2.91 million military service members and civilian employees. Located in more than 160 countries, the DOD provides the military forces needed to prevent war and provide security to the nation (DOD, 2019). The DOD's many foci include training, education, and professional development, drivers for organizational efficiency (Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Service, n.d.). These foci resulted in the civilian sector and the military adopting leadership development programs to train current and future leaders.

As stated previously, the DOD is America's largest employer, and only a small percentage of Americans make up the U.S. military. Personnel enlisted during the draft in 1973 were estimated at 1.9 million, equal to 1% of the U.S. population at that time (Reynolds & Shendruk, 2018). Reynolds and Shendruk (2018) identified the all-volunteer military force at less than one-half of 1% of the U.S. population, or 1.3 million when the military transitioned from the draft in 1973. Taylor et al. (2018) explained how Americans in the military are drawn to a life that requires discipline, selfless sacrifice, restricted liberties, sometimes long separations, and low compensation: "They learn to put service before self and to subordinate their desires for the greater good of the organization" (p. xiii).

The decision to become an enlisted U.S. military service member requires a person to enter under oath (Enlistment Oath: Who May Administer, 1958). Enlisted personnel swear in by repeating The Oath of Enlistment:

(a) Enlistment Oath.-Each person enlisting in an armed force shall take the following oath: I, \_\_\_\_\_, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; and that I will obey the orders of the President of the United States and the orders of the officers appointed over me, according to regulations and the Uniform Code of Military Justice. So help me God. (Enlistment Oath: Who May Administer, 1958, § 502)

Unlike enlisted personnel, officers who swear into the military repeat The Oath of Office (Government Organization and Employee, 5 U.S.C § 3331, 1966). Taylor et al. (2018) described military service as grave because its obligations are so important. The importance of the U.S. military is evident; the military, as an organization, must operate in a favorable alignment of the unit while working toward organizational goals. Baltaci and Balcı (2017) suggested that leadership in organizations can be a significant mechanism that aids in organizational hardships. Although many leadership theories have examined a military setting (Ball et al., 2019; Kark et al., 2016; Miller, 2018; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019; L. Wong et al., 2003), research on leadership is not new to the scholarly community.

For centuries, leadership has been a popular topic with a long history of interest among scholars and practitioners (Bauer et al., 2019; Bavik et al., 2017; Maxwell & Ekstrand, 2019; Rosenbach et al., 2018). According to Maxwell (2007), “Anyone can steer the ship, but it takes a leader to chart the course. Leaders who are good navigators are capable of taking their people just about anywhere” (p. 45). Grint (2011) attempted

to cover 3,000 years of history on leadership and suggested that it is useful to learn from mistakes. The vast amount of research conducted on leadership focuses on the effectiveness or consequences of leadership styles. Although scholars agree that good leadership is known when one experiences it, few have agreed on the actual definition of leadership (Rosenbach et al., 2018). Today scholars continue to examine leadership theories, gauge the effectiveness of those theories, and provide guidelines and recommendations about implementing successful leadership.

In 1977, Robert Greenleaf contributed to the discussion on leadership when he wrote a book on servant leadership. The theory of servant leadership has become a significant topic of interest for many industries, including Christian philosophers who demonstrated the importance of servant leaders long ago. For example, in Luke 22:26–27, Jesus stated,

But you must not be like that. The one with the most authority among you should act as if he is the least important. The one who leads should be like one who serves. Who is more important: the one serving or the one sitting at the table being served? Everyone thinks it's the one being served, right? But I have been with you as the one who serves. (Easy-to-Read Version, 2006)

Greenleaf (1970) explained how the servant leader prioritizes; they serve others first. Over the years, opinions and extensions of servant leadership have built on what Greenleaf developed in the 1970s (Keith, 2008; Sipe & Frick, 2015; Spears, 1995). One considerable extension to Greenleaf's servant leadership theory was a development by Spears (1995), which identified 10 characteristics critical to a servant leader. These characteristics are listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization,

foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and community building. Additionally, scholarly research regarding servant leadership identified favorable effects on employee loyalty, productivity, individual purpose, and job satisfaction (Barbuto & Gottfredson, 2016; Farrington & Lillah, 2019; van Dierendonck, 2011; von Fischer & De Jong, 2017; P. T. Wong & Davey, 2007; Yang et al., 2018).

Interest in job satisfaction increased during the 20th century when scholars identified a connection between leadership and job satisfaction among global corporations (Bauer et al., 2019; Bavik et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2018). In addition, evidence from research supported that leadership styles can positively affect job satisfaction (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Boamah et al., 2018; Pawirosumarto et al., 2017; Priarso et al., 2019; Rahmat et al., 2019). Findings from this study contribute to the research on servant leadership and job satisfaction. Specifically, the results focused on a gap in the literature identified when the researcher examined U.S. Navy personnel, job satisfaction, and servant leadership. The aim of this study was to explore the practice of servant leadership among U.S. Navy leaders and further examine whether it impacts the job satisfaction of U.S. Navy service members.

## **Background**

The attacks on the World Trade Center in New York and the Pentagon near Washington, D.C., on September 11, 2001, received dominant public attention (Comfort & Kapucu, 2006; Scordato & Monopoli, 2002; Vogt et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2018). History shows that during these attacks, reserve and active-duty service members were deployed immediately. The increase in service members on deployment was due to the growth in operational schedules during the attacks. Because of these new demands, wars



in Afghanistan and Iraq forced U.S. service personnel to develop a lifestyle built around deployment cycles. The increase in service members deployed to support wars abroad created an interest among researchers (Bonde et al., 2016; Burton et al., 2009; Lincoln et al., 2018; Negrusa et al., 2016).

In 2018, the U.S. military calculated a troubling statistic on suicides among active-duty personnel, reporting the highest number in the previous 6 years (Department of Defense, 2018). The military began closely tracking the rates of suicides in 2001 and found that they spiked to 321 suicides in 2012 and reached an all-time high of 325 in 2018 (Kime, 2019). Although statistics on military personnel suicides are substantial, they identified a relationship between increased stresses concerning deployment. Kapp (2020) noted a concern about stress resulting from significant combat deployments to Iraq and Afghanistan from 2004 to 2009. Although military leadership continues to address these troubling statistics, little research contributes to the military's efforts.

In research conducted by Brooks and Greenberg (2018), they explained that a strong sense of belongingness is a significant protective factor against suicidal ideation. Brooks and Greenberg's study also identified a connection between stress factors, revealing that the stress factors could lead to suicide rates among service members. Brooks and Greenberg explained how providing support within the organization was associated with job satisfaction among personnel (Brooks & Greenberg, 2018).

Kapp (2020) raised another concern regarding stress and the willingness of military personnel to continue their service. Kapp discovered that too few people were staying in the military and revealed how this could include a shortage of experienced leaders. Too few people staying in the military could decrease both military efficiency

and job satisfaction. Leadership within the U.S. Navy has taken steps to address the issues of personnel support in the military; the main focus is on individual training (Jordan, 2015). Results from this study extended prior research into the military's use of servant leadership and associated servant leadership with job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel.

The role of leaders is essential to the level of job satisfaction among service members. Research on servant leadership has shown positive impacts in many areas of business, and it is crucial to understand its relationship with job satisfaction to achieve organizational objectives (Bayraktar et al., 2017; Boamah et al., 2018; Hanaysha & Tahir, 2016; Lee et al., 2018; Taylor et al., 2018). Lee et al. (2018) revealed that the beliefs, values, and behaviors of chief executive officers significantly influence organizational personnel. In a study on destructive leadership and job stress, Khan et al. (2017) explored the causal effect of emotional exhaustion on employee job satisfaction. Results from the study showed a need for additional knowledge and awareness of leadership perspectives in organizations (Khan et al., 2017).

More recently, in the Congressional Research Service's primer on *Active Duty Enlisted Retention*, Kapp (2020) explained the role of Congress. Congress has broad powers over the Armed Forces to raise and support armies and maintain a Navy. Monitoring the performance of the executive branch, Congress has the power to manage the size and quality of the military. Although study findings of military retention goals tried to explain the shortfall, Kapp questioned whether these effects were from a decrease in job satisfaction. Kapp indicated the need to identify perceived causes, interpret shortfalls, and provide options for remediation.

## **Statement of the Research Problem**

There has been a considerable amount of growth and change in the study of leadership (Bass, 1990; Grint, 2011; Landis et al., 2014, Northouse, 2019). Literature on military leadership dates back over 250 years (Bering, 2011). Historically, military leadership has been associated with transactional leadership (Bass et al., 2003; Hater & Bass, 1988; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Suharjo, 2019; Yammarino et al., 1993). The literature on servant leadership was introduced in the 1970s by Robert Greenleaf. Servant leadership consists of leaders who consistently lead by serving others. Later in 1995, Spears contributed to the development by proposing the 10 characteristics of servant leadership. More recently there have been scholars who have contributed to research on servant leadership in the military; however, a focus on the relationship it has with job satisfaction among personnel is minimal.

Barbuto and Gottfredson (2016) suggested that servant leadership is an optimal leadership style not only for the development of an organization but also for making the organization a preferred workplace. They also suggested that the impact of servant leadership on job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel is lacking. In 2015, Jordan submitted a dissertation on determining the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel. Although this study addressed both servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy, Jordan suggested under limitations that the population used were U.S. Navy Reserve members. Furthermore, Jordan explained how reservists are only a part of their Navy organization a few days a month, on average, and may have affected the accuracy of the assessment of leadership within the organization.

In 2018, Meyer and Wynn explored the importance of the U.S. military's cultural competence. They explained how members of the Reserves and the National Guard have their own subcultures that include being geographically disparate from military peers, having a civilian job, and having a rapid deployment schedule, and are a different set of norms and beliefs. They further explained how a decade of constant transition has resulted in increased rates of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and suicide in reserve units when compared to their active-duty peers.

Although reservists participate in the military only a few days a month, active-duty service members are subject to duty 24 hours per day, 7 days per week, except when on leave (vacation) or when given authorized time off (U.S. Department of Veteran Affairs, 2012). The present study addressed the impact of servant leadership on job satisfaction using reservist Navy personnel. Although a study has been done on a reservist Navy population, it was completed about 7 years ago in 2014. Furthermore, that study did not survey the reservist population to find out how long any of them, if any, served on active duty. One survey used in this study examined intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction dimensions. Participants in this study comprised surveyed Navy reservists who were identified as having served on active duty in the U.S. Navy, offering a different perspective compared to Navy reservist who may have never served on active duty in the Navy.

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent relationships existed between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. The last time men were drafted into the military involuntarily was in 1972

(Fisher & DiSario, 1974). Taylor et al. (2018) explained that the U.S. military service is voluntary, a selfless sacrifice, with restricted liberties, sometimes long separations, and low compensation. Taylor et al. stated, “Those who voluntarily follow this path embrace its challenges and its commitment to protecting others. For this, they are declared ‘in service’” (p. xiii). Greenleaf’s (1977) servant leadership theory noted how leaders who implement servant leadership should set their priorities and serve others first.

Findings from studies continue to show that leadership, coaching, and mentoring pay off not only in job performance but also in job satisfaction and the decrease of employee turnover (Chaita, 2014; Freeman, 1977; Hur, 2018; Newstrom, 2007; Sharma et al., 2017; Taiye et al., 2019; Taylor et al., 2018). Therefore, one question is: What leadership characteristics impact job satisfaction and aid in decreasing employee turnover? According to Spears (1995), there are 10 characteristics that servant leaders should possess: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. By examining the relationship between servant leadership and the job satisfaction of personnel in the U.S. Navy, the results may provide information for U.S. Navy leaders, enhance literature in the field of leadership, and result in the increased job satisfaction of military personnel.

### **Research Questions**

1. What is the relationship, if any, between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel?

2. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
3. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
4. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
5. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
6. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
7. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
8. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?

## **Hypotheses**

H01: There is no significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel.

H1: There is a significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel.

H02: The servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H2: The servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H03: The servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H3: The servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H04: The servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H4: The servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H05: The servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H5: The servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H06: The servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H6: The servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H07: The servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H7: The servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H08: The servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H8: The servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

### **Significance of the Problem**

According to the DOD’s *2019 Demographics: Profile of the Military Community*, the U.S. Navy employs 332,528 active-duty service members and 59,658 Navy Reserves. These numbers not only highlight how many people serve in the U.S. Navy but also identify the number of people potentially impacted by leadership. In March 2018, Admiral Richardson signed the *Navy Leader Development Framework 3.0* that focuses



on leader development in character, competence, and connection. The *Navy Leader Development Framework* noted that Navy leaders inspire Navy personnel to relentlessly chase a “best ever” performance: “They study every text, try every method, seize every moment, and expand every effort to outfox their competition” (U.S. Navy, 2019, p. 3). The desire to achieve the “best ever” performance derives from three areas of focus, which the Navy identifies as lanes: competence, character, and connection.

The first lane, “competence,” aims to develop operational and war-fighting competence: “We must become experts at our jobs as we grow. An incompetent leader is a recipe for disaster” (U.S. Navy, 2019, p. 5). The second lane, “character,” focuses on the development of character. Focusing on “worthy to lead sailors” includes consistently strengthening one’s core values of honor, courage, and commitment (U.S. Navy, 2019, p. 5). The third lane in the *Navy Leader Development Framework: Version 3.0* is “connections.” This lane is the development of intellectual and personal connections. Intellectual connections mean improving competence. Sharing mental models, comparing notes, and improving Navy personnel to anticipate each other’s next move are a few of the “connection” lane processes.

The “connection” lane specifies that Navy personnel share experiences and seek to understand what is going on in one another’s lives, in mind, body, and spirit. Furthermore, the personal connections expand on the relationship to include service members’ families, friends, churches, health clubs, and other communities. The new 3.0 framework contains characteristics similar to servant leadership, including a healing relationship, awareness, foresight, stewardship, commitment to resource development, and building community (U.S. Navy, 2019). Leadership in the U.S. Navy could benefit

from the results of this study that may identify a relationship between servant leadership characteristics they already practice, additional characteristics their leadership uses, and the impact on the job satisfaction of their personnel.

Although the U.S. Navy has not yet chosen to adopt the servant leadership style, Alvesson and Einola (2019) suggested that characteristics of servant leadership, such as humility and meekness could be viewed as a weakness for leading. As demonstrated in society, domination, oppressive strategies, and individualism could be stronger values for leadership (Alvesson & Einola, 2019). The *Navy Leader Development Framework: Version 3.0* information stated, “the stakes are too high, and the security of the nation is too important. We must serve at our limits and inspire others to be the best in the world” (U.S. Navy, 2019, p. 4). Adopting the servant leadership theory could potentially be viewed as a weakness, and leadership may not want to take that chance. Tynan et al. (2019) discussed military leadership and explained how the servant leadership model emphasizes the development and empowerment of team members. Results from this study could provide information that furthers the understanding of the servant leadership theory and its impact on job satisfaction and contribute to maintaining maritime superiority.

### **Definitions**

For this study, the following definitions pertain to selected terms used throughout the dissertation.

**Active-duty service member.** A person who is on active duty is in the military full time. They work for the military full time, may live on a military base, and can be deployed at any time (ASVAB Career Exploration Program, 2021).

**Job satisfaction.** The pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or as allowing the fulfillment of one's important job values (Locke, 1976).

**Military deployment.** Military deployment is the movement of armed forces. Deployment includes moving from military personnel's home station to somewhere outside the continental U.S. and its territories (U.S. Department of Veteran Affairs, 2012).

**Reservist.** Persons in the Reserve or National Guard are not full-time active-duty military personnel although they can be deployed at any time should the need arise (ASVAB Career Exploration Program, 2021).

**Servant leader.** A leader who is a servant first and models the following characteristics: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, and commitment to the growth of people (Spears, 1995, 2010).

**Servant leadership.** A timeless concept in which the leader is primarily a servant whose main objective is to make sure the needs of the people under his or her charge are met (Greenleaf, 1977).

### **Organization of the Study**

Chapter 1 included the introduction, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, questions to be answered, research hypotheses, the significance of the study, and definitions of terms. Chapter 2 is a review of the relevant literature. The literature review addresses the following topics: the evolution of leadership, the evolution of military leadership, job satisfaction theories, impacts of job satisfaction, measurements of job satisfaction, military job satisfaction, the evolution of the characteristics of servant

leadership, each of the 10 characteristics of servant leadership, servant leadership and job satisfaction, criticisms of servant leadership, the relevance of servant leadership to the U.S. Navy, and the gaps in the literature. Chapter 2 then concludes with a summary.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology used in the study. This chapter includes the research design, population and sampling procedure, instruments, and selection or development of research tools. Further discussed are the validity and reliability of instruments. Each of these sections concludes with a rationale, including the strengths and limitations of the design elements. The chapter continues with a description of the procedures used for data collection and the plan executed for data analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. Further discussed are data preparation and steps taken before computing scores on both the Job Description Index (JDI) and Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ). This chapter also provides tables and charts to illustrate the findings, including instrument reliability for the sample, descriptive statistics, data screening, box and whisker plots, and correlation matrices. Finally, the chapter concludes by addressing each research question and hypothesis individually as they relate to the findings and concludes with a summary.

## CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent relationships existed between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. The researcher reviewed literature relating to servant leadership and the impacts of servant leadership on job satisfaction. The following literature review includes an examination of military leadership, challenges in military leadership, the evolution of job satisfaction, military job satisfaction, the evolution of the characteristics of servant leadership, Spears's 10 characteristics of servant leadership, the implementation of servant leadership, criticisms of servant leadership, the relevance of servant leadership in the U.S. Navy, and the gaps in the literature.

### **History of the Subject Being Studied**

#### **Evolution of Leadership and Theoretical Frameworks**

Historically, research on leadership confirms its importance to organizational success (Dapula & Castano, 2017; Qing et al., 2019; Spisak et al., 2015). To better understand how this confirmation has come about, it is beneficial to consider historical writing on leadership (Grint, 2011). For example, the philosopher and novelist George Santayana wrote, "Those who do not learn from history are condemned to repeat it" (Peter, 2019, p. 165). Although this may be the case, further research on leadership may help organizations learn from the past and potentially predict events better than before.

With a large amount of information on leadership, Grint (2011) explained how people are crucially dependent upon written texts. This section delves into the history of leadership to aid in understanding its importance in this study. Rand (1999) explained how poor leadership is among the many reasons why an organization may fail.

Identifying and understanding core leadership styles will help organizations like the military select the most appropriate style moving into the future.

Over the years, the study of leadership has grown and changed to a considerable degree. This viewpoint was identified in the 1990s by Bass and, more recently, among the many studies on leadership (Grint, 2011; Landis et al., 2014; Northouse, 2019; Salihu, 2019; Taylor et al., 2018). Bass (1990) stated, “There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (p. 11). Northouse (2019) defined leadership as “the process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (p. 3). In a synthesis of leadership theories and styles, Landis et al. (2014) highlighted the increased attention paid to leadership development throughout history. They further explained that this attention is due to the impact leaders have on shaping civilization. Landis et al. (2014) explained that the earliest record of leadership was that of Moses:

Time and again, Moses demonstrated leadership traits that are highly prized today. Because we live in the information age, where ‘facts’ evolve daily and the global marketplace is constantly shifting beneath our feet, the skills Moses used to lead his people through the wilderness are extremely relevant: being flexible, thinking quickly, sustaining the confidence of your people in uncertain times, and creating rules that work for individuals from widely diverse backgrounds. (Baron, 1999, pp. xiv-xv)

Confucius was another early-recorded influence in leadership study. Born in 551 BCE, Confucius had a lasting influence on Sinitic cultures and is still a topic of discussion today. Confucius influenced the moral example of leadership (Bathurst &

Chen, 2018). Within the context of Confucianism, a person must exhibit two virtues to become exemplary. The first virtue is Li, which means being “governed by observing ritual propriety and custom” rather than laws or force (p. 4). The second virtue is Yue, described as music or a compound of many sounds performing in harmony (Bathurst & Chen, 2018). More simply, Confucius’s music models are geared toward healthy social relations while promoting harmony. Bathurst and Chen (2018) revealed that 75 Nobel Prize winners stated in 1988 that they must draw wisdom from Confucius for humankind to survive in the 21st century.

Other historical figures who have had an impact on history include Plato and Aristotle. Plato described a leader as the most critical person in government, while Aristotle expressed that political leaders lacked meaning and virtue (Landis et al., 2014). Landis et al. further explained how concepts in new leadership are philosophies, asserting that leaders must first learn how to follow before they can lead. Another widely known concept is how one must follow first, a philosophy derived from Hegel at the West Point Military Academy (Landis et al., 2014). Leadership is said to be one of the most multidimensional and complex phenomena. With the many different definitions and theories developed over the years, effective leadership continued to be an area of interest and recognized as a key to the success of any organization (Benmira & Agboola, 2021).

### **Great Man Theory**

Credited from leadership examples throughout history, scholars have developed leadership theories used for training, development, and diagnostics. Bass (1990, as cited in Landis et al., 2014) explained, “It must be theory—grounded in the concepts and assumptions that are acceptable to and used by managers, officials, and emergent leaders”

(p. 98). Before the 20th century, most research consisted of theories built on the idea that leaders are born leaders. Yeboah-Assiamah et al. (2019) explained how many in the 1980s believed great men and great leaders were born with unique traits or qualities. Yeboah-Assiamah et al. further revealed how this belief may have been due to renowned leaders such as Julius Caesar, Mahatma Gandhi, and Cyrus the Great. Furthermore, Yeboah-Assiamah et al. explained how the great man theory supported a vast amount of research in the 19th century based on the idea that leaders are born and not made. In 1990, Bass wrote, “Great leaders were important in the development of civilized societies” (p. 3).

### **Trait Theory**

In 1990, Bass discussed how some people believed leaders have certain traits, characteristics, and personalities. Bass referred to this as the trait theory. Stogdill (1975) was not an adherent to the trait theories, suggesting instead that leadership was situational. Examining the past, present, and future of leadership, Hunt and Fedynich (2019) found that early theories did not account for situations or circumstances in which leaders found themselves. Stogdill (1975) added that taxonomy for situational leadership was needed, expressing disagreement with the trait theory. His reasoning included the argument that no single pattern of behavior will be useful in all situations. He further explained how different behaviors produce different effects. Hunt and Fedynich (2019) further observed that behavior studies ignore both the leaders’ situation and their environment. According to Bass (1990),

Person (1928) expressed two hypotheses in relations to leadership: (1) any particular situation plays a large part in determining leadership qualities and the



leader for that situation and (2) the qualities in an individual that a particular situation may determine to be leadership qualities are themselves the product of a succession of previous leadership situations that have developed and molded that individual. (p. 39)

Trait theories suggest that a leader has certain characteristics and personality traits (Bass, 1990). Salihu (2019) described trait theory as arguing that people are born with specific character qualities and traits. Like Stogdill (1975), Salihu (2019) also disagreed with the trait theory. He found that a failure or significant limitation of this theory is that traits may be shaped or bound to specific situational influences over time. Stogdill (1975) also added that different behaviors produce different effects.

Pearson (1928) developed two hypotheses relating to leadership. Although the first hypothesis focuses more on situational leadership, the second focuses on the qualities of an individual. His second hypothesis included the relationship individual qualities play during a situation. Pearson explained how the qualities and situation may be the product of previous leadership situations that have developed and molded that individual (Bass, 1990). A more recent study by Jawoosh et al. (2011) included examining the trait theory, and the results helped explain the perception that leadership is a process that prevents monopolizing leadership to a few people who were born with this trait.

### **Situational Leadership**

In 1979, Hersey et al. published research about situational leadership, perceptions, and the impact of power, integrating the concept of power with situational leadership. Bass (1990) explained how some people were concerned with developing the individual inside an effective and cohesive organization (Landis et al., 2014). Although situational

leadership began to develop in the 1970s, servant leadership, as defined by Greenleaf (1977), was also in the development stages.

Thompson and Glasø (2018) revealed the introduction of the situational leadership theory into research as the “life cycle of leadership” (p. 576). They further explained how situational leadership provides a way to understand dynamic leadership, the significance of flexibility, and adaptive behavior. Piccolo et al. (2012) discussed two major dimensions of situational leadership: leader supportiveness and leader directiveness. Research regarding testing from a leader–follower congruence approach, Thompson and Glasø found that few researchers attempted to document its validity.

Measuring variables for situational leadership has been described as imprecise characterization and ambiguous (Thompson & Glasø, 2018). Fernandez and Vecchio (1997) and Thompson and Vecchio (2009) measured situational leadership by characterizing leader–follower dynamics. In previous research, employed peer rating was the method used for measuring situational leadership. Blank et al. (1990) utilized the peer rating to ensure the independence of leader behavior descriptions and to circumvent self-reporting bias. Additional measurement methods included self-appraisals of development (Goodson et al., 1989) and supervisor rating of follower development level (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997; Norris & Vecchio, 1992; Thompson & Vecchio, 2009; Vecchio et al., 2006).

Although situation leadership has contributed to leader–follower dynamics, Eva et al. (2019) explained how servant leadership has filled a gap in leadership by building a sense of social identity in followers. Greenleaf (1977) identified dimensions of servant leaders encompassing relational, ethical, emotional, and spiritual approaches. Although

Greenleaf did not specify the characteristics of the servant leader, many scholars developed their own characteristics. In 1995, Spears proposed 10 characteristics of servant leadership: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and community building (van Dierendonck, 2011).

During the same decade that researchers introduced both situational and servant leadership, the inception of transformational leadership occurred. In 1978, J. M. Burns described transformational leadership as encompassing four factors: charismatic leadership, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Bernard M. Bass further developed the transformational leadership theory. Bass (1990) noted that transformational leaders not only challenged the process but also inspired vision, enabled others to act, modeled the way, and encouraged the heart.”

### **Transformational and Transactional Leadership**

The transformational leadership theory is structured on bringing value through vision, focusing on self-interests through personal and professional development and acknowledging the need for security and recognition (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders hold their employees to higher performance standards and develop a clear vision for employees to follow. This vision stimulates and motivates employees to work because of the meaning behind their actions (Bass, 1985). Furthermore, Bass explained, employees led by a transformational leader are inspired, motivated, and recognized and have a clear vision behind their work. More recently, Hoch et al. (2018) identified transformational leadership as the dominant theory since the 1980s.

Hoch et al. (2018) explained how a shift had taken place in leadership since the 1970s. That shift has been away from traditional approaches to leadership and toward more positive forms. With the introduction of transformational leadership in the 1970s, J. M. Burns (1978) contrasted it with another leadership style known as transactional leadership, first introduced by Max Weber in 1947 and later developed by Bass in the 1980s (Bass, 1990).

In 1985, Bass contrasted transactional and transformational leadership. He noted how the transformational leader focuses on making tomorrow better through vision, inspiration, motivation, influence, and individualized stimulation. Bass explained that the transactional leader takes a different approach, clarifying the actions taken to achieve outcomes. He further explained how the transactional leader identifies what the employee wants or needs in exchange for their efforts (Bass, 1985). This style of leadership is an exchange relationship between the leader and the employee. The goal is to satisfy both parties involved in the exchange (Martínez-Córcoles & Stephanou, 2017).

The ideas of researchers who contributed to the inception and development of these leadership theories continue to guide current leaders. Northouse (2019) explained that leadership is a complex process. Different traits and characteristics identified throughout history have been useful for leadership. As time goes on and organizations move into the 21st century, Landis et al. (2014) suggested that it will be necessary to continue the investigation and examination regarding acquiring and applying essential leadership skills.

## **Evolution of Military Leadership**

Development in military leadership dates back over 250 years (Bering, 2011). Historically, people associated military leadership with transactional leadership (Bass et al., 2003; Hater & Bass, 1988; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Suharjo, 2019; Yammarino et al., 1993). Transactional leadership is defined as the use of contingent rewards or negative feedback. More specifically, it focuses on the needs of the follower and leader, with the leaders making exchanges between themselves and their followers (Hater & Bass, 1988; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019). As suggested in the literature, military leadership depends on circumstances and calls for specific types of leadership (Kark et al., 2016; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019; Shamir & Ben-Ari, 2000).

Sampayo and Maranga (2019) suggested that historically, military leaders take advantage of power and awards. The power-interaction model identifies five power sources: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert power. As mentioned earlier, the military traditionally uses different types of leadership, depending on the circumstances. The service roles said to affect circumstances include culture and people (Hall, 2011; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019; Wilson, 2008). In the literature, military leadership is systematic and organizational and has direct levels of leadership (Hall, 2011; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019; Wilson, 2008; L. Wong et al., 2003). L. Wong et al. (2003) explained that not only is power identified to all members of the system but also that behavioral order also encompasses “codes.” Furthermore, these power structures spread throughout the organization. Because the military uses this type of system within its organization, scholars have suggested using transactional leadership between leaders

and followers (Hater & Bass, 1988; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019; Yammarino et al., 1993).

Described as traditional by scholars and practitioners, military leadership has been affected by other changes, such as world affairs (Ball et al., 2019; Miller, 2018; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019; L. Wong et al., 2003). Research regarding wars includes the Revolutionary War in the 1770s (Alden & Middlekauff, 1962), the Cold War beginning at the end of the 1940s (Sampayo & Maranga, 2019), The Persian Gulf War in the 1990s (Doeser, 2013), World War I in the 1900s and World War II in the 1940s (Tan, 2019). However, these four examples cover only a few wars that have impacted leadership in the military. More recent is the war in Afghanistan, also known as the Iraq war, that began in 2003 (Levy & Sidel, 2013).

Military culture and leadership, in general, have evolved in response to world affairs resulting from various wars (Sampayo & Maranga, 2019). Researchers have identified effects from continual deployment and its impact on military leadership. Maguen et al. (2008) explained how protective factors that increase group resilience in deployed military personnel include trusted leadership and strong unit cohesion. Sampayo and Maranga suggested that these world affairs have produced additional leadership challenges and explained how it is still a human venture despite the high-tech aspects of war. Shamir and Ben-Ari's (2000) research findings indicated that organizational culture might influence leadership patterns, resulting in additional influence from organizational traditions, technology, and other considerations.

The importance of leadership in the military is evident as the military uses formal education, operational assignments, and self-development to develop leaders (L. Wong et

al., 2003). In a study on processes and practices in military training and education, Paananen and Pulkka (2019) explained that both recruits and serving members in all phases of their careers experience organized military training and education. Furthermore, they revealed how sociologists had found significance in military leadership and the role of education. Crosbie et al. (2019) emphasized how professional military education is rising, and political leaders worldwide have begun to realize its importance. The responsibility of military leadership, despite its hierarchical bureaucracy, is to the American people (Sampayo & Maranga, 2019).

Swain and Pierce (2017) stated in their book on armed forces officers, “No aspect of an officer’s persona and performance is more important than leadership” (p. 49).

Although recruits and serving members in all phases of their careers experience organized training and education (Paananen & Pulkka, 2019), when it comes to leadership, the DOD illustrates how the development of knowledge and skills requires a lifetime of studying, training, and long practice for each individual. More specifically, Swain and Pierce (2017) stated,

Taking care of the troops means attending to their personal needs—physical, mental, and spiritual—and, to a great extent, to their families’ needs as well. It also means training and educating the troops for the demands and challenges of their jobs and unit missions. It is the fullest sense, troop development means going beyond the immediate requirements of the job and the mission to helping them grow in their careers, preparing them for higher rank, for greater responsibility, and most especially for current and the future leadership of their

troops. A good leader leads and a great leader develops other leaders. (pp. 49–50).

Raymer et al. (2018) explained that the view of leadership from a heroic perspective still holds appeal. More importantly, they explained that society downplays the vital role leaders have in personal growth, the development of followers, and the promotion of organizational strength. Sampayo and Maranga (2019) revealed that military organizations change their managerial policies to accommodate the new shift from being conservative to being more educated. Rather than only focusing on performance or organizational goals, scholars have suggested that military leadership evolve with a focus on supporting others, creating meaning, and seeking purpose in work (Raymer et al., 2018; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019).

Research cited earlier supports the idea that there has been a substantial development of military leadership over the years (Ball et al., 2019; Bass et al., 2003; Bering, 2011; Hater & Bass, 1988; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Paananen & Pulkka, 2019; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019; Shamir & Ben-Ari, 2000; Suharjo, 2019; Yammarino et al., 1993). Sampayo and Maranga (2019) supported changes within military leadership, highlighting that the ultimate responsibility of the military is to the American people. With the military serving and protecting people against all enemies, both foreign and domestic (Sampayo & Maranga, 2019), Raymer et al. (2018) emphasized that military leadership requires growth beyond self-expertise and an impact on others.

The U.S. military leadership has gone from exercising authoritarian control in the 1950s to departing from the past and becoming more interested in creating positive change in the 1980s (Myers & Groh, 2010). This development in military leadership has



allowed many scholars and researchers to not only study military leadership styles but also examine the implementation of other leadership styles, such as servant leadership. Although many researchers examine servant leadership (Bass, 1998; Keith, 2008; Laub, 1998; Russell & Stone, 2002; Sampayo & Maranga, 2019; Sipe & Frick, 2015; Spears, 1995), research has also identified servant leadership as actively in use in the military today (Duffy, 2016; Jordan, 2015; Metscher et al., 2011; Quinn & Bryant, 2019; van Dierendonck, 2011).

### **Job Satisfaction Theories**

Research on job satisfaction has long been a subject of discussion among scholars and practitioners (Chaita, 2014; Freeman, 1977; Hur, 2018; Newstrom, 2007; Sharma et al., 2017; Taiye et al., 2019). Job satisfaction is vital not only to the needs of employees but also to corporate management and any well-structured organization (Frempong et al., 2018). Scholars have shown that job satisfaction is a significant factor in enhancing the operations of organizations and maintaining job loyalty (Frempong et al., 2018; Hur, 2018; Taiye et al., 2019). Factors that influence employees' job satisfaction include achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, and advancement (Hur, 2018; Johnson et al., 2018). There is a vast amount of research on job satisfaction. The next section includes a definition of job satisfaction and provides an explanation regarding the development of job satisfaction theories within large organizations.

The most commonly used research definition of job satisfaction is that of Locke (1976), who defined it as a “positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job” (Frempong et al., 2018, p. 96). Newstrom (2007) defined job satisfaction as a particular view of the work in which employees view their jobs. He further explained

how the employees' view of their job is affected by favorable and unfavorable feelings about one's work. Chaita (2014) described job satisfaction as individuals' multiple psychological responses to their job that include emotional, cognitive, and behavioral elements. More recently, Frempong et al. (2018) defined job satisfaction as an affective reaction to one's job or attitude toward one's job.

### ***Two-Factor Theory***

Employee job satisfaction has been a focus of discussion in the literature since the 1930s and is still being discussed today (Sharma et al., 2017). Over the years, there have been many theories on job satisfaction, one being the two-factor theory proposed by Herzberg et al. in 1959. Later, Herzberg (1974) also referred to the two-factor theory as the motivation-hygiene theory. He explained that this theory suggested that different work factors produce job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Motivator factors, achievement, recognition for achievement, interesting work, increased responsibility, growth, and advancement impact whether people are satisfied at work. Hygiene factors make people unhappy at work. These include company policy, administrative practices, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security (Herzberg, 1974; Hur, 2018; Kotni & Karumuri, 2018).

Hur (2018) explained that motivator factors are associated with higher-order needs, but hygiene factors are usually associated with lower order needs. Taiye et al. (2019) explained that strong motivation and job satisfaction come from a set of job conditions. When speaking of the two-factor theory, these job conditions are intrinsic and aimed toward increasing one's output. The two-factor theory is well known among management scholars. Ruthankoon and Ogunlana (2003) explained that the theory's

validity had been criticized in different work settings. They conducted a study testing Herzberg's two-factor theory in the Thai construction industry. Motivational factors for this industry include responsibility, advancement, the possibility of growth, and supervision. Hygiene factors include working conditions, job security, site safety, and relationship with other organizations. Ruthankoon and Ogunlana found that Thai construction companies felt that recognition, work itself, company policy and administration, interpersonal relations, personal life, and status contributed to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. In this study, some aspects of Herzberg's two-factor theory applied while others did not.

Yousaf (2020) explored Herzberg's two-factor theory to see whether it works in today's environment. In their exploration, Yousaf realized that demographic factors, such as age and educational level, were related to job satisfaction. Furthermore, they found that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors vary among occupational groups. Mao et al. (2018) conducted a study to gain insight into Herzberg's two-factor theory. Results from this study indicated that the source of motivation does not lie in specific fixed factors; instead, it lies in how much subjective initiative the employees can exert in the factors. Mao et al. (2018) suggested that adequate conditions for employees should allow the employee's opportunities to exert all their subjective initiative.

### ***Affect Theory***

In 1976, Locke examined the nature and causes of job satisfaction and defined the affect theory of job satisfaction as "a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job; an affective reaction to one's job, and an attitude formed toward one's job" (p. 1304). Over the years, Locke's range of affect theory job satisfaction

model has famously come into use among many scholars (G. N. Burns et al., 2012; Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014; Kollmann et al., 2020; Njue & Mbataru, 2019; Obiora & Iwuoha, 2013; Sia & Tan, 2016). Rahman et al. (2017) explained how Locke's discussion on job satisfaction focused on empowering and permitting people to develop their mental level as well as encouraging expression in their work skills.

Obiora and Iwuoha (2013) and De Silva (2019) described the affect theory as satisfaction determined by a discrepancy between what one wants and what one has in a job. More specifically, when a person values a specific aspect of a job, that impacts their satisfaction. Furthermore, researchers discussed how the specific aspect can positively and negatively impact satisfaction compared to a person who does not value that aspect (Njue & Mbataru, 2019; Sia & Tan, 2016; Taiye et al., 2019). Njue and Mbataru (2019) described Locke's range of affect theory as contributing evidence that employees have expectations about their jobs that act as factors influencing their job satisfaction.

Influences discussed in research as impacting job satisfaction include career advancement, promotion, and fringe benefits (Njue & Mbataru, 2019). Njue and Mbataru explained how unmet needs result in employees becoming disgruntled, less high performing, and disengaged on the job. Dugguh and Ayaga (2014) agreed that one becomes dissatisfied when expectations are unmet. Scholars over the years have examined when an employee values a particular aspect of a job and the impact, either positively or negatively, depending on whether the expectations are met (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014; Njue & Mbataru, 2019; Sia & Tan, 2016). The affect theory of job satisfaction has identified that certain aspects of a job can influence employees' satisfaction with the job and enhance performance (Njue & Mbataru, 2019).

### ***Dispositional Theory***

The dispositional theory is another well-known job satisfaction theory. This theory began drawing interest in 1913; at this time job satisfaction was treated as a personality phenomenon (Fatima et al., 2017). Both Taiye et al. (2019) and Mathur and Samdani (2019) described the dispositional theory as arguing that people have a natural disposition that causes them to act in specific ways and tend toward a certain level of satisfaction regardless of the job. Bui (2017) revealed that the dispositional approach includes measuring the person's characteristics and the assumption that measuring can help explain individual attitudes and behavior.

Scholars have also examined how the disposition of employees can be used to measure job satisfaction and have identified the importance of emotions (Bowling et al., 2005; Islam, 2016; Judge et al., 1997). In a comparative study on the dispositional sources of job satisfaction, results supported previous research on trait typologies and their relationship to job satisfaction (Arvey et al., 1991; Judge et al., 1997; Judge et al., 2008). Judge et al. (2008) found that core self-evaluations add to the understanding of the dispositional source of job satisfaction.

More recently, in a study involving a national sample, Bui (2017) explained how managers using the dispositional approach to job satisfaction should take age and gender into consideration because these two factors are likely to impact job satisfaction. Nikolaev et al. (2020) explored how a person's state and disposition are more likely to influence cognition and behavior in the environment. For example, Nikolaev et al. explained that job satisfaction could be associated with the influence of current employment. Furthermore, they suggested that many studies on disposition focus on

individual characteristics or the nature of the business pursued (Bowling et al., 2005; Islam, 2016; Judge et al., 1997).

### ***Equity Theory***

Kollmann et al. (2020) described the equity theory developed by Adams (1963) as viewing employment relationships as exchange relationships between employee and organization. They discussed how the equity theory relates to an employee's job satisfaction resulting from the ratio between outcomes and inputs (Kollmann et al., 2020; Lawler, 1973). For example, in exchange for employees supporting their work in terms of education, experience, skills, and number of tasks, the employee might earn wages, salaries, side benefits, symbols, status, or rewards (Darma & Supriyanto, 2017).

Kollmann et al. (2020) explained how employees feel satisfied when there is equity. The equity in this theory refers to what the employees receive for what they give to the organization. Many scholars agree that when outcomes do not match the input given by the employee, this inequity leads to dissonance and dissatisfaction with the job (Darma & Supriyanto, 2017; Julius et al., 2017; Kollmann et al., 2020).

Julius et al. (2017) conducted a study on organizational politics and employee job satisfaction in the health sector of Rivers state. In this study, Julius et al. explained how equity theory concentrates on the employee's perception of the fairness of work outcomes relative to, or in proportion to, work inputs. An issue identified by Julius et al. is that if people can identify the difference between their efforts and the rewards they received, they would decide to reduce their performance. Researchers recommended careful consideration when rewarding employees so they perceive the reward as fair and transparent (Darma & Supriyanto, 2017; Kollmann et al., 2020).

### ***Job Characteristic Theory***

In 1976, Hackman and Oldham conducted a study examining the relationship between job characteristics and individual responses to work. Today, scholars define the job characteristic theory as encompassing five characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Acquah, 2017; Ferreira et al., 2017; Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017; Taiye et al., 2019). Taiye et al. (2019) explained how the five characteristics impact three critical psychological states: the experienced meaningfulness of the work, the experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work, and knowledge of the actual results of the work activities.

In a cross-temporal meta-analysis of changes in job characteristics since 1975, Wegman et al. (2018) examined the job characteristics theory. They identified the job characteristic theory as the dominant model of job design today. Demirkol and Nalla (2018) identified the job characteristics theory as one of the most examined theories in the organizational psychology professions; their study noted the job characteristics model and its contribution to assessing airport police officers' job satisfaction and motivation.

Demirkol and Nalla (2018) explained how employees believe what they do is essential and worthwhile when they experience work as meaningful. Other scholars agree with this concept (Acquah, 2017; Faturochman, 2016; Ferreira et al., 2017; Wegman et al., 2018). Faturochman (2016) stated, "To experience the work as meaningful is to feel that the work the individual does is generally worthwhile, valuable, or important by some system of values he or she accepts" (p. 2). Faturochman (2016), Ferreira et al. (2017), Wegman et al. (2018), and Okolo (2018) explained how the five core job characteristics lead to the three psychological states that result in positive

organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction. These scholars also agreed that if any of the characteristics or psychological states are unmet, low motivation and decreased job satisfaction may result.

### ***Theory of Expectancy***

Victor Vroom developed the expectancy theory in 1964. Vroom designed the theory based on motivation as the factor influencing job satisfaction. He described motivation as a process governing the choice among alternative forms of voluntary activities, controlling this process as that of the individual (Soyoung & Sungchan, 2017). Soyoung and Sungchan described Vroom's expectancy theory as assuming that individuals with a higher expectancy for the outcome will behave differently from individuals with low expectancy. Kianto et al. (2016) explained that expectancies are the belief of the individual that effort exerted toward a strong performance will result in a reward.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory includes three factors: valence, expectancy, and instrumentality. These three factors are said to motivate individuals' performance. Vroom described valence as what the individual desires, and expectancy as what the individuals receive for their efforts. By meeting both these conditions, the result is job satisfaction. Jordan (2015) summarized this theory, suggesting that individuals' desired outcomes are what motivates them.

Many scholars believe that an employee's motivation will increase based on the desired outcomes (De Vito et al., 2018; Kianto et al., 2016; Soyoung & Sungchan, 2017; Suttikun et al., 2018). De Vito et al. (2018) explained that job satisfaction relates to motivation, which means that more motivators can result in higher job satisfaction for an



employee. Suttikun et al. (2018) found that increased job satisfaction was a result of receiving the desired rewards. When exploring the expectancy theory, Soyoung and Sungchan (2017) found that U.S. federal employees who perceive higher levels of performance at work have higher levels of job satisfaction

### **Impact of Job Satisfaction**

Which factors could impact job satisfaction and their impact have been topics of discussion among scholars for decades (Adams, 1963; De Vito et al., 2018; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Kianto et al., 2016; Soyoung & Sungchan, 2017; Suttikun et al., 2018; Vroom, 1964). Scholars continue to examine the effects of job satisfaction regarding both organizations and individuals (Alkhateri et al., 2018; Dobrow Riza et al., 2018; Mabaso & Dlamini, 2017; Sharma, 2017). Although many factors relating to job satisfaction may have derived from different theories, it is important to note that such identified factors could greatly benefit organizational leadership.

Many of the theories mentioned earlier discuss what could be related to an individual's level of job satisfaction. Throughout history, scholars have examined the areas in which job satisfaction impacts an organization. For example, in a study on the impact of compensation and benefits on job satisfaction, Mabaso and Dlamini (2017) explained that generous rewards not only retain employees but also lead to job satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty. Mabaso and Dlamini further explained that perceived low salaries could lead to job dissatisfaction and contribute to employee turnover. In a study about career growth in retailing, Suryanarayana and Kumar (2018) found that successful improvement in productivity is dependent on employee commitment, job satisfaction, skills, and motivation; thus, job satisfaction could

contribute to improvement in productivity. Similarly, Rožman et al. (2017) highlighted how satisfied employees are more committed to work and have higher retention rates as well as higher rates of productivity.

In a study on the impact of job stress and job satisfaction on workforce productivity, Hoboubi et al. (2017) found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and productivity. Furthermore, they suggested that increased supervisors reduce job stress, increasing job satisfaction and productivity. In 2018, Shobe conducted a study on productivity driven by job satisfaction, physical work environment, and management support, and job autonomy. Shobe agreed that job satisfaction correlates heavily with job performance and the work output of employees.

More recently, Singh et al. (2019) examined the role of job stress in job satisfaction; findings from the research align with Suryanarayana and Kumar (2018). A decrease in job satisfaction leads to quitting jobs reduces one's commitment to the organization. Singh et al. (2019) added that job satisfaction not only enhances one's physical and mental health but also brings satisfaction to one's life. Tavacıoğlu et al. (2019) found in a study on burnout and job satisfaction that as happiness increases, job satisfaction increases, resulting in a decrease in burnout. Their findings indicate that job satisfaction positively correlates with job performance.

### **Measurements of Job Satisfaction**

Examined in this section are tools for measuring job satisfaction to better understand how servant leadership impacts job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. Factors that decisively affect job satisfaction vary in different contents. Batura et al. (2016) revealed the importance of using measurement methods appropriate for the

specific context. Although various tools have been developed and used to measure job satisfaction, each has noted both positive and negative factors. Rahman et al. (2017) explained that the theoretical realm of job satisfaction is vast because it includes the job and the background of its features.

Batura et al. (2016) utilized the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Paul Spector (1985) to measure job satisfaction in a human service organization. The JSS measures job satisfaction through nine dimensions: pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. In the JSS survey, respondents reply to 36 statements designed about the nine dimensions. Ameen and Faraj (2019) used the JSS in their study of the effect of job stress on job satisfaction among nursing staff that included testing on a panel of 11 experts in different fields and work environments. Nair et al. (2019) used the JSS survey to determine employees' job satisfaction levels using the five-point Likert scale.

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI), a job satisfaction scale, was introduced in 1969 by Smith et al. (as cited in Lake et al., 2010). The JDI is an instrument used to survey individuals' feelings of satisfaction with their current job (Munnangi et al., 2018). The JDI encompasses five subscales: work, supervision, relationship with coworkers, pay, and promotion. Abraham (2018) explained how the JDI could be useful as a measurement in different fields, including business, education, and health. A study on the impact of job stress and job satisfaction on workforce productivity used the JDI to examine job satisfaction (Hoboubi et al., 2017). Sharma (2017) conducted a study on organizational culture as a predictor of job satisfaction using the JDI to measure job satisfaction.

In 1967, Weiss et al. developed the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) as a job satisfaction tool. The MSQ measures the satisfaction of individuals, including 20 aspects of the working environment (Nazim, 2016). This instrument focuses on two main categories, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction (Abraham, 2018). Researchers used the MSQ 20-item short form extensively in the literature (Hijazi et al., 2017; Konstantinou & Prezerakos, 2018; Kyumana, 2017; Nazim, 2016). Weiss et al. (1967) recommended using the 100-item long-form unless the researcher finds that 15–20 minutes seems impractical. The MSQ allows respondents to rate their degree of job satisfaction based on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being very dissatisfied and 5 being very satisfied. Nazim (2016) studied transformational leadership among principals, transactional leadership style, and job satisfaction among college teachers. The MSQ was also useful for studying leadership styles and their relationship with private university employees' job satisfaction in the United Arab Emirates (Hijazi et al., 2017).

### **Military Job Satisfaction**

From a certain age onward, a large portion of people's daily lives takes place at work. Ozel and Bayraktar (2018) suggested that, in this context, people who get what they expect from their job is affected economically and psychologically and become happier. Positive job satisfaction has also been connected to organizational commitment and improved job performance (Booth-Kewley et al., 2017). There has been interest in job satisfaction not only in the civilian sector but also among U.S. military personnel. Both private and public organizations have shown interest in improving their employees' organizational commitment and productivity (Booth-Kewley et al., 2017; Comfort & Kapucu, 2006; Julius et al., 2017; Knock et al., 2019; Laub, 2018). The *Navy Leader*

*Development Framework* outlines the leader's commitment to growing personally and professionally throughout their career as well as their commitment to improving competence and character in themselves and their teams.

The job satisfaction of military personnel is not a new topic of interest. Hom et al. (1992) conducted a meta-analysis on employee turnover that highlighted how the relationship between job satisfaction and the search for alternative employment was more significant in civilian samples than in the military. Griffeth et al. (2000) completed another meta-analysis, integrating the previous 1992 results, and found that the relationship of commitment to turnover was stronger than that of job satisfaction to turnover.

Sanchez et al. (2004) examined active duty and reserve/guard personnel in the U.S. military to identify predictors of job satisfaction. They found that the two most reliable predictors of job satisfaction were the perceived amount of job pressure and the belief that the biggest problem in their lives resulted from job-related problems. Sanchez et al. explained that at the individual level, people not satisfied with their job might experience frustration, aggression, psychological withdrawal, poor physical health, shortened life span, mental health problems, and lower overall life satisfaction. Furthermore, the effects of low job satisfaction at an organizational level include increased turnover rates, increased absenteeism, an increased volume of grievances, and decreased job performance.

Buddin's (2005) research included a longitudinal examination of first-term attrition and reenlistment among enlisted accessions for fiscal year 1999. Buddin suggested that a reason for the low correlation between job satisfaction and attrition in

their army sample was from soldiers not having the choice to leave. Furthermore, Buddin's study highlighted how job satisfaction directly affected continuance intentions, meaning the Army had a direct influence. Lytell and Drasgow (2009) examined turnover rates in the U.S. military; they found, similar to Buddin's (2005) research findings, decreased job satisfaction can result in withdrawal behaviors related to distancing oneself from the work environment.

Booth-Kewley et al. (2017) explored factors affecting organizational commitment in Navy Corpsmen, highlighting how the employee's relationship with the organization linked to retention, job performance, and job satisfaction. Booth-Kewley et al. further described how in the past, sleep problems were also linked with lower job satisfaction, which was not the case with the Navy corpsmen in their study. Brooks and Greenberg (2018) explored nondeployment factors affecting psychological well-being in military personnel. They identified an association between support within the organization, better job satisfaction, and turnover intentions.

More recently, Valor-Segura et al. (2020) conducted a study about predicting job satisfaction in military organizations. The goal of this study was to identify the relationship between emotional intelligence, teamwork communication, and job attitudes in Spanish military cadets. In a multicenter study of horizontal violence in U.S. military nursing, Hopkinson et al. (2020) identified a significant correlation between job satisfaction, intent to leave, and horizontal violence. Valor-Segura et al. (2020) found that team communication skills and emotional aptness may contribute to academic training programs to increase job satisfaction with military cadets. Additional research conducted on military job satisfaction includes a study by Mobilio et al. (2021). Mobilio

et al. explored the relationship between perceptions of public affairs and job satisfaction in the U.S. Marine Corps. Results from this study include how role clarity exists for the U.S. Marine Corps and a positive correlation to increased job satisfaction among public affairs practitioners.

### **Evolution of the Characteristics of Servant Leadership**

In the 1970s, Greenleaf introduced servant leadership as the concept used by leaders who consistently lead by serving others. Later, in 1995, Spears proposed 10 characteristics of servant leadership. This section offers an in-depth analysis of the 10 characteristics developed by Spears to further understand the different aspects of servant leadership. Barbuto and Gottfredson (2016) suggested that servant leadership is an optimal leadership style not only for the organization's development but also for making the organization a preferred workplace. A servant leader focuses on developing followers based on a leader's selfless position (Eva et al., 2019). As Greenleaf (1977) explained, there are too few leaders because of how institutions organize themselves; only a few can become leaders. Servant leaders not only serve their followers but also develop followers into servant leaders (Eva et al., 2019).

Servant leadership is a more holistic leadership style that focuses on engaging people relationally, ethically, emotionally, and spiritually (Eva et al., 2019). Although Greenleaf (1977) developed servant leadership, scholars have discussed the unclear definition of the leadership style (Eva et al., 2019; Lemoine et al., 2019; Spears, 1995). Recall that Greenleaf (1977) defined servant leadership as recognizing the servant leader is a servant first. Greenleaf explained that this leadership style begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve. After a servant leader has served first, a conscious choice

leads one to aspire to lead (Eva et al., 2019; Lemoine et al., 2019; Spears, 1995).

Because of a lack of clear definition, scholars and practitioners created various definitions and models for servant leadership (Keith, 2008; Laub, 1998; Russell & Stone, 2002; Sipe & Frick, 2015; Spears, 1995). The result of these many evaluations and interpretations of servant leadership is a wide range of models and characteristics (Keith, 2008; Laub, 1998; Russell & Stone, 2002; Sipe & Frick, 2015; Spears, 1995). Not only is there a wide range of interpretations of servant leadership, but Senjaya (2003) also identified over 100 servant leadership characteristics in the literature (Focht & Ponton, 2015).

In 1991, Graham was the first to publish an article on leadership, moral development, and citizenship behavior, highlighting the characteristics of servant leadership. In Graham's work, servant leadership characteristics focused on humility, relational power, autonomy, the moral development of followers, and emulation of the leaders' service orientation. Later, in 1992, De Pree identified the characteristics of leadership as the following: integrity, vulnerability, discernment, awareness of the human spirit, courage in relationships, sense of humor, intellectual energy and curiosity, respect for the future, regard for the present, understanding of the past, predictability, breadth, comfort with ambiguity, and presence. Although De Pree did not explicitly call these the characteristics of servant leadership, he did state that leadership was a position of servanthood (Focht & Ponton, 2015). Since Greenleaf's introduction of servant leadership in the 1970s, influential scholars on the subject include Laub (1998), Russell and Stone (2002), and Patterson (2003).



Although Greenleaf (1970, 1977, 2003) did not explicitly identify the characteristics of servant leadership, the 10 characteristics developed by Spears (1995) gained an audience throughout the literature (Matteson & Irving, 2006; McClellan, 2007; Parris & Peachey, 2013; Patel, 2019). Although scholars have contributed to the inherent characteristics of servant leadership, Spears's (2010) 10 characteristics were outlined by van Dierendonck (2011) as follows:

(1) listening, emphasizing the importance of communication and seeking to identify the will of the people; (2) empathy, understanding others and accepting how and what they are; (3) healing, the ability to help make whole; (4) awareness, being awake; (5) persuasion, seeking to influence others relying on arguments, not on positional power; (6) conceptualization, thinking beyond the present-day need and stretching it into a possible future; (7) foresight, foreseeing outcomes of situations and working with intuition; (8) stewardship, holding something in trust and serving the needs of others; (9) commitment to the growth of people, nurturing the personal, professional, and spiritual growth of others; (10) building community, emphasizing that local communities are essential in a persons' life. (p. 1232)

With Greenleaf's contributions to servant leadership development, Spears (1995) further developed the 10 characteristics. Van Dierendonck (2011) highlighted Spears (1995) as having the most significant impact in deciphering Greenleaf's servant leadership model. Although the 10 characteristics developed by Spears have become popular throughout the literature, Buchen (1998) also identified four characteristics of servant leadership in 1998. Buchen identified four servant leadership characteristics:

capacity for reciprocity, preoccupation with the future, relationship building, and self-identity. The literature includes several other scholars who illustrated their characteristics of servant leadership (Laub, 1998; Patterson, 2003; Russell & Stone, 2002). For example, Laub (1998) identified six features of an organization run by effective servant leaders, which were outlined by Parris and Peachey (2013) as follows:

- (1) values people—believing, serving, and non-judgmentally listening to others;
  - (2) develops people—providing learning, growth, encouragement, and affirmation;
  - (3) builds community—developing strong collaborative and personal relationships;
  - (4) displays authenticity—being open, accountable, and willing to learn from others;
  - (5) provides leadership—foreseeing the future, taking initiative, and establishing goal; and
  - (6) shares leadership—facilitating and sharing power.
- (p. 383)

Russell and Stone (2002) further contributed to developing Greenleaf's servant leadership model, refining nine functional and 11 attendant characteristics. Russell and Stone's nine functional attributes are vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, and empowerment. To support these, they added 11 attributes: communication, credibility, competence, stewardship, visibility, influence, persuasion, listening, encouragement, teaching, and delegation (Parris & Peachey, 2013).

As previously mentioned, many scholars interpreted servant leadership (Keith, 2008; Laub, 1998; Russell & Stone, 2002; Sipe & Frick, 2015; Spears, 1995). In 2003, Patterson introduced seven characteristics: love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, and service. Later Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) identified five servant leadership factors: altruistic calling, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, wisdom, and

organizational stewardship. In 2007, Irving and Longbotham identified five characteristics of servant leadership: engaging in honest self-evaluation, fostering collaboration, providing accountability, supporting, and resourcing. Although the servant leadership model has existed for over 40 years, Eva et al. (2019) explained that 100 articles on servant leadership have been published over the previous 4 years alone.

Eva et al. (2019) further provided a systematic review and called for future research on servant leadership. Eva et al. identified Graham's (1991) contribution to servant leadership as pioneering work that laid the foundation for developing the theory. Although the servant leadership theory has received increased academic interest, Eva et al. (2019) believed additional clarity is needed in the field. Setyaningrum et al. (2020) contributed to research on servant leadership in a literature review on servant leadership characteristics, organizational commitment, followers' trust, and employees' performance outcomes. More recently, Bahmani et al. (2021) conducted a mixed-methods study examining servant leadership in a military context. Bahmani et al. claimed their study was the first to develop a model for servant leadership in a military context using a mixed-method design.

### ***Spears's 10 Characteristics of servant leadership***

In 1977, Greenleaf stated that the servant leader is a person with a calling to serve first, followed by a conscious decision to lead. Eva et al. (2019) suggested that since the inception of servant leadership, research on the topic has gone through phases, beginning with Greenleaf who focused on conceptual development. Eva et al. identified Spears (1995) as a contributor in the first phase. Almost 20 years after Greenleaf introduced the servant leadership model, Spears (1995) identified the current 10 characteristics:

listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to growth, and building community. Spears stated, “By no means exhausted. However, these characteristics communicate the power and promise this concept offers to those who are open to its invitation and challenge” (p. 7).

**Listening.** The first characteristic of servant leadership listed by Spears (1995) is listening. Although communication and decision-making skills are essential for leaders, Spears (2010) believed they need to be reinforced by listening intently to others. Crippen and Willows (2019) explained that the servant leader listens first, listens profoundly, and listens reflectively. Spears (2010) explained, in a journal on virtues and leadership, that the servant leader listens receptively to what is being said and unsaid. Mareus et al. (2019) described servant leadership as crucial for leaders to not only be empathetic to the needs of their followers but also to improve their relationships with their followers. Warren (2012) stated, “Listening and communicating will establish trust, keep problems from escalating, and can improve organizations” (p. 6). Hoch et al. (2018) noted that leaders process information through listening, objectively considering different perspectives, and weighing options before making decisions.

In an essay on servant leadership, Greenleaf stated, “I have a bias about this which suggests that only a true natural servant automatically responds to any problem by listening first” (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 8). Spears selected listening as the first characteristic of the servant leader, and Greenleaf explained how leaders have the potential to learn how to listen. In more recent studies, Coetzer et al. (2017) examined over 20 different articles that reference listening as a servant leadership characteristic. These characteristics have been described as a leader actively and respectfully listening, asking

questions, creating knowledge, and providing time to reflect (Coetzer et al., 2017). Cable (2018) stated, “Ask how you can help employees do their jobs better—then listen” (p. 3). Although the idea of listening sounds simple, Cable explained that leaders should focus on listening to employees’ suggestions on how they could do their job better rather than telling them how to do it. Greenleaf (1977) wrote, “Become a natural servant through a long, arduous discipline of learning to listen; a discipline sufficiently sustained that the automatic response to any problem is to listen first” (p. 10).

**Empathy.** The second characteristic listed by Spears (1995) is empathy. Coetzer et al. (2017) described empathy as caring for others, acting in kindness, forgiving others, being accepting, and showing appreciation for others and who they are. Mareus et al. (2019) noted that empathy is a trait that servant leaders should embody to identify and connect with others. Knock et al. (2019) explained in an article on empathetic leadership that people need support in all aspects of life. The support Knock et al. referred to is empathy, and by offering empathy, leaders can create a powerful bond that can result in encouragement in the workplace. Spears and Lawrence (2016) explained that people need to be accepted; the servant leader can meet this need by aspiring to empathize with and understand others.

Crippen and Willows (2019) described empathy as striving fully to understand people, their circumstances, and their challenges. Greenleaf (2003) suggested that empathy relates to assuming the good intentions of others, but Crippen and Willows (2019) believed it occurs through building the confidence and trust of followers.

A. Mishra and Mahapatra (2018) referenced empathy in a study on servant leadership as a necessity for competitive advantage; they explained that this servant leadership quality

could drive organizations toward long-term success. Horsman (2018) examined empathy as a crucial building block of moral intelligence, a characteristic that involves learning to listen even while there is chaos.

**Healing.** Spears (1995) described healing, the third characteristic, as, “One of the greatest strengths of servant-leadership is the potential for healings one’s self and others” (p. 3). Mareus et al. (2019) explained how healing happens through servant leaders who reach out to their followers, offering to heal through unity and sincere support from the person in charge. Coetzer et al. (2017) and Crippen and Willows (2019) both noted healing as commonly associated with healing oneself and others to become whole. Additionally, they explained that healing seems to be closely related to compassion, as it focuses on helping others recover from hardships and assisting in the healing of relationships.

Healing emerges when there is compassion for oneself and others, and thus compassion evokes healing (Horsman, 2018). Horsman further suggested that healing is rooted in developing integrity, becoming responsible, and conveying compassion and forgiveness. Spears and Lawrence (2016) explained that although many people suffer from a wide range of emotional pain, servant leaders recognize their opportunity to help make another whole. Greenleaf (1970) described the relationship between the servant leader and followers as a subtle understanding that this search for wholeness is a shared desire.

**Awareness.** Crippen and Willows (2019) described Spears’s (1995) fourth characteristic, awareness, as being open and aware of as much as possible. Mareus et al. (2019) described awareness as self-awareness and discussed how, in the context of

leaders, one must evaluate oneself to identify one's strengths. Horsman (2018), in a book about servant leaders in training, suggested that the servant leader in training strives for enhanced awareness; by intentionally stimulating imagination and listening deeply, one can enhance self-awareness.

Coetzer et al. (2017) revealed that stability and modesty stem from the association of self-awareness and humility. They further explained that servant leaders are aware of their strengths and development, are open to learning opportunities, and have a humble attitude. Spears (2010), in the *Journal of Virtues and Leadership*, specified that general awareness and self-awareness strengthen the servant leader but also help in understanding the issues surrounding ethics, power, and values.

**Persuasion.** Crippen and Willows (2019) explained that the servant leader strives to convince followers through influence rather than coercion or positional authority. Coercion can be detrimental to a work environment, but persuasion is a crucial element in the administration of a servant leader (Mareus et al., 2019). Although Greenleaf (1996) called for a form of persuasion that does not involve manipulation or coercion, he also explained that coercive power is useful to stop or destroy something. Horsman (2018) agreed that the servant leader practices persuasion without coercion and manipulation. Horsman defined persuasion as freely arriving at a decision based on what leaders know and from their intentions.

Kiker et al. (2019) identified persuasion as the servant leader's power source, trying to prepare the organization and its members for contributions rather than using charisma or punishment. Spears (1995) listed persuasion as the fourth characteristic of

servant leadership. In 2010, Spears further explained how persuasion over coercion are rooted in a body to which Greenleaf belonged.

**Conceptualization.** The servant leader must have creativity and a broader perspective regarding a problem or organization (Crippen & Willows, 2019). Greenleaf (2003) described conceptualization as servant leaders having to think beyond the day-to-day realities. Servant leaders are enabled by their conceptual thinking to see beyond the tangible and to see the bigger picture (Mareus et al., 2019). Horsman (2018) identified two aspects of conceptualization. The first is a clarification process focusing on developing precise, logical reasoning; the second is describing the bigger picture and making connections.

Spears (1995) and Greenleaf (2003) noted that the servant leader views conceptualization as thinking beyond the day-to-day realities. Kiker et al. (2019) agreed with that definition while highlighting how this characteristic requires discipline and practice. Kiker et al. suggested that conceptualization is a competency identified in the literature, for example, having a higher vision, linking past events and current trends, and creating value for a higher purpose. The vision Kiker et al. discussed encompasses three major components, a higher purpose, value creation for the community, and linking the past, present, and future. Spears (2010) noted that conceptualization requires discipline and practice, but the traditional leader is usually consumed by the need to achieve short-term goals.

**Foresight.** Spears's seventh characteristic, foresight, was described by Crippen and Willows (2019) as the ability to reflect on and predict instances in the future by using the information and understandings available to them. Greenleaf (1977) explained that



foresight is the central ethic of leadership and the greatest creative skill. Later, Greenleaf (2003) noted foresight was a central tenant of leadership and defined it as having the ability to view the past, present, and future. Horsman (2018) believed that Greenleaf implied that foresight is so essential that leadership does not occur if it is not present. Although servant leaders can see what is happening at the moment, having foresight allows them to see with an eye to the future (Mareus et al., 2019).

In 2010, Spears suggested that foresight was strictly related to having the ability to foresee likely outcomes of situations. He continued by explaining that foresight is known when one experiences it. Furthermore, Spears noted that servant leaders could understand lessons from the past and identify present realities and the likely consequences of decisions. Similar to foresight, Patterson (2003) described vision as one servant leadership construct. The servant leader has a vision not only for the future destination of the organization but also for individuals. Patterson discussed that Greenleaf's (1977) primary question for leaders to ask themselves is, "Do the people they serve grow?" The servant leaders' vision includes the belief that everyone can improve, reach goals, and encourage confidence among the followers.

**Stewardship.** Greenleaf (2003) explained how servant leaders display stewardship by always considering the good. He also noted that stewardship includes considering potential impacts on individuals, families, and communities and how the organization's decisions impact the natural world. In servant leadership, stewardship includes making a positive impact through being a steward for the organization and contributing to the greater good of society (Crippen & Willows, 2019). Stewardship is an essential component of the servant leader because it displays the leader's devotion and

ensures that others' needs are represented (Mareus et al., 2019). The stewardship practiced by the servant leader involves moral authority and aims to make a general good of the whole and the specific (Horsman, 2018).

When discussing the functions of a servant leader, Kiker et al. (2019) identified stewardship as a process in which the leader takes accountability for the common interest of society, an organization, and individuals. The findings revealed that stewardship meant leaving a positive legacy, such as having a caretaker's attitude rather than the attitude of an owner. Kiker et al. also noted that accountability was an essential attribute of good stewardship. Spears (2010) summarized servant leadership as being like stewardship, both seemingly committing to serving the needs of others first. Similar to stewardship, Patterson (2003) explained how the servant leader who leads with agape love is focused on employees first, second on the talents of employees, and last on how these actions benefit the organization.

**Commitment to the Growth of People.** Spears's (1995) depiction of commitment to the growth of people was later discussed by Greenleaf (2003) when he stated that leaders help the people they serve become more confident and capable. Crippen and Willows (2019) revealed a commitment to the growth of people as Greenleaf's "best test" as a leader and as a focus for servant leadership. Mareus et al. (2019) identified commitment to the growth of people as an essential factor in the assessment of the servant leader. They stated that the servant leader contributes to the development and growth of individuals. Similar to commitment to the growth of people, Patterson's (2003) empowerment includes balancing the growth of followers while the servant leader remains aware of what is best for the followers.

Greenleaf (2003) explained the importance of a commitment to the growth of people, especially in becoming more confident and capable. Spears (2010) described commitment to the growth of people in his article in *The Journal of Virtues and Leadership* as the state of being deeply committed to the growth of every individual within the organization. Identifying attributes related to growth, this characteristic is focused on both the self and others. Patterson (2003) identified the growth of followers not only in empowerment but also in discussing vision. He explained that the servant leader fosters a great capacity for growth on behalf of followers.

**Building Community.** Greenleaf (2003) noted how servant leaders build community and strengthen relationships, even if this requires them to do things different. Mareus et al. (2019) described building community as integral to the success of a servant leader. Marcus et al. also explained how servant leaders aim to build community through methods that create positive results when developing their organization. Horsman (2018) described the building of community as aiming to promote community through a commitment to serving first; this is how servant leaders acknowledge that the people they work with are vital to the development of their organization. Spears (2010) continued Horsman's research on building community and emphasized that it is possible to construct a real community among those who work in businesses and institutions. Leadership models have been reviewed and used to support the development of the research questions for the present study. This literature review about servant leadership characteristics has identified an influential element in Spears's (1995) 10 characteristics. These characteristics were used in this study to provide the context within which a U.S. Navy leader's behavior exhibits the characteristics of a servant leader.

## **Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction**

In today's competitive work environment, servant leadership is a style of leadership that is essential for making the workforce satisfied, committed, and motivated. Servant leaders can enhance the creativity and innovation of employees that can help the workforce relieve job monotony. Researchers believed that servant leadership could solve the problem of employee retention by building trust, compassion, love, and empathy toward the workforce (A. Mishra & Mahapatra, 2018). Knock et al. (2019) found that leader empathy increases performance by increasing follower job satisfaction and fostering innovation.

As previously mentioned, servant leadership has existed since its introduction by Greenleaf (1977). Over the years, scholars and practitioners have continued to define and develop the theory. Within these studies, identified is a connection between the practice of servant leadership and job satisfaction (Dapula & Castano, 2017; Greenleaf, 1977; Nisa et al., 2019; Ramdas & Patrick, 2019; Spears, 2010). In addition to researchers' identification of this correlation, the literature has also shown that this connection exists in several industries.

Nisa et al. (2019) examined the relationship between servant leadership, employee engagement, burnout, and job satisfaction. The organization they chose to examine was a state-owned organization established over 60 years ago named PT Pertamina; this company has an oil and gas business in the upstream to downstream segments. Results from this study come from a sample of 272 people in positions ranging from support to management. Nisa et al. found strong evidence for a positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Nisa et al. noted that the more servant leader

behaviors were used, the more elements of job satisfaction were met. Lee et al. (2018) conducted a similar study on servant leadership and job satisfaction; however, their focus was on fitness clubs, surveying 320 employees. Results from that study identified servant leadership in fitness clubs as having a positive influence on employees' job satisfaction.

In a study examining effective leadership styles and employee job satisfaction, Dapula and Castano (2017) investigated parochial schools in Manila, the Philippines, under the Roman Catholic education system. Dapula and Castano identified job satisfaction among the essential factors for organizational success. In their study, and similar to Nisa et al. (2019) and Lee et al. (2018), Dapula and Castano (2017) discovered that servant leadership provides positive outcomes that contribute to job satisfaction. Farrington and Lillah (2019) contributed to a study on servant leadership and job satisfaction; their study focused on private healthcare practices, collecting data from 241 questionnaires. Findings from that study differed slightly from Nisa et al., Lee et al. (2018), and Dapula and Castano's because acts of humility and servanthood by practitioners did not exist to influence job satisfaction. The results from the Farrington and Lillah (2019) study focus on the significant positive relationship identified between the development of others and job satisfaction. From fitness clubs to private healthcare, servant leadership has been a topic of discussion within many industries. Lindquist and Russell's (2019) study focused on perceptions in fire and emergency services. Conducting their study involved 205 participants, resulting in a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction within their industry.

Conclusions from the research of many different industries have shown mostly similar but different results about servant leadership and its impact on job satisfaction. Nisa et al. (2019) revealed that servant leadership is a unique form of leadership focusing on people and attending to followers' needs and their development. Results from Nisa et al.'s study explained how a servant leader could influence followers and organizational outcomes by increasing employee job satisfaction. Concurrently, Lee et al. (2018) suggested that fitness club managers, as servant leaders, should present a direction for the employees to move forward and show the employees more attention through conversations rather than practicing authority, unilateral orders, and control as a means to improve job satisfaction.

Farrington and Lillah (2019) found that the results from their study aligned with their literature review, suggesting that leaders who display servant leader behaviors care about the wellbeing and success of their followers. Although it is evident that the private healthcare practitioners who participated in Farrington and Lillah's study were practicing servant leadership, further research within similar industries would help in support of this topic. Additionally, Lindquist and Russell (2019) found that fire and emergency services could improve the overall job satisfaction of their employees by employing the philosophies of servant leadership in their leadership practices.

### **Criticisms of Servant Leadership**

Many scholars and practitioners have identified positive results from their research on servant leadership (Dapula & Castano, 2017; Farrington & Lillah, 2019; Lee et al., 2018; Lindquist & Russell, 2019; Nisa et al., 2019). In 2007, P. T. Wong and Davey examined the best practices of servant leadership. Evidence from Wong and

Davey's study identified the advantages of servant leadership, including flexible leadership, prevention, or reduction of the abuse of power, decrease in egotistic concerns, and more. Regardless of the many studies producing positive results, there are also negative observations of servant leadership. Gonaim (2019) suggested that although servant leadership is a viable leadership style, certain drawbacks can weaken a leader's performance. Quinn and Bryant (2019) described servant leadership critique as that of a "soft" approach.

P. T. Wong and Davey (2007) explained how the term *servant leader* sounds like an oxymoron. They suggested that in the harsh business world, the term might seem weak. Furthermore, they described the term as being indecisive and noted that there might be potential for CEOs to become afraid of this stigma. Gonaim (2019) discussed that the participants in his study indicated that servant leaders could seem to be weak leaders. Gonaim further explained that the leaders' attitude toward this belief might affect their decision to adopt such a leadership style; if the department chairs hold a predominant belief that leadership is authority, they might believe that the practice of servant leadership decreases their authority.

P. T. Wong and Davey (2007) suggested that some might see servant leadership as restrictive because of the variation in associated qualities. Furthermore, Wong and Davey suggested that new leaders might also have difficulties practicing servant leadership because of implementing the various characteristics. Gonaim (2019) noted several obstacles that can hinder the application of the servant leadership style, including the workplace culture, the reaction of followers, and the attitude of the leaders. The

predominant culture has a significant impact when implementing something outside the comfort zone of the individuals involved.

Servant leadership is not a cure for all situations. Northouse (2018) noted that other leadership models might fit the conditions of an organization better. After all, organizations may find themselves in different situations. Northouse suggested that the servant leader should not always rely on the servant leadership approach. Gonaim's (2019) study aimed to identify the possible effects of embracing servant leadership. Gonaim's findings indicate challenges in adopting the servant leadership style that include workplace culture, followers' reactions, and leaders' attitudes.

P. T. Wong and Davey (2007) discussed that leaders who adopt the servant leader approach might allow individuals to take advantage of their servant leader nature. Northouse (2018) explained that servant leadership is unique because followers are put first and are willing to share decision-making and control. He argued that the potential for individuals to take advantage of servant leaders' nature, as P. T. Wong and Davey (2017) suggested, might arise in situations where decision-making and control are shared. More recently, Gonaim (2019) indicated a weakness that concurs with findings from P. T. Wong and Davey (2007) and Northouse (2018). Gonaim's research indicated a servant being taken advantage of could result from the servant leader who encompasses positive impacts in the working environment.

Participants from Gonaim's (2019) study indicated that members might take advantage of what they perceive as weak leaders. Gonaim categorized this criticism as "follower's reactions" that explained how followers might take advantage by becoming



lax in fulfilling their responsibilities or exerting less effort in performing their tasks.

Results of these reactions include a potential decrease in motivation and productivity.

Other criticisms noted within the literature include an observation by P. T. Wong and Davey (2007) that the servant leader could be a hypocrite when servant leaders do not behave as such. Quinn and Bryant (2019) believed that declaring oneself a servant leader does not make a person one. Gonaim (2019) also noted that work performance might be affected if the time allocated is focused on looking at others' needs rather than working toward the department's goals. Last, Gonaim (2019) suggested that department chairs may not be comfortable practicing an unpopular leadership style. He further explained that the servant leadership style may be adopted because an organization believes that they already practice sufficient leadership. Gonaim summarized the weaknesses of servant leadership as leaders finding themselves in a position to compromise between the organizations' interests and those of the followers.

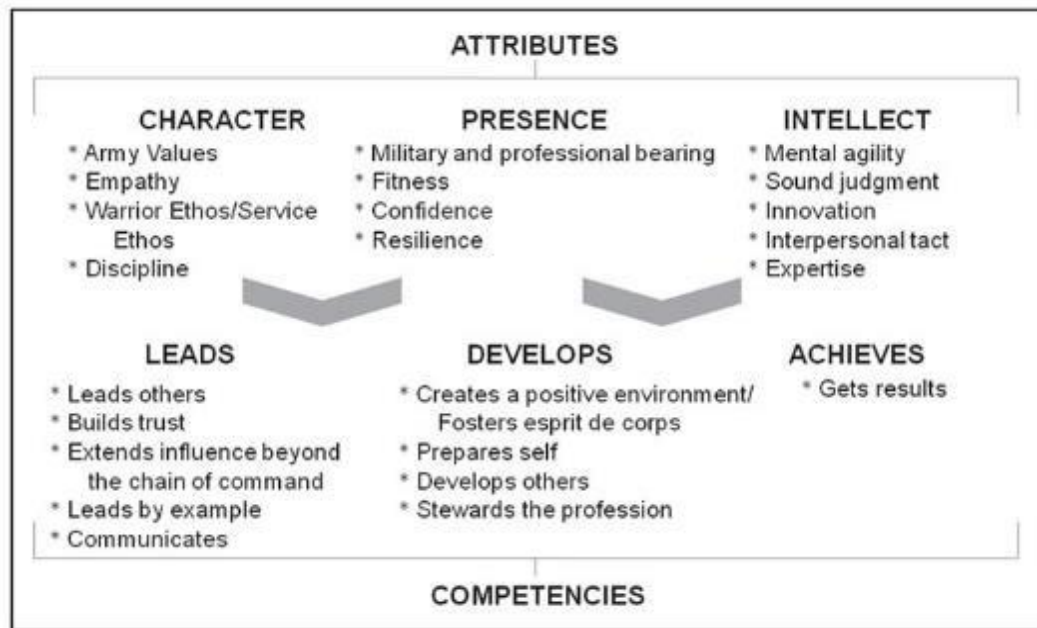
### **The Relevance of servant leadership to the U.S. Navy**

Previous literature has identified servant leadership as already used by the U.S. military (Jordan, 2015). Quinn and Bryant (2019) explained that the Army's leadership requirements model encompasses the attributes and competencies of a servant leader. They further explained how the leadership requirements model directly correlates with the servant leadership core competencies "develops" (see Figure 1). Duffy (2016) explained that the servant leadership style has historically been practiced throughout the military, for example, by a former army officer and founder of the Marine Corps' Evans Carlson Raider Battalion. Sampayo and Maranga (2019) researched how Air Force lawyers operate from a servant leader perspective, suggesting that traditional

management models and behaviors in the military have not worked in the past and will not work in the 21st century.

**Figure 1**

*The Army Leadership Requirements Model*



Quinn and Bryant (2019) conducted a study on servant leadership and the Army officer. Although Quinn and Bryant suggested that officers might face a conflict between discipline and their moral obligations as servant leaders, they proposed that officers satisfy both obligations. Quinn and Bryant found empirical evidence that identified the compatibility of the Army’s leadership requirements model and servant leadership. The Army’s attribute “develops” aligns with a servant leader’s belief in the value of each individual (Quinn & Bryant, 2019; van Dierendonck, 2011).

The characteristic stewardship, in servant leadership practices, has been noted as part of the leadership requirements model. The Army Doctrine References Publication

noted that “leaders demonstrate stewardship when they act to improve the organization beyond their own tenure” (Department of the Army, 2019, p. 6-15). Quinn and Bryant (2019) discussed how the principle of mission command is an apparent parallel between Army doctrine and that of servant leadership. Discussed in the Army Doctrine Publication (ADP) 6-0 is mission command, “the exercise of authority and direction by the commander using mission orders *to enable* disciplined initiative within the commander’s intent *to empower* agile and adaptive leaders in the conduct of unified land operations” (Quinn & Bryant, 2019, p. 84).

Servant leadership is also present in the U.S. marines. Duffy (2016) discussed Evan Carlson’s use of this leadership style and how it has impacted the organization overall. The founder of the Marines, Carlson, was to have taken an unorthodox approach, calling his more egalitarian style “Gung Ho.” Duffy (2016) explained how the phrase Gung Ho came from a Chinese phrase that means “work together.” Attributes of this style display what would be described in the early 2020s as servant leadership. The Gung Ho attributes encompass valuing people, developing people, building the community, authenticity, leadership for the good of those led, sharing power, and sharing status for the common good of each individual. Referred to as the first among people, leaders in the Marines receive no special treatment for their increased responsibilities (Duffy, 2016; van Dierendonck, 2011). The Gung Ho or servant leadership model implemented by Carlson provides lessons for military leadership today (Duffy, 2016).

Sampayo and Maranga (2019) suggested that servant leadership models are one of the new military leadership models of the 21st century. For example, each military branch, including the Army, Air Force, Marine Corps, Navy, and Coast Guard, has

lawyers. According to Sampayo and Maranga, each branch manager of the lawyer firm utilizes and similarly trains their lawyers. They further explained that lawyers in the military have a dual role that encompasses serving the state and its citizens as well as their primary clients—commanders. Similar to Robert Greenleaf’s (1977) account of servant leadership, Sampayo and Maranga (2019) outlined how the Air Force Judge Advocate General serves. Yeboah-Assiamah et al. (2019) explained that servant leaders serve according to highly principled means and with humility, aligning with Quinn and Bryant’s (2019) analysis of servant leadership in the Army. Metscher et al. (2011) discussed that the code of conduct for the Armed Forces of the United States not only requires the highest commitment anyone can give to their country but requires that all active-duty military personnel memorize and abide by the code.

### **Summary**

This chapter included an extensive review of the literature about the evolution of leadership in general and military leadership. Additionally, this chapter explored job satisfaction theories, the impact of job satisfaction, measurements of job satisfaction, and job satisfaction in the military. Furthermore, this chapter revealed the process for examining servant leadership characteristics, including literature on servant leadership and job satisfaction. Last, the chapter included discussions regarding criticisms of servant leadership, followed by a review of the relevance of servant leadership to the U.S. Navy.

Within the workplace, certain factors can affect job satisfaction and workers’ job performance (Brooks & Greenberg, 2018). Historically, scholars have examined the impact of leadership style on job satisfaction and have offered insight into how

organizations can utilize this information to gain organizational success (Dapula & Castano, 2017; Qing et al., 2019; Spisak et al., 2015;). Qing et al. (2019) explained that, among other leadership styles, ethical leadership could profoundly inspire employees' sense of satisfaction toward their work and the success of their organization. Although there is extensive research on military leadership and job satisfaction, there is a shortage of research including servant leadership. Therefore, the focus of this study was on investigating the relationship between servant leadership behaviors and job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel to add to the literature on the topics of both servant leadership and military leadership.

Bass (1990) explained that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. Leadership is “the process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2019, p. 3). Leadership development has grown over the years, with the earliest record of leadership being that of Moses (Baron, 1999). In addition to research on leadership styles over the years, scholars began to investigate the styles within military organizations. The history of leadership in the military dates back over 250 years (Bering, 2011), with more focus on traditional leadership styles and very little research about the use of servant leadership.

The importance of leadership in the military has been shown throughout the literature as scholars have identified the many formal, operational assignments and self-development tools implemented to develop leaders (L. Wong et al., 2003). With the ultimate responsibility of the military being to the people of its country (Sampayo & Maranga, 2019), scholars have emphasized the importance of growth in military

leadership. Historically, research about servant leadership can be further developed of the many leadership theories developed and examined over the years.

Over the years, scholars have identified many connections in research, specifically, characteristics and elements of leadership styles carried out by leadership and job satisfaction. Scholarly interest in job satisfaction has grown substantially over the years, including theories that help identify possible motivators of job satisfaction. Organizations became interested in the impact of job satisfaction as scholars began to identify both positive and negative effects on employees' levels of job satisfaction. This research identified several impacts of job satisfaction, including a commitment to the organization, increased productivity, loyalty, employee turnover, and motivation at work. Many of these studies included suggestions for how organizations can improve job satisfaction and positively impact their organization (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2017; Rožman et al., 2017; Singh et al., 2019).

Despite the many measurement tools developed for job satisfaction, researchers continue to explore each tool in various organizations. Job satisfaction in the military is one such category of an organization that has been researched to a degree but could significantly benefit from further contributions. Very little attention has been paid to servant leadership, specifically regarding leadership and job satisfaction in the military. Scholars have attempted to identify using servant leadership characteristics and their relationship to the job satisfaction of military personnel. A. Mishra and Mahapatra (2018) explained that servant leadership is essential for making the workforce satisfied, committed, and motivated.

The *Navy Leader Development Framework 3.0* provides directions for maintaining maritime superiority. This framework supported the Navy's foundation of humility, embracing core values of honor, courage, and commitment. Additionally, the framework outlines several attributes, such as integrity, accountability, initiative, and toughness. Furthermore, the framework specifies leader's commitment to improving the competence, character, and connections between themselves and their teams. Last, the framework notes the importance of inspiring teams to achieve the best possible performance. The *Navy Leader Development Framework 3.0* outlines how the Navy develops their leaders to demonstrate operational excellence, strong character, and resilience through the community at every level of seniority. The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent relationships existed between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy.

## CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter includes a discussion regarding the research problem and purpose of this study. This chapter includes the research design, sampling procedure, instruments, and the selection or development of research tools. Additional detail is provided to describe the procedures used for data collection and the plan executed for data analysis. The validity and reliability of instruments are discussed, and each section concludes with a rationale, including the strengths and limitations of the design elements.

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent relationships existed between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. The implication of expanding the research into the servant leadership and job satisfaction constructs to include the U.S. Navy organization is to create a broader understanding of these concepts in a new setting. This quantitative exploratory study is an evaluation of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The military community may consider the findings from this study significant as it could identify leadership characteristics currently being used and identify characteristics that could increase job satisfaction, improve job performance, and save the organization money by lowering the attrition rates of their personnel. For this study, a quantitative approach was appropriate to gain the necessary understanding. The discussion in this chapter includes the research method, research design, and sample, and concludes with instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis. Additionally, the following research questions guided this study.



### **Research Questions**

1. What is the relationship, if any, between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel?
2. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
3. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
4. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
5. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
6. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
7. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?

8. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?

### **Hypotheses**

H01: There is no significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel.

H1: There is a significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel.

H02: The servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H2: The servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H03: The servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H3: The servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H04: The servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H4: The servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H05: The servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H5: The servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H06: The servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H6: The servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H07: The servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H7: The servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H08: The servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H8: The servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

### **Research Design**

Research designs may have labels that are not mutually exclusive. For instance, the method selected for this study was quantitative. It also involved a survey as a means

of data collection, so the research design might also be described as a survey research design. The research questions were answered by correlational analyses. Therefore, the research design can be described as correlational. Thus, it may be described as a quantitative, survey research correlational design. Research for the design selected is further explained within this section.

Plans and procedures for research stem from the selected research approach (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Creswell and Creswell explained how selecting a research approach involves, to begin with, the decision of which approach should be used to study a topic. Scholarly research is more systematic, objective, and careful, and a researcher is more concerned about correctness and truthfulness than everyday research (Berger, 2018). Blaikie and Priest (2019) suggested that careful consideration should be taken before making the choices necessary to design a research project. Before selecting a research method, researchers should review to consider which methodology and design would be best (Subedi, 2016).

Creswell and Creswell (2017) used a framework to explain three components of the research approach: philosophical worldviews, designs, and research methods. The three communities of research are quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies (Subedi, 2016). Creswell and Creswell (2017) revealed two components within the three research approaches: philosophical assumptions and distinct methods or procedures. Philosophical assumptions refer to the worldview they bring to the study and can be postpositivist, constructivist, transformative, or pragmatic. Once a researcher has selected whether the study will be a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed-method, and

research has been conducted on the philosophical worldviews, the type of study or research design is then selected (Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

Research design uses principles to evaluate the quality of business research (Bell et al., 2018). Creswell and Creswell (2017) described research design as providing a specific direction for procedures in a research study. Research design is not only a statement of the technical decision involved in planning a research project but also a justification of it (Blaikie & Priest, 2019). As technology has advanced over the years, the research design methods available have increased (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Subedi (2016) suggested that researchers should determine whether their research questions require mono or mixed design. They should be aware of the number of topologies available and select the best design for the study. They should also be aware of implications, list general criteria before making a selection, apply selected criteria to potential designs, and develop a new method if no best design exists (Subedi, 2016). Examples of research designs include experimental, nonexperimental, longitudinal, narrative, phenomenological, grounded theory, ethnographic, case study, convergent, explanatory sequential, exploratory sequential, and complex approaches with embedded core designs.

Bell et al. (2018) discussed that research design is simply a technique for collecting data that ultimately guides the execution of a research method and data analysis. The research method is the third element of Creswell and Creswell's (2017) framework, described previously. Research methods include questions, data collection, data analysis, interpretation, and validation (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Before selecting research methods, one should consider the full range of possibilities for data

collection (Blaikie & Priest, 2019; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Research method types include but are not limited to predetermined, instrument-based questions, performance data, attitude data, observational data, statistical analysis, both open- and closed-ended questions, multiple forms of data drawing on all possibilities, emerging methods, and interview data.

Before selecting a research method, a comprehensive review commenced (Subedi, 2016). Hair et al. (2019) argued that both research questions and objectives should be considered when selecting the right research design. The selected method for this study is a quantitative survey research correlational design, and the selection of a quantitative approach aligned with the nature of the study. The focus of this study was to examine the relationship among variables measured by instruments so that the data were analyzed using statistical procedures.

The focus of this quantitative study was on the relationship between two variables, servant leadership and job satisfaction. Data collection involved using a survey as a means of data collection, so the research design can also be described as a survey research design. The research questions were answered through correlational analyses. Therefore, the research design was correlational. This philosophy aligned with the variables that composed the hypotheses and research questions presented. The intent of this study was to address a problem related to the minimal understanding of how servant leadership characteristics impact the job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

### **Servant Leadership**

The method chosen for measuring servant leadership is the Servant Leader Measures survey developed by Liden et al. in 2008 (see Appendices A and B). The

Servant Leadership Measures were created by first identifying nine dimensions, including servant leaderships emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, relationships, and servanthood. These sections discuss the development, factor analysis, and validation of the Servant Leadership Measures survey.

The development of the Servant Leadership Measures began with the idea to develop and validate the multidimensional servant leadership characteristics. The first hypothesis outlined in the study is, “Servant leadership, as a construct, consists of distinguishable dimensions that define its domain” (Liden et al., 2008). Liden et al. outlined nine dimensions of servant leadership, and they explained how it appears to overlap with other leadership styles such as transformation leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1989) and the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Dansereau et al., 1975). Although servant leaders inspire their followers with enthusiasm and set examples for them to emulate, Liden et al. (2008) explained that the leadership style is similar to transformational leadership in the areas of idealized influence and intellectual stimulation. In contrast to transformational leadership, servant leadership encompasses behaviors such as serving followers first and contributing to the community.

The LMX theory focuses on a dyadic relationship between leadership and followers (Dansereau et al., 1975). Although it appears there is an overlap with the servant leader, the LMX does not include the provision of personal healing, the development of followers into servant leadership, and encouragement of serving the community (Liden et al., 2008). Liden et al. developed a second hypothesis to test the external and discriminant validity for the servant leadership scale. Findings from the

Liden et al. study explain that servant leadership is a multidimensional construct. The findings from Liden et al. study also highlight the unique contribution servant leadership provides is in explaining community, citizenship behaviors, in-role performance, and organizational commitment. These three facets identified by Liden et al. express how servant leadership's explanation in these areas is beyond transformational leadership and LMX.

Liden et al. (2008) examined servant leadership at the group level as well as at the individual level. They explored how the benefits of multilevel theorizing and empirical testing have been known for decades. In efforts to complement Hypothesis 2 at an individual level, they proposed that the servant leadership aggregated to the group level also has a relationship to key individual outcomes. Overall, Liden et al. explained that there is reason to expect that at the group level, servant leadership is influential on the attitudes and behaviors of the individual. The third hypothesis developed for this study aimed to highlight servant leadership aggregated to the group-level and its having a positive relationship to individual-level employee community citizenship behaviors, in-role performance, and organizational commitment.

The development of the Servant Leadership Measure consisted of two phases. The first phase involved generating servant leadership items from a review of relevant literature. Items were selected from widely accepted scale development methods, and Liden et al. used an exploratory factor analysis to examine the items. The items pooled were subjected to content validation and pilot-tested using a large and diversified sample of all students (Liden et al., 2008). Results from the pilot test identified seven



dimensions of servant leadership. Liden et al. compiled the four highest loading items on each of the seven dimensions to create a 28-item servant leadership scale.

Validation of the 28-item scale commenced through confirmatory factor analysis. Liden et al. (2008) used hierarchical linear modeling to assess whether the dimensions of servant leadership might explain variance in subordinate-level outcomes beyond that explained by transformation leadership and LMX. This analysis was assessed at both the individual and group levels. Liden et al. identified nine dimensions of servant leadership in the leadership literature, and they revealed how few empirical studies measured servant leadership as an independent construct. The literature review concluded that at face validity, only three preexisting measures of servant leadership were considered. None of the three preexisting scales met their criteria for the scale. The first of the three criteria Liden et al. outlined is that the scale must be based on the same nine dimensions of servant leadership identified by their team. Second, the scale must be relevant to members of work organizations. The last of the three criteria is that it must contain at least three items per dimension to facilitate internal consistency reliability estimation. This analysis brought Liden et al. to write new items and classify usable items from the existing measure according to their nine dimensions.

The content validation process began with each member independently reviewing the potential items and selecting the items that captured each dimension of servant leadership. Next, the members met to discuss their selections and reached a consensus about the final list items. The final list included 85 generated items. Of the 85 items, the dimension-level distribution was as follows: relationships, eight items; creating value for the community, nine items; empowering, eight items; helping subordinates grow and

succeed, 10 items; behaving ethically, 10 items; conceptual skills, 10 items; putting subordinates first, 12 items; emotional healing, eight items; and servanthood, 12 items (Liden et al., 2008).

Data were collected from two samples. In the first phase of the study, 85 items were evaluated with a sample of 298 students. Of the 298 students, 98.7% were undergraduates, 67.4% had current work experience, and 32.6% had recent work experience. Liden et al. explained that the survey was voluntary and that the 85-item survey was taken during class. The second phase was conducted to assess the predictive validity of the servant leadership dimension as well as confirm the results obtained from the pilot study. The second phase included 164 employees and 25 supervisors. The response rate of the employees was 56.9% and 86.2% for the supervisors. Liden et al. (2008) created a demographic breakdown in this phase to include race, gender, level of education, age, and average organizational tenure, or average length of time that the subordinate had worked with the supervisor. Procedures included Liden et al. inviting all organizational employees to participate. All participants received their regular hourly wages required to complete the survey. The surveys were completed on site, in groups, and while in the presence of one of the researchers. Liden et al. revealed that supervisors and subordinates completed the surveys in separate rooms. This phase included packets for absent participants. Absent participants received a packet with copies of the survey and stamped envelopes addressed to the first author. Of the absent participants, one supervisor and 13 subordinates mailed back the surveys. Last, both supervisor and subordinate surveys were taken by superiors who directly reported to other organizational superiors.

Results from the two samples were compiled from the 28-item servant leadership scale by which 182 participants completed ratings of their superiors. Liden et al. revealed the Confirmatory Factor Analysis at 182, and this meant that at the dyadic level, the data for all study variables were available for 153 supervisor-subordinate dyads.

Eighty percent of the items used in the servant leadership student sample pilot study were created by the authors for this project, and this equaled a total of 68 items. Five items came from Page and Wong (2000), and the final three items came from Barbuto and Wheeler (2006). Directly from Ehrhart's (2004) servant leadership scale, nine items were transposed, and two of those nine were used. Last, two items were modified to capture dimensions more specifically. Results from these two studies were seven distinguishable factors: conceptual skills, empowerment, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community.

Liden et al. (2008) selected the four highest loading servant leadership items to create the revised, 28-item scale of the seven distinguishable factors. Once they created the scale, it was given to the organizational sample to conduct a confirmation factor analysis of the seven dimensions that emerged from the pilot study conducted earlier. Liden et al. explained there are acceptable levels of interrater agreement on the servant leadership dimensions. Results also suggested between-group differences on perceptions of not all but some dimensions. Liden et al. noted how dimensions of empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, and creating value for the community indicate low reliability of the group means because of the modest group sizes. They acknowledged a limitation in that small group sizes made it hard to find

group-level effects for these specific dimensions. Although they believed this was due to the group scores not being reliably differentiated from one another, the servant leadership scores were aggregated to the group level.

Following the pilot studies, Liden et al. tested five alternative models, none of which fit better than the hypothesized model. The other models focused on transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organizational commitment and community citizenship behavior, and subordinate in-role performance. Liden et al. used the chi-square difference test and found that the seven-factor model was significantly better than the alternative models. The seven-factor hypothesis model developed from the student pilot was confirmed by the organizational sample (Liden et al., 2008). The outcome from the subordinate-level testing was examined, descriptive statistics and correlations were collected from the organizational sample, and findings on Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 3 were thoroughly discussed.

Overall, the study resulted in the servant leadership model holding promise as a framework for understanding how leadership influences their followers' attitudes and behaviors (Liden et al., 2008). Results also identified that the magnitude of correlation was not so high for transformational leadership and LMX, suggesting that servant leadership is unneeded with traditional leadership styles. A strength indicated from the results of this study was the use of two research phases and two independent samples. The 28-item servant leadership scale was generated using student data and validated through an organizational test. Testing the relationship between servant leadership and organizationally relevant outcome variables was the second strongest in developing the Servant Leadership Measure.

Cross-sectional design compromised the casual inference of the detected relationships, and there was a low power available for detecting group-level effects. Liden et al. (2008) suggested how a larger sample of groups and a larger sample of employees within groups, effects that exist in the population might be detected. Last, they identified their sample as a limitation and suggested that future research be conducted across different types of cultures and organizations. Liden et al. concluded their research with the successful development of a multidimensional measure of servant leadership. By validating their measure, Liden et al. proved servant leadership is a significant predictor of subordinate organizational commitment, community, citizenship behavior, and in-role performance.

### **Job Satisfaction**

The job satisfaction of service members was measured using the JDI (see Appendix C). Developed by Smith et al. in 1969, the JDI instrument consists of 72 items. Later, the index was revised in 1985, 1997, and more recently in 2009 (Castanheira, 2014). This index measures five dimensions of job satisfaction: satisfaction with supervision, coworkers, pay, promotional opportunities, and the work itself. Each of the five dimensions has six scales that consist of a checklist of adjectives or adjective phrases. The participants were prompted to fill in the blank beside each item with a “Y” for agreement, an “N” for disagreement, or a “?” if they could not decide.

The development of the JDI began with the idea of designing an instrument to measure the construct of job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1969). Smith et al. described job satisfaction “as the feelings a worker has about his job” (p. 100). The scales were constructed to meet the needs of raters in extremely diverse situations. The proposed

format for the rating scales was a series of continuous graphic rating scales arranged vertically. For this development, Smith et al. selected a panel of judges comprising six groups of head nurses.

The sample groups came from locations that included New York City, the Midwest, New England, and the entire continental United States, with a concentration in Ohio and Kentucky. Smith et al. (1969) had a panelist and evaluated qualities or characteristics. The dimensions were selected for further analysis. Next, the panels formulated general statements representing definitions of high, low, and acceptable performance for each quality. The panel then submitted examples of behavior related to each quality that were edited into the form of expectations of specific behaviors (Smith et al., 1969). Next, Smith et al. had the judges indicate, independently, which quality was illustrated by each example. Some judges used examples to describe a nurse with outstanding performance and another with poor performance. Smith et al. then found the difference between outstanding and poor nurse performance to determine the discrimination value for both examples.

To conclude the sample portion of the JDI, vertical scales including a list of items previously judged by other raters as belonging to a given quality were tested. Results from the test provided nine qualities that were most frequently considered necessary. Smith et al. (1969) further tested the significance of agreement among judges in assigning items to the same model classification for six scales: knowledge and judgment, conscientiousness, skills in human relationships, organizational ability, objectivity, and observational ability. Smith et al. also indicated from these tests that all retained items were clearly relevant in discriminating extreme levels of performance.

The SLQ and JDI were appropriate instruments for examining the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction for this study. Through a survey, the researcher used the SLQ as a tool to measure the servant leadership of direct managers as perceived by their employees. Also, through the survey, the researcher used JDI to measure the job satisfaction of employees. Once the surveys were completed, the researcher conducted a statistical analysis using Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) software. Using descriptive statistics helped determine the levels of servant leadership within the organization and the level of job satisfaction among employees. Pearson's product-moment correlation was a test of the magnitude and relationship between a service member's perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction.

### **The Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation**

In the broadest sense, a correlation is a measure of association between variables (Schober et al., 2018). The Pearson's product-moment correlation test is appropriate and can be conducted if the following assumptions are met: interval- or ratio-level variables, normally distributed, linearly distributed, with no significant outliers (Nikolić et al., 2012). Schober et al. (2018) explained that the Pearson product-moment correlation is an association between two variables. In this correlation, higher values for one variable tend to be associated with either a higher positive correlation or a lower negative correlation. Interpretation of the correlation coefficient includes descriptors like a "weak," "moderate," or "strong" relationship (Schober et al., 2018). Jones and Jones (2017) used Pearson's product-moment correlation in a study to identify the correlation coefficients between different leadership styles and career success. Khaliq et al. (2016) also used Pearson's product-moment correlation to identify the correlation between leadership style

and organizational commitment. For the data analysis process for this study, the Pearson's product-moment correlation was appropriate for examining the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

### **Standard Q-Q Plot**

A standard Q-Q plot test helped the researcher verify the data. Pleil (2016) described the Q-Q plot as a graphic tool researchers use for the visual inspection of complex data. Pleil further explained that the Q-Q plot is helpful for deciding whether summary statistics should be performed after a long transformation. The Q-Q plot compares two probability distributions by plotting a theoretical quantile against an empirical quantile; it is commonly used in linear regression analysis to examine whether regression residuals are normally distributed (Pleil, 2016). Nadeak (2019) determined the distribution of data and detrended data using the Q-Q plot in a study on the effects of servant leadership and training programs on servant motivation. Udom (2017) used the Q-Q plot in a study on leadership style and project management experience. The researcher used Q-Q plots to verify that the data associated with the questions were normally distributed.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics helped interpret, organize, and summarize data in this study. Holcomb (2016) explained descriptive statistics as tools that help us organize and summarize data. Some examples of descriptive statistics include graphs, percentages, and averages (Holcomb, 2016). Fiaz et al. (2017) used descriptive statistics in a study on leadership styles and employee motivation. Descriptive statistics helped determine the overall mean, standard deviation, and variance. From these descriptive statistics, they



analyzed the results and showed the significance and reliability of the data. Folakemi et al. (2018) used descriptive statistics in their study about leadership styles and job satisfaction. They evaluated the dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership styles and employees' job satisfaction using descriptive statistics. Other evaluations used by Folakemi et al. included the effects of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, contingent reward, and more on employee job satisfaction.

### **Multiple Regression Model**

A multiple regression model begins with a simple linear regression. In SPSS statistics, multiple regression is an extension of the linear regression used to predict the dependent variable (Laerd Statistics, n.d.). Fiaz et al. (2017) used multiple regression analysis with three independent variables to determine the association between employees' motivation and leadership style. Yukl et al. (2019) examined the relationship between three leader behaviors and subordinate job satisfaction using the multiple regression model. Yukl et al. explained how supplementary multiple regression analysis could also be used to test hypotheses about the relative importance of specific behaviors for an outcome.

### **ANCOVA and Scatter Plots**

For this study, the researcher used scatter plots for each dependent variable. The purpose of the scatter plot was to verify linearity. A scatter plot also helps identify any significant outliers and aids with the Pearson product-moment correlation test. Furthermore, the researcher used an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) model to determine the effect of servant leadership on overall job satisfaction while controlling for different ranks in the U.S. Navy organization. ANCOVA is an extension of analysis of

variance (ANOVA), wherein the researcher could assess the main effects and interactions to answer research hypotheses (Statistics Solutions, n.d.). The difference between ANOVA and ANCOVA is that a covariate is included in the latter to evaluate the hypothesis regarding rank. ANCOVA also helped the researcher analyze covariance to isolate the effect of rank from the correlation and determine the significance of differences between job satisfaction at different servant leadership levels after controls for differences in rank. The ANCOVA analysis process also helped the researcher create scatter plots for all data, including standardized residual values for overall job satisfaction and predicted values for overall job satisfaction.

### **Shapiro-Wilk Test**

One of the most popular tests used for normality assumption diagnostics is the Shapiro-Wilk Test (Hanusz et al., 2016). A Shapiro-Wilk test can determine whether a random sample comes from a normal distribution. When small values are produced from this test, the sample is not normally distributed, and the null hypothesis can be rejected (Hanusz et al., 2016). Hanusz et al. explained how many statistical models assume that random variables are normally distributed with a known mean. Freeborough and Patterson (2016) were able to identify that if the significance value is greater than 0.05, then the data are considered normally distributed under the Shapiro-Wilk Test. Potter et al. (2018) used the Shapiro-Wilk Test to analyze normality, normal Q-Q plots, and box plots. Potter et al. were able to identify the most prevalent leadership style for each country along with any significant variables between two samples conducting this type of analysis. The Shapiro-Wilk test aids with identifying the standardized residual normality

for overall job satisfaction. This test is conducted for overall job satisfaction and the standardized residual normality for job satisfaction.

### **Levene's Test**

Levene's test is used to identify equality and variance of means and helps identify whether two groups have approximately equal variance on the dependent variable (Naresh & Krishna, 2017). Naresh and Krishna used Levene's test to determine the equality of the most prevalent leadership styles adopted by construction project managers. Khudari and Saad (2019) used Levene's test to weigh the assumptions of homogeneity of variance before their independent sample *t* test, with the null hypothesis assuming no difference between the two groups of variances. Levene's test judged the homogeneity of variance and overall job satisfaction in this study.

### **Bonferroni Post Hoc Analysis**

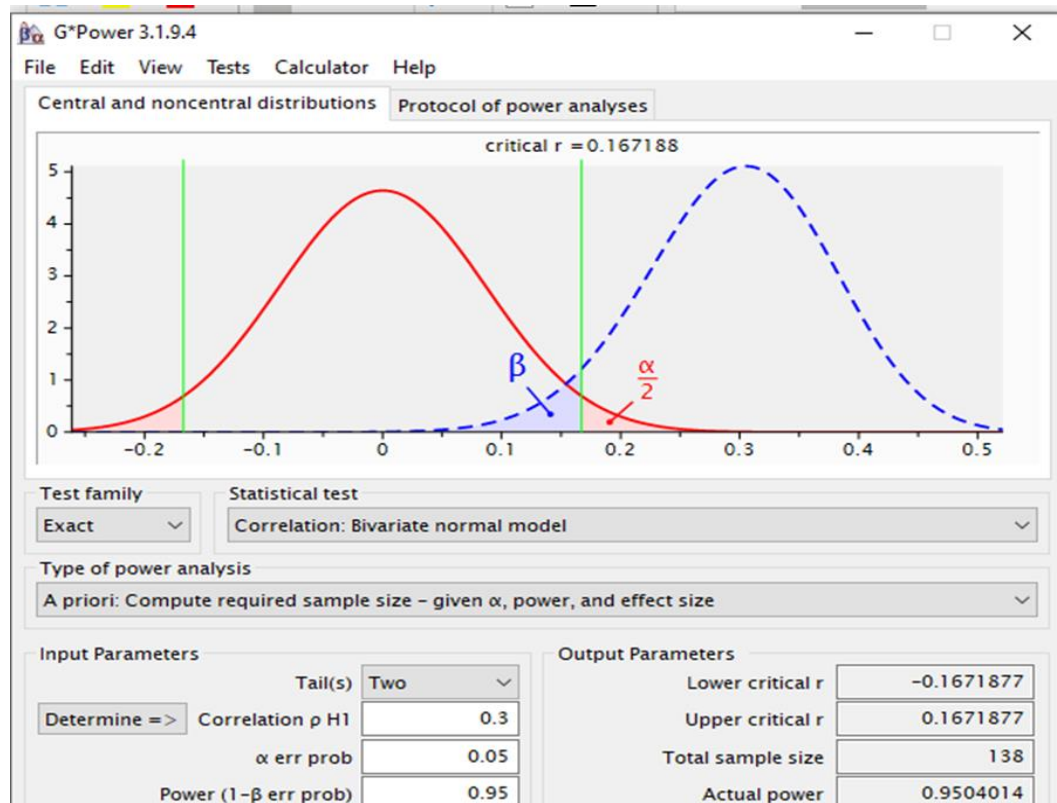
Highly flexible and simple to compute, the Bonferroni post hoc analysis can be used with any type of statistical test (Newsom, 2019). The Bonferroni test was designed to control the familywise error rate by calculating a new pairwise alpha. Newsom (2019) explained that the familywise alpha can be kept at a specified value by calculating a new pairwise alpha. Using Bonferroni comparisons, Martin and Allen (2016) tested their hypotheses based on the F tests for marginal means adjusted for multiple comparisons. They were able to identify a significant difference between their three groups. Alghamdi et al. (2018) used Bonferroni post hoc comparisons to determine specific differences between group means on the outcome variables. The researcher also conducted a Bonferroni post hoc analysis for overall job satisfaction, JDI, and SLQ.

## Sample

The researcher selected a convenience sample for this study that included participants from military commands across the United States. An a priori power analysis was conducted with G\*Power 3.1.9.4 (Faul et al., 2007). A power analysis was necessary to determine the minimum required sample size to achieve significant results (Brace et al., 2013). G\*Power uses an analysis-by-design approach to determine the required sample size (see Figure 2). Unlike rule-of-thumb methods for determining required sample sizes, G\*Power gives researchers the flexibility to determine the appropriate sample size while considering the unique aspects of the study and resources available.

**Figure 2**

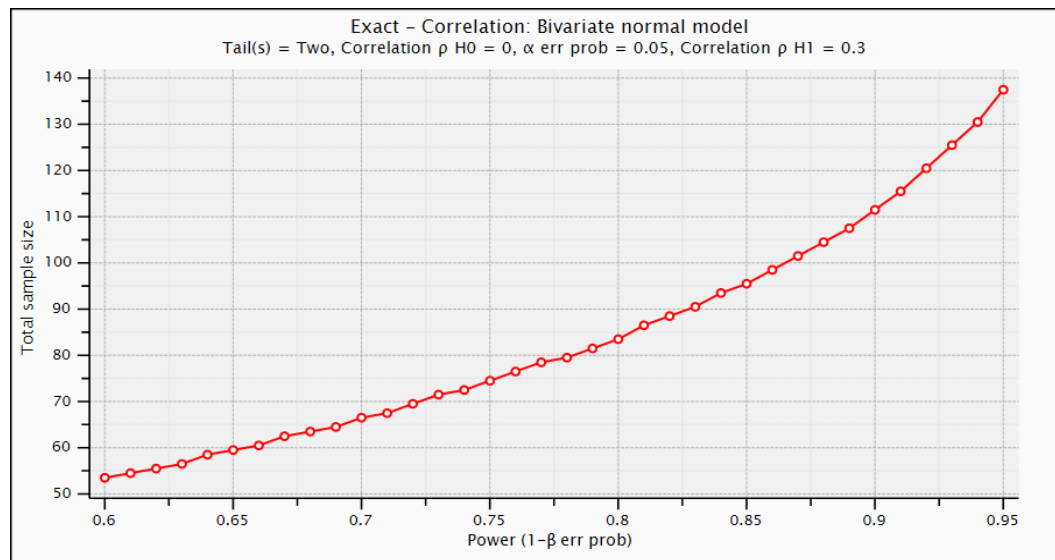
*Screenshot of Values Entered for Power Analysis*



Several values were entered to use the software. The first step in using the software was selecting the proposed statistical test, the Pearson  $r$ . G\*Power uses the label “Correlation: Bivariate normal model” to describe the test (Faul et al., 2007). The second required parameter was the “tails.” The test conducted was two-tailed because the alternative hypotheses were nondirectional. The effect size was another required parameter. The effect size is a standardized way of quantifying a relationship between two variables or groups. Effect sizes are categorized as small, medium, or large (Cohen, 1977). For this study, a medium effect size ( $r = .30$ ) was selected because this is what might be expected on average. The alpha level was required. As aforementioned, the alpha level was  $p < .05$ . The power level must also be entered. The statistical power refers to the degree of confidence one can have in the results. A power level of .95 was selected. Based on the preceding criteria, a sample size of 138 individuals was required. Statistical power increases as the sample size increases, as illustrated in Figure 3.

**Figure 3**

*The Relationship Between Sample Size and Statistical Power*



## **Instrumentation**

For this study, the researcher coded instruments to protect the identities of the participants. The SLQ and JDI are the two independent instruments used. The SLQ was used to measure the servant leadership of direct managers as perceived by their employees. Developed by Liden et al. (2008), the SLQ consists of 28 items and was developed to measure conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow, putting subordinates first, ethical behavior, emotional healing, and creating value for the community. The introduction of SLQ stated that by completing it, leaders would understand how servant leadership is measured and explore where they stand on the different dimensions of servant leadership. For this survey, the 7-point scale was used to indicate the extent to which the participant agreed or disagreed. The scale ranged from “1” when the participant strongly disagreed to “7” when the participant strongly agreed. Scoring for this instrument consisted of adding scores, dividing that sum by two, and then following seven steps, obtaining scoring for each of the seven characteristics.

The SLQ was used to measure servant leadership characteristics, and the JDI served to measure the level of job satisfaction of the U.S. Navy personnel. Developed by Smith et al. in 1969, the JDI consists of 72 items. It was developed to measure five dimensions of job satisfaction: satisfaction with supervision, coworkers, pay, promotional opportunities, and the work itself. The checklist contained six sections: people at your present job, the job in general, work on the present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, and supervision. The instructions on the survey prompted participants to fill in the blanks next to each word or phrase. If the participants agreed with the word or phrase, they filled in the blank with a “Y;” if they disagreed, they filled in the blank with an “N;” and

if they could not decide, they input a “?” Once the participants completed the index, each response was assessed and individually given a numerical value reflecting how it described a satisfying job (Bowling Green State University, 2021).

### **Data Collection**

This researcher recruited participants from two U.S. Navy Reserve groups on a social media platform, Facebook. Identified as a popular social media site many people use (Geeng et al., 2020), the two Facebook groups included over 6,000 U.S. Navy Reservists combined. The first group selected was The U.S. Navy Reserve Community, comprising more than 5,000 members. The second group selected was the Female Navy Reserve Officer Forum group comprising more than 1,300 members. Both groups are private and require a screening to join.

The data collection instrument used was SurveyMonkey, an online questionnaire comprising three parts, a demographic section, the JDI, and the SLQ. Recruitment began by sharing a SurveyMonkey link posted as a group post within each of the two Facebook group pages. The posts provided information to group members of the purpose of the study and requirements to take the survey. The recruitment message was posted in both groups. The recruitment message included a link to SurveyMonkey that directed the participant to the survey.

Once participants clicked on the SurveyMonkey link, they were provided a copy of an Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study form. If the participants decided to participate in the study after reading all of the information within the consent form, they selected “yes” to continue to the survey, or “no” to exit from the survey. If the participants agreed to participate in the study, they were taken to the demographic

questionnaire that ranged from basic questions such as gender and age to military-focused demographics, such as time in the U.S. Reserves, rank, U.S. Navy Reservist job title, whether they had been on active duty in the U.S. Navy, and time they had served on active duty, if applicable. After completing the demographic questionnaire, the participant experienced the JDI and concluded the survey with the SLQ.

### **Data Analysis**

Choosing the correct statistical software to perform data analysis included looking at the research objective (Ong & Puteh, 2017). Identified as one of the most used quantitative techniques, the survey used in this study allowed the researcher to obtain information with high representativeness of the entire population (Queirós et al., 2017). This study was quantitative and used comparison analysis that aligned well with using SPSS software. George and Mallery (2019) described SPSS as having the ability to conduct just about any type of data analysis in the world of business. The data collected for this study were stored and analyzed through the SurveyMonkey tool and analyzed further using the SPSS. The researcher first examined the data visually for missing data and then followed the computing procedures or scoring manual for each dataset.

Cronbach's alpha was used to test the reliability of the instrument as illustrated in reliability coefficients. Cronbach's alpha is not only used to test the reliability of a test but also to measure the strength of that consistency (Jain & Angural, 2017). One way to summarize data in a valid and meaningful way is through descriptive statistics (P. Mishra et al., 2019). Scores for job satisfaction were generated using descriptive statistics. Variables used when generating the descriptive statistics include job satisfaction, emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptualizing, empowering,



helping followers grow and succeed, putting followers first, behaving ethically, and servant leadership.

Accordingly, skewness and kurtosis were used to screen data for normality. Cain et al. (2017) explained how skewness and kurtosis are rarely reported and revealed how the underreporting of measuring normality might be due to researchers not being aware of the prevalence and influence that nonnormality can have. In addition to the skewness and kurtosis test, the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality was used. P. Mishra et al. (2019) explained how the Shapiro-Wilk test is not only the most popular and widely used method, but it also has more power to detect normality. Hypotheses were also tested using Spearman's Rho test, and this was due to the abnormality in the distributions and statistical outliers present.

The hypotheses developed for this study guided additional analysis. For examining the strength of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy, the researcher used quantitative research methods to produce variables for examination. The Pearson correlation coefficient test was used to test the direct correlation between the SLQ scores and the JDI scores of the participants. One of the most used tests for measuring linear dependence is Pearson's correlation (Ly et al., 2018). The Pearson correlation coefficient can be used to characterize the linear correlation between attributes of a normal attribution. The selected methods for testing were ideal for this study given the quantitative research design and desire to identify the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

## **Limitations**

In conduction of this study, the researcher encountered limitations in obtaining permission to survey within an organization and participants in general. The researcher was unable to get approval from a U.S Navy organization or survey service members who were currently active-duty, which limited access to people in the research. This study addressed both servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. Jordan (2015) suggested under limitations that the population he used were U.S. Navy Reserve members. Furthermore, Jordan explained how reservists are only a part of their Navy organization a few days a month, on average, and may have affected the accuracy of the assessment of leadership within the organization. In the future, the researcher could try surveying active-duty service members or capturing the time each reservist spent on active-duty. Having time on active duty or actually surveying active-duty service members may differ in an area of servant leadership from that of reservist military members.

The next limitation could be found in that the researcher combined officer and enlisted personnel. In the future, the researcher could test officer and enlisted personnel data separately to see whether significance in servant leadership differs according to rank. The participants in this study included 86 enlisted personnel and 62 officers. Officers and enlisted personnel attend different boot camps, and their time at each duty station also differs. Officers are hand saluted by all enlisted personnel in passing as a simple greeting, a symbol of respect, integrity, and honor. From a rank perspective, officers are considered at the top and enlisted at the bottom, which might also have presented

limitations. The researcher decided to combine officer and enlisted personnel because of the limited total responses to the survey.

### **Summary**

This chapter included an in-depth review of the research methodology. The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent relationships existed between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. The research design selected may be described as a quantitative, survey research correlational design. This chapter explained how the Servant Leader Measure was used to measure the servant leadership of managers and how this tool was validated resulting in a multidimensional measure. Job satisfaction of employees was measured using the JDI, consisting of 72 items and five dimensions of job satisfaction. Additional detail was provided to describe the procedures used for data collection and the plan executed for data analysis. Finally, this chapter discussed the validity and reliability of instruments, which included the strengths and limitations of the chosen design elements.

## CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH, DATA COLLECTION, AND FINDINGS

### **Overview**

This chapter of the study provides a discussion regarding the research, research questions, hypothesis data preparation, and quantitative research findings. The research method used for data collection was through survey utilizing an internet-based platform. This chapter includes tables and charts to illustrate the findings, including instrument reliability for the sample, descriptive statistics, data screening, box and whisker plots, and correlation matrices. Finally, this chapter concludes by addressing each research question and hypothesis individually, as they relate to the findings, and concludes with a summary.

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent relationships existed between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. Studies continue to show that leadership, coaching, and mentoring pay off, not only in job performance but also in job satisfaction and decreased employee turnover. Furthermore, researchers examined leadership characteristics that impact job satisfaction and aid in the decrease of employee turnover. This study examined the ten characteristics servant leaders could possess. These include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. Examining the relationship between servant leadership and the job satisfaction of personnel in the U.S. Navy may provide information for U.S. Navy leaders, enhance literature in the field of leadership, and result in the increased job satisfaction of military personnel.

### **Research Questions**

1. What is the relationship, if any, between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel?
2. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
3. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
4. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
5. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
6. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?
7. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?

8. To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?

### **Hypotheses**

H01: There is no significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel.

H1: There is a significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel.

H02: The servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H2: The servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H03: The servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H3: The servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H04: The servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H4: The servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H05: The servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H5: The servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H06: The servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H6: The servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H07: The servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H7: The servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H08: The servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

H8: The servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy significantly impacts the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.

### **Research Methods and Data Collection Procedures**

The researcher used survey as the primary source for gathering information from participants. The single survey consisted of four sections, 122 multiple choice questions

and five fill-in-the-blank questions. The researcher used the online survey tool SurveyMonkey, to combine four sections into one, including the informed consent form, the demographic survey, the JDI, and the SLQ. This was done to ensure each participant experienced each section one after the other. After the researcher combined the sections, the SurveyMonkey tool generated a hyperlink.

The researcher then selected two U.S. Navy Reserve groups on a social media platform, Facebook, and recruited participants from those groups. The two Facebook groups included over 6,000 U.S. Navy Reservists combined. The first group selected was The U.S. Navy Reserve Community, comprising more than 5,000 members. The second group selected was the Female Navy Reserve Officer Forum group comprising more than 1,300 members. Both groups are private and require answering screening questions to join.

The hyperlink generated through the Survey Monkey tool was then posted within each selected Facebook group. Once participants clicked on the SurveyMonkey link, they were provided a copy of an Informed Consent to Participate in a Research Study form. If participants decided to participate in the study after reading all of the information within the consent form, they selected “yes” to continue to the survey or “no” to exit from the survey. If participants agreed to participate in the study, they were taken to the demographic questionnaire that ranged from basic questions such as gender and age to military-focused demographics, such as time in the U.S. Reserves, rank, U.S. Navy Reservist job title, whether they had been on active duty in the U.S. Navy, and time they had served on active duty, if applicable. After completing the demographic



questionnaire, the participants experienced the JDI and concluded the survey with the SLQ.

## **Presentation and Analysis of Data**

### **Data Preparation**

After the researcher examined the dataset visually for missing data, 183 participants completed the survey. Selected columns were sorted in ascending order, which placed cases with missing data first. Seventeen participants only completed the demographic section of the survey. They were excluded from the study. Columns were sorted again in ascending order, which placed cases with missing data first, leaving 166 participants. Nine participants completed 50% or less of the survey questions. They were excluded from the study, leaving 157 participants. Columns were again sorted in ascending order, which placed cases with missing data first. Three participants completed 64% of the survey. They were excluded from the study, leaving 154 participants. Columns were again sorted in ascending order, placing cases with missing data first. Six participants completed 78% of the survey questions, meaning that they completed none of the servant leadership questions, having exited the survey immediately before that point. They were excluded from the study, leaving a final sample of 148 participants.

Before scores for the variables of interest were computed on the JDI according to the scoring manual, items had to be recoded. For instance, when setting up the survey in SurveyMonkey, items for the JDI were initially weighted 1 for “yes,” 2 for “no,” and 3 for “?” This was not consistent with the instructions from the scoring manual. Therefore, all positively worded items had to be recoded to 3 for “yes,” 0 for “no,” and 1

for “?” All negatively worded items had to be recoded to 0 for “yes,” 3 for “no,” and 1 for “?” Item responses were summed to produce total scores for each JDI dimension, and then the scores for each dimension were summed to produce a total score for job satisfaction.

Computing scores on the SLQ for the seven dimensions of servant leadership was more straightforward; no recoding was necessary. Item responses for each dimension were summed to produce a score for each dimension. A total score for servant leadership was also computed by summing the totals for the seven dimensions. Although participants were asked to complete a demographic portion, the researcher chose to exclude these data as they were not needed to examine or answer the research questions in this study.

### **Instrument Reliability for Sample**

Instrument reliability for the sample was tested with Cronbach’s alpha. The internal consistency of the dimensions on the JDI ranged from good ( $\alpha = .89$ ) to excellent ( $\alpha = .94$ ) with an overall internal consistency of excellent ( $\alpha = .97$ ) for job satisfaction. Similarly, the internal consistency of the dimensions on the SLQ ranged from good ( $\alpha = .89$ ) for empowering to excellent ( $\alpha = .93$ ) for helping followers succeed with an overall internal consistency of excellent ( $\alpha = .98$ ) for servant leadership. The minimum acceptable reliability is .70 (Brace et al., 2013). Reliability coefficients are presented in Table 1.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

For job satisfaction, scores ranged from 15.00 to 270.00 ( $M = 189.89$ ,  $SD = 62.93$ ). For emotional healing, scores ranged from 4.00 to 28.00 ( $M = 20.70$ ,  $SD = 6.15$ ).

For creating value for the community, scores ranged from 4.00 to 28.00 ( $M = 18.57$ ,  $SD = 5.78$ ). For conceptualizing, scores ranged from 4.00 to 28.00 ( $M = 21.47$ ,  $SD = 5.47$ ). For empowering, scores ranged from 4.00 to 28.00 ( $M = 20.43$ ,  $SD = 5.65$ ). For helping followers grow and succeed, scores ranged from 4.00 to 28.00 ( $M = 20.95$ ,  $SD = 6.22$ ). For putting followers first, scores ranged from 4.00 to 28.00 ( $M = 19.68$ ,  $SD = 6.08$ ). For behaving ethically, scores ranged from 4.00 to 28.00 ( $M = 21.32$ ,  $SD = 5.67$ ). For servant leadership, scores ranged from 28.00 to 194 ( $M = 143.12$ ,  $SD = 37.79$ ). Descriptive statistics are summarized in Table 2.

**Table 1**

*Reliability Coefficients*

Variable	<i>N</i> of items	Cronbach's alpha	Interpretation
People on your present job	18	.914	Excellent
Job in general	18	.925	Excellent
Work on present job	18	.938	Excellent
Pay	9	.888	Good
Opportunities for promotion	9	.920	Excellent
Supervision	18	.940	Excellent
Overall job satisfaction	90	.974	Excellent
Emotional healing	4	.910	Excellent
Creating value for the community	4	.908	Excellent
Conceptualizing	4	.898	Excellent
Empowering	4	.887	Good
Helping followers grow and succeed	4	.933	Excellent
Putting followers first	4	.901	Excellent
Behaving ethically	4	.904	Excellent
Servant leadership	28	.980	Excellent

**Table 2***Descriptive Statistics*

Variable	<i>N</i>	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Job satisfaction	148	15.00	270.00	189.89	62.93
Emotional healing	148	4.00	28.00	20.70	6.15
Creating value for the community	148	4.00	28.00	18.57	5.78
Conceptualizing	148	4.00	28.00	21.47	5.47
Empowering	148	4.00	28.00	20.43	5.65
Helping followers grow and succeed	148	4.00	28.00	20.95	6.22
Putting followers first	148	4.00	28.00	19.68	6.08
Behaving ethically	148	4.00	28.00	21.32	5.67
Servant leadership	148	28.00	194.00	143.12	37.79

**Data Screening**

Data were screened for normality with skewness and kurtosis statistics, and the Shapiro-Wilk Test was used to test normality. Based on the skewness and kurtosis coefficients, none of the distributions were normal. Skewness and kurtosis coefficients are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3***Skewness and Kurtosis Coefficients*

Variable	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	<i>SE</i>	Statistic	<i>SE</i>
Job satisfaction	-.835	.199	-.122	.396
Emotional healing	-.984	.199	.356	.396
Creating value for the community	-.508	.199	-.143	.396
Conceptualizing	-.961	.199	.530	.396
Empowering	-1.29	.199	1.47	.396
Helping followers grow and succeed	-1.05	.199	.410	.396
Putting followers first	-.863	.199	.245	.396
Behaving ethically	-1.12	.199	.916	.396
Servant leadership	-.985	.199	.500	.396

Distribution normality was also examined with the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality. Distributions are normal if there is no significant difference between the sample distribution and the theoretical normal distribution. According to the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality, none of the distributions were normal. Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality results are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4**

*Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality Results*

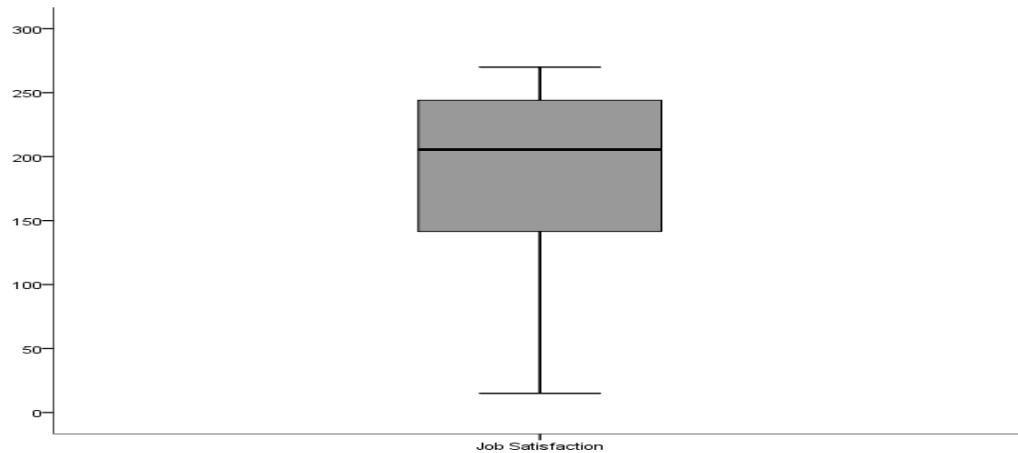
Variable	Statistic	Shapiro-Wilk	
		<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Job satisfaction	.910	148	.000
Emotional healing	.901	148	.000
Creating value for the community	.962	148	.000
Conceptualizing	.911	148	.000
Empowering	.882	148	.000
Helping followers grow and succeed	.890	148	.000
Putting followers first	.927	148	.000
Behaving ethically	.895	148	.000
Servant leadership	.922	148	.000

For job satisfaction, the skewness was 4.20 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 0.31 times the standard error, a significant departure from normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality ( $p < .001$ ). The distribution for job satisfaction was further examined for statistical outliers with box and whisker plots. A statistical outlier is identified when it falls above or below the whiskers. Statistical outliers are mathematically determined when they fall above or below 1.5 times the interquartile range. For job satisfaction, the median was 205.50. The interquartile range was 103.25.

There were no statistical outliers. The box and whisker plot for job satisfaction is presented in Figure 4.

**Figure 4**

*Box and Whisker Plot for Job Satisfaction*

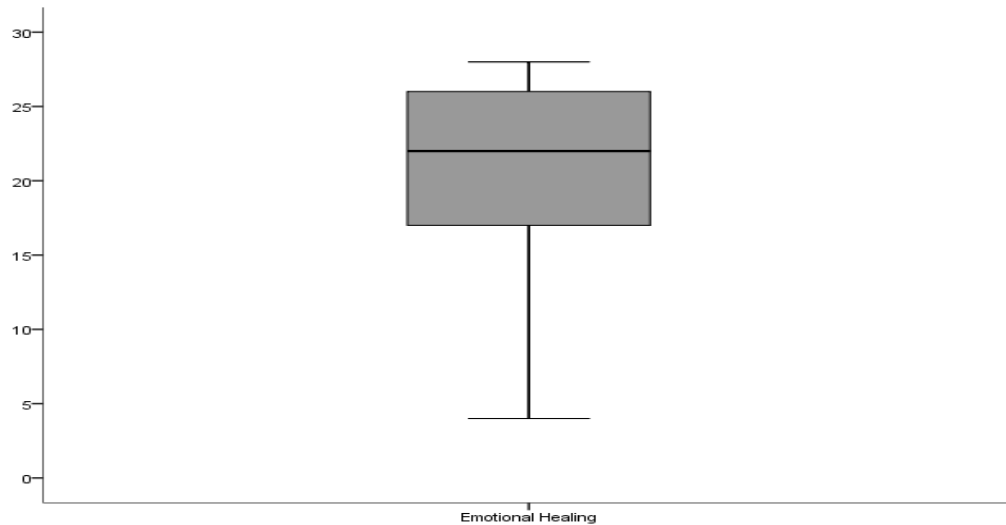


For emotional healing, the skewness was 4.94 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 0.90 times the standard error, a significant departure from normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality ( $p < .001$ ). For emotional healing, the median was 205.50. The interquartile range was 103.25. There were no statistical outliers. The box and whisker plot for emotional healing is presented in Figure 5.

For creating value for the community, the skewness was 2.55 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 0.36 times the standard error, a significant departure from normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality ( $p < .001$ ). For creating value for the community, the median was 19.00. The interquartile range was 8.00. There were no statistical outliers. The box and whisker plot for creating value for the community is presented in Figure 6.

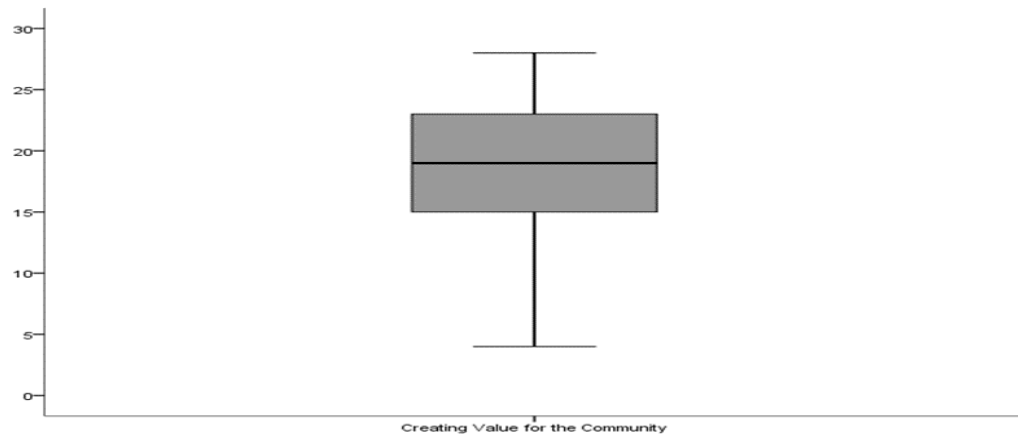
**Figure 5**

*Box and Whisker Plot for Emotional Healing*



**Figure 6**

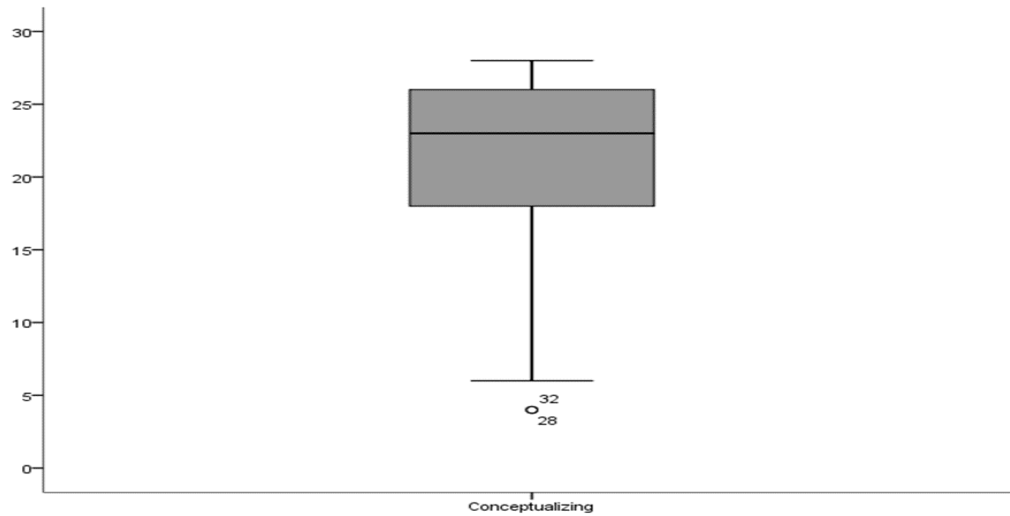
*Box and Whisker Plot for Creating Value for the Community*



For conceptualizing, the skewness was 4.83 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 1.34 times the standard error, a significant departure from normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality ( $p < .001$ ). For conceptualizing, the median was 23.00. The interquartile range was 8.00. There were two statistical outliers ( $\leq 4$ ). The box and whisker plot for conceptualizing is presented in Figure 7.

**Figure 7**

*Box and Whisker Plot for Conceptualizing*



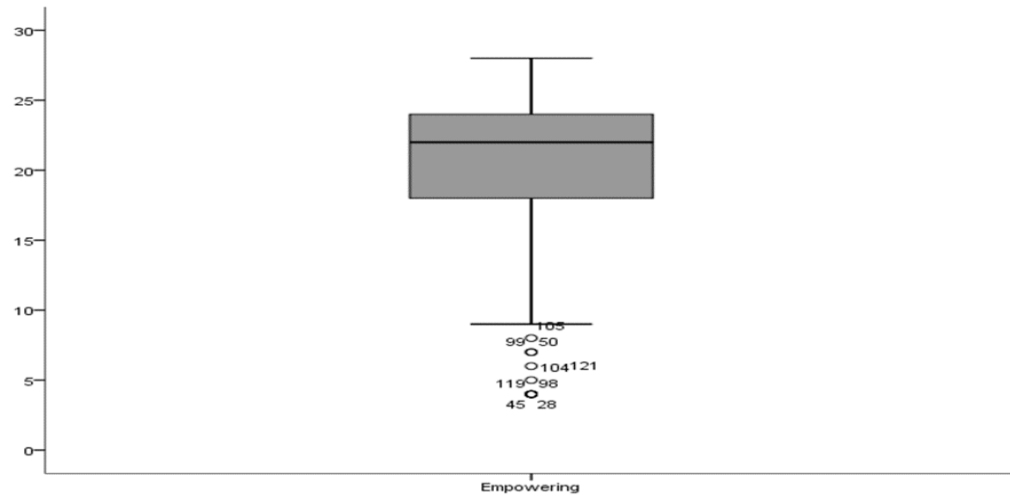
For empowering, the skewness was 6.48 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 3.71 times the standard error, a significant departure from normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality ( $p < .001$ ). For empowering, the median was 22.00. The interquartile range was 6.00. There were 10 statistical outliers ( $\leq 8$ ). The box and whisker plot for empowering is presented in Figure 8.

For helping followers grow and succeed, the skewness was 5.28 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 1.04 times the standard error, a significant departure from normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality ( $p < .001$ ). For helping followers grow and succeed, the median was 23.00. The interquartile range was 9.00. There were no statistical outliers. The box and whisker plot for helping followers grow and succeed is presented in Figure 9.



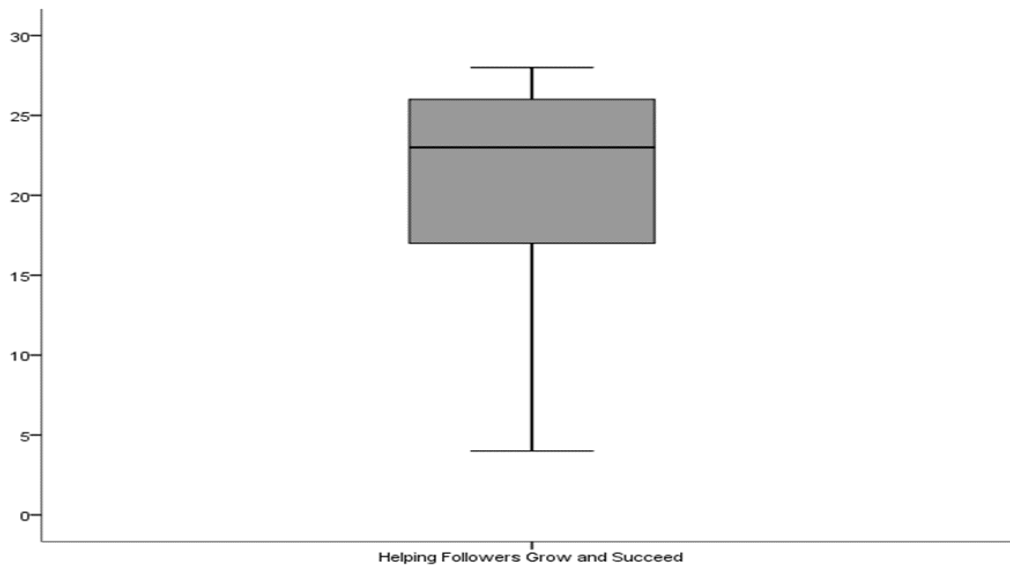
**Figure 8**

*Box and Whisker Plot for Empowering*



**Figure 9**

*Box and Whisker Plot of Helping Followers Grow and Succeed*

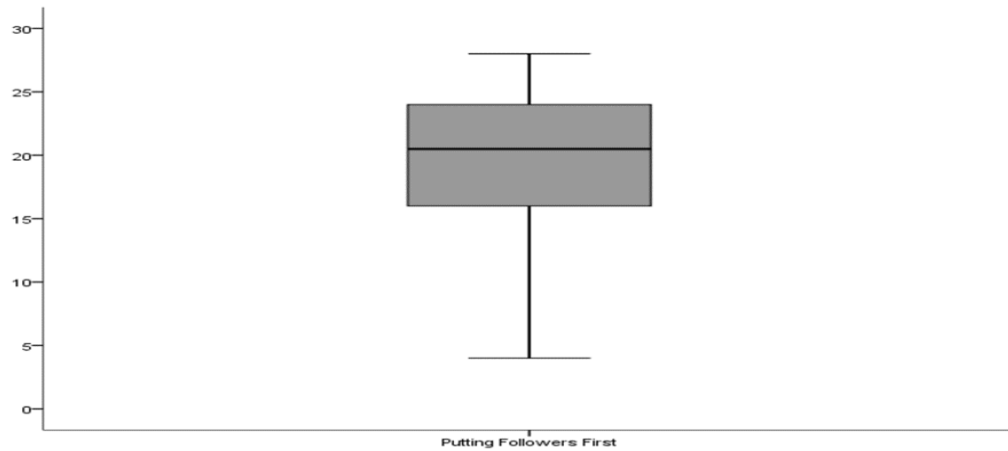


For putting followers first, the skewness was 4.34 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 0.62 times the standard error, a significant departure from normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality ( $p < .001$ ). For putting followers first, the median

was 20.50. The interquartile range was 8.00. There were no statistical outliers. The box and whisker plot for helping followers grow and succeed is presented in Figure 10.

**Figure 10**

*Box and Whisker Plot for Putting Followers First*

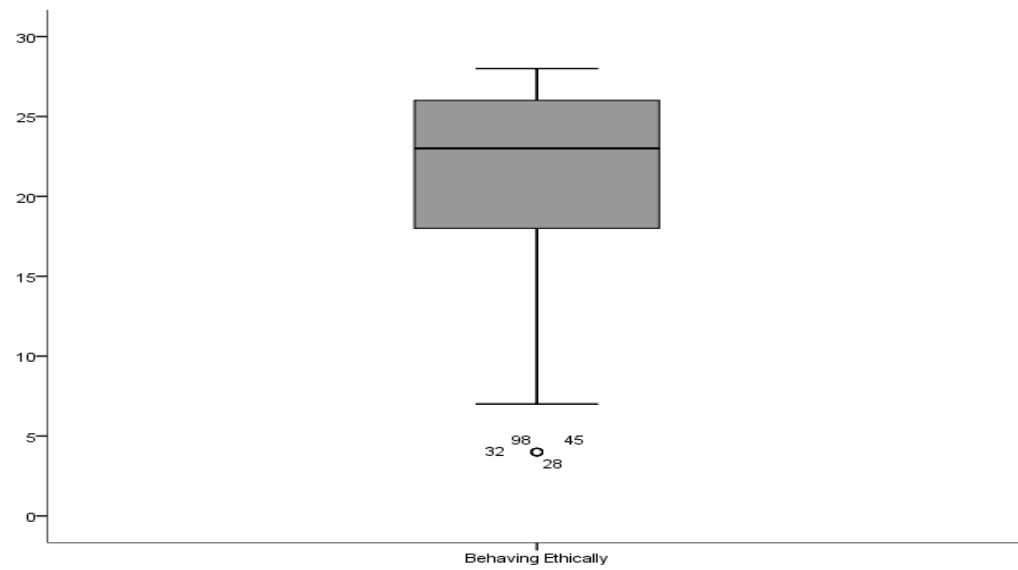


For behaving ethically, the skewness was 5.63 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 2.31 times the standard error, a significant departure from normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality ( $p < .001$ ). For behaving ethically, the median was 23.00. The interquartile range was 8.00. There were four statistical outliers ( $\leq 4$ ). The box and whisker plot for behaving ethically is presented in Figure 11.

For servant leadership, the skewness was 4.95 times the standard error. The kurtosis was 1.26 times the standard error, a significant departure from normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality ( $p < .001$ ). For servant leadership, the median was 152.50. The interquartile range was 51.25. There were three statistical outliers ( $\leq 37$ ). The box and whisker plot for servant leadership is presented in Figure 12.

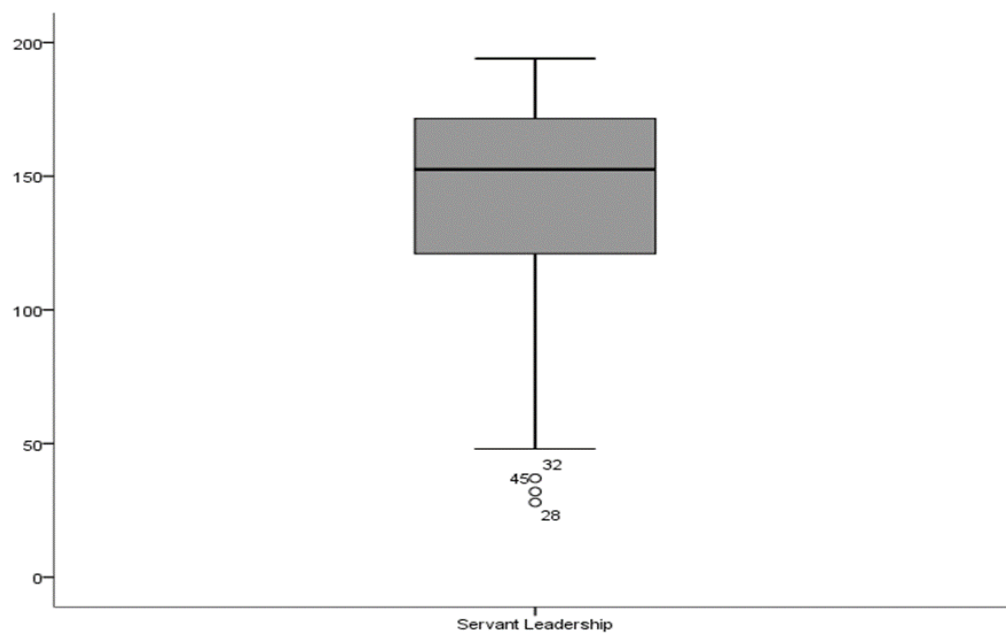
**Figure 11**

*Box and Whisker Plot of Behaving Ethically*



**Figure 12**

*Box and Whisker Plot for Servant Leadership*



Because the distributions were not normal and there were statistical outliers present, the hypotheses were tested with the nonparametric Spearman's Rho in addition to the Pearson  $r$ . The results were similar for both tests. Therefore, the results of the Pearson  $r$  proposed initially are reported. A correlation matrix for the research questions and hypotheses are presented in Table 5.

**Table 5**

*Correlation Matrix*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Job satisfaction (1)	—								
Emotional healing (2)	.658	—							
Creating value for the community (3)	.588	.777	—						
Conceptualizing (4)	.666	.884	.736	—					
Empowering (5)	.579	.782	.662	.757	—				
Helping followers grow and succeed (6)	.671	.931	.782	.872	.816	—			
Putting followers first (7)	.683	.920	.773	.846	.804	.932	—		
Behaving ethically (8)	.626	.870	.753	.825	.748	.869	.886	—	
Servant leadership (9)	.694	.959	.851	.918	.864	.965	.958	.924	—

*Note.* All correlations are significant at the  $p < .001$  level, two-tailed.  $N = 148$ .

**Research Question 1/Hypothesis 1**

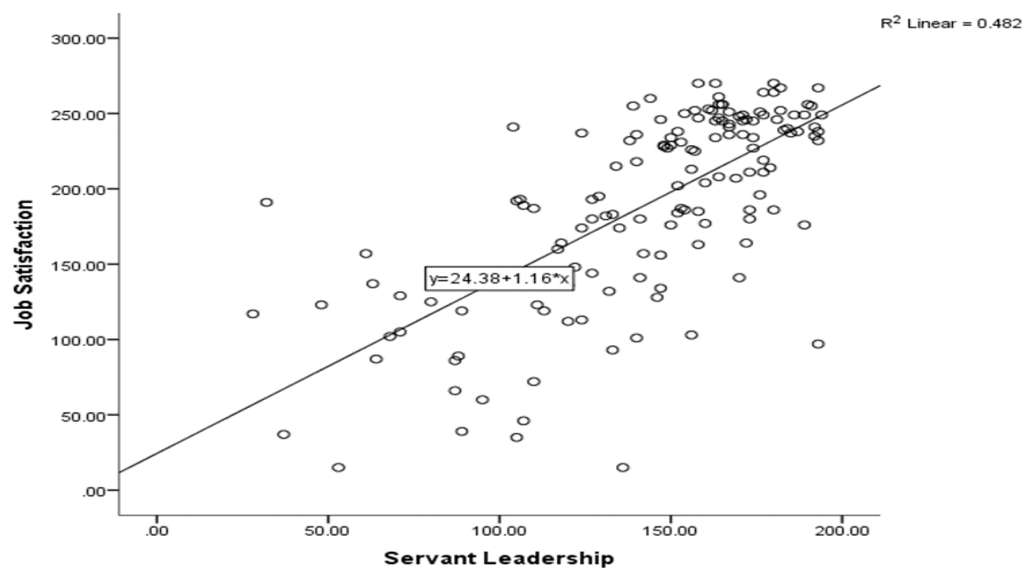
Research Question 1 asked, “What is the relationship, if any, between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel?” There was a significant, strong, positive relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .69$ ,  $p < .001$ , two-tailed. The coefficient of determination was  $r^2 = .4761$ , which means that 47.61% of the

variance in job satisfaction can be explained by servant leadership. A scatterplot of this relationship is presented in Figure 13.

H<sub>01</sub> stated that there is no significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, strong, positive relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .69, p < .001$ , two-tailed. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Figure 13**

*Scatterplot of Relationship Between Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction*



## **Research Question 2/Hypothesis 2**

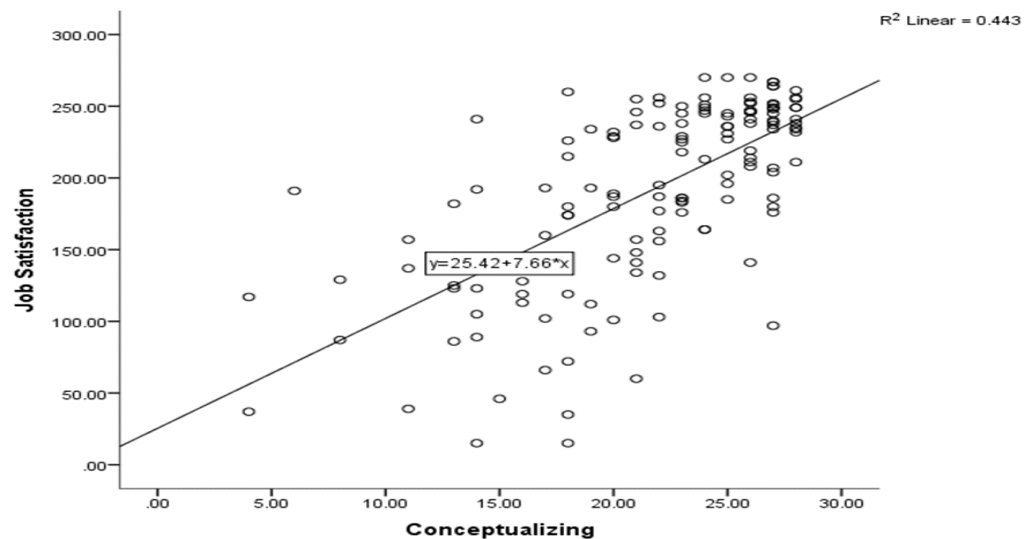
Research Question 2 asked, “To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic ‘conceptualizing’ used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?” There was a significant, strong, positive relationship between the servant leadership characteristic of conceptualizing and the level

of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .67, p < .001$ , two-tailed. The coefficient of determination was  $r^2 = .4489$ , meaning that 44.89% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the servant leadership characteristic of conceptualizing.

H<sub>02</sub> stated that the servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, strong, positive relationship between the servant leadership characteristic of conceptualizing and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .67, p < .001$ , two-tailed. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. A scatterplot of this relationship is presented in Figure 14.

**Figure 14**

*Scatterplot of Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Conceptualizing and Job Satisfaction*



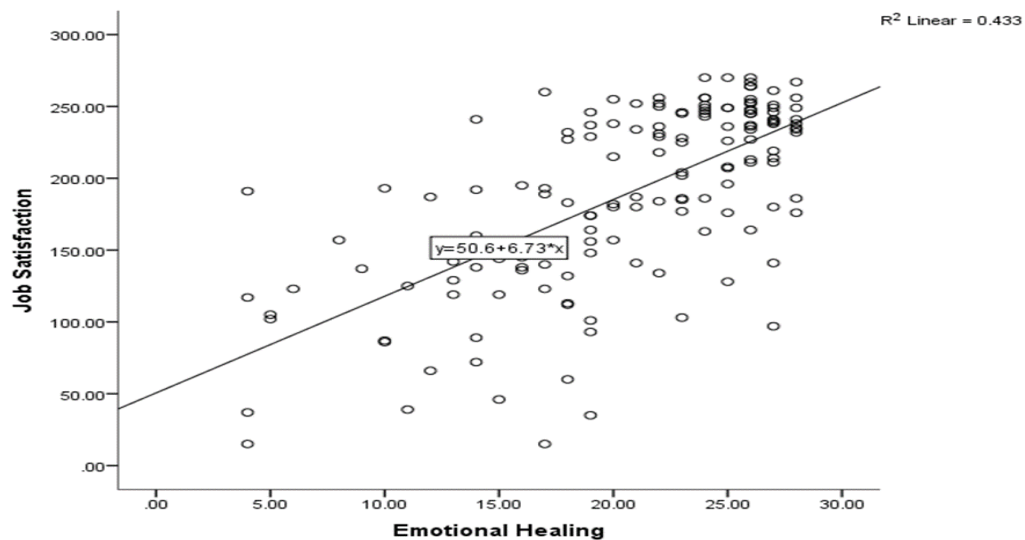
### Research Question 3/Hypothesis 3

Research Question 3 asked, “To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic ‘emotional healing’ used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of

job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?” There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .66, p < .001$ , two-tailed. The coefficient of determination was  $r^2 = .4356$ , meaning that 43.56% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing.” A scatterplot of this relationship is presented in Figure 15.

**Figure 15**

*Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Emotional Healing and Job Satisfaction*



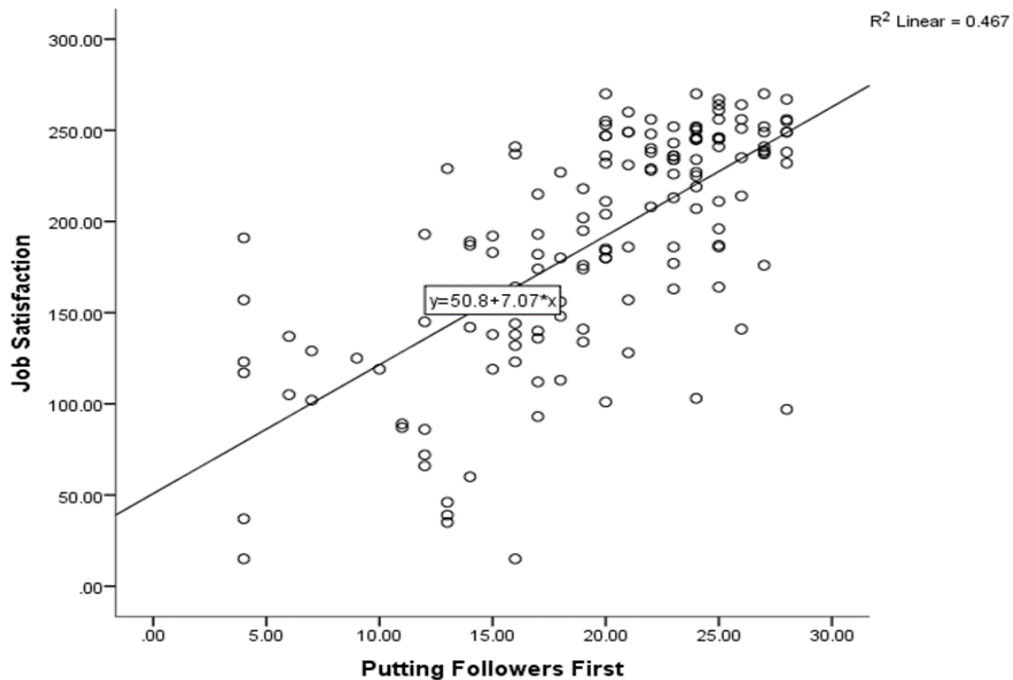
$H_{03}$  stated that the servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .66, p < .001$ , two-tailed. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

#### Research Question 4/Hypothesis 4

Research Question 4 asked, “To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic ‘putting followers first’ used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?” There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .68, p < .001$ , two-tailed. The coefficient of determination was  $r^2 = .4624$ , meaning that 46.24% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first.” A scatterplot of this relationship is presented in Figure 16.

**Figure 16**

*Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Putting Followers First and Job Satisfaction*





H<sub>04</sub> stated that the servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .68, p < .001$ , two-tailed. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

#### **Research Question 5/Hypothesis 5**

Research Question 5 asked, “To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic ‘helping followers grow and succeed’ used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?” There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .67, p < .001$ , two-tailed. The coefficient of determination was  $r^2 = .4489$ , meaning that 44.89% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed.” A scatterplot of this relationship is presented in Figure 17.

H<sub>05</sub> stated that the servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .67, p < .001$ , two-tailed. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Figure 17**

*Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Helping Followers Grow and Succeed and Job Satisfaction*



#### **Research Question 6/Hypothesis 6**

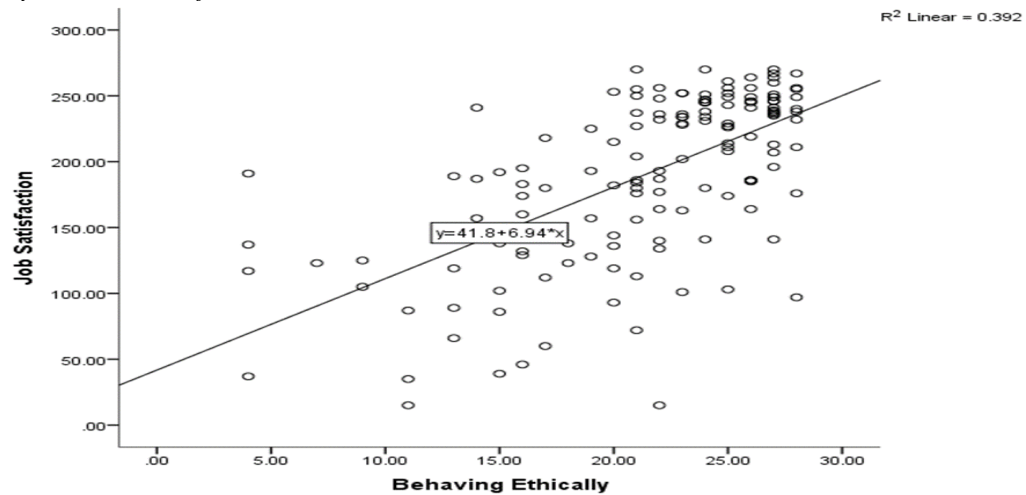
Research Question 6 asked, “To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic ‘behaving ethically’ used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?” There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .63, p < .001$ , two-tailed. The coefficient of determination was  $r^2 = .3969$ , meaning that 39.69% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically.” A scatterplot of this relationship is presented in Figure 18.

$H_{06}$  stated that the servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant

leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .63, p < .001$ , two-tailed. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

**Figure 18**

*Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Behaving Ethically and Job Satisfaction*

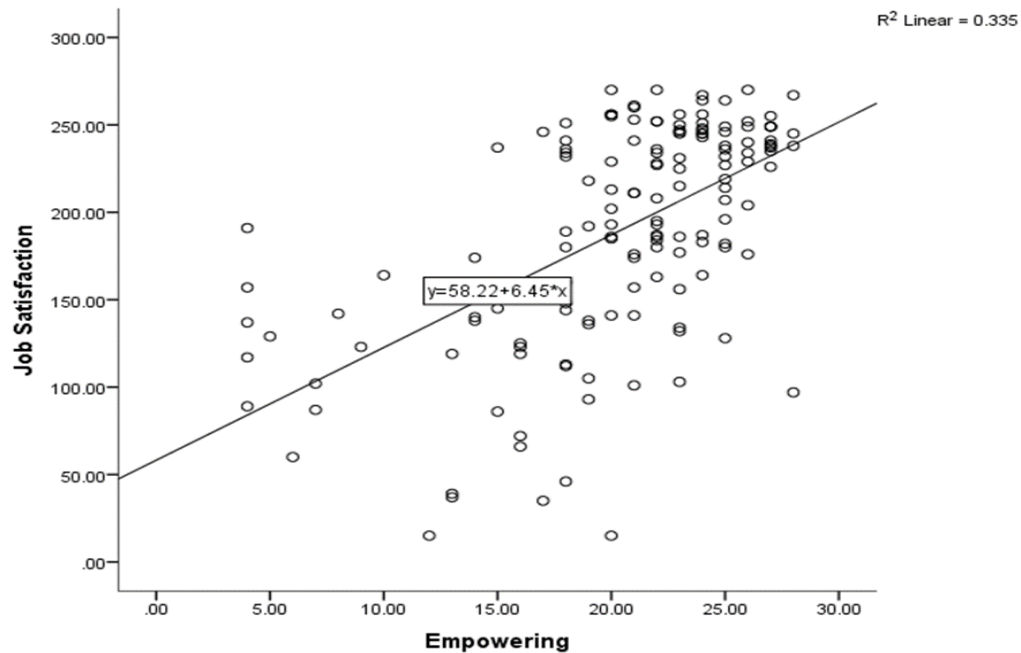


### Research Question 7/Hypothesis 7

Research Question 7 asked, “To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic ‘empowering’ used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?” There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “empowering” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .58, p < .001$ , two-tailed. The coefficient of determination was  $r^2 = .3364$ , meaning that 33.64% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the servant leadership characteristic “empowering.” A scatterplot of this relationship is presented in Figure 19.

**Figure 19**

*Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Empowering and Job Satisfaction*



H<sub>07</sub> stated that the servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “empowering” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .58$ ,  $p < .001$ , two-tailed. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

#### **Research Question 8/Hypothesis 8**

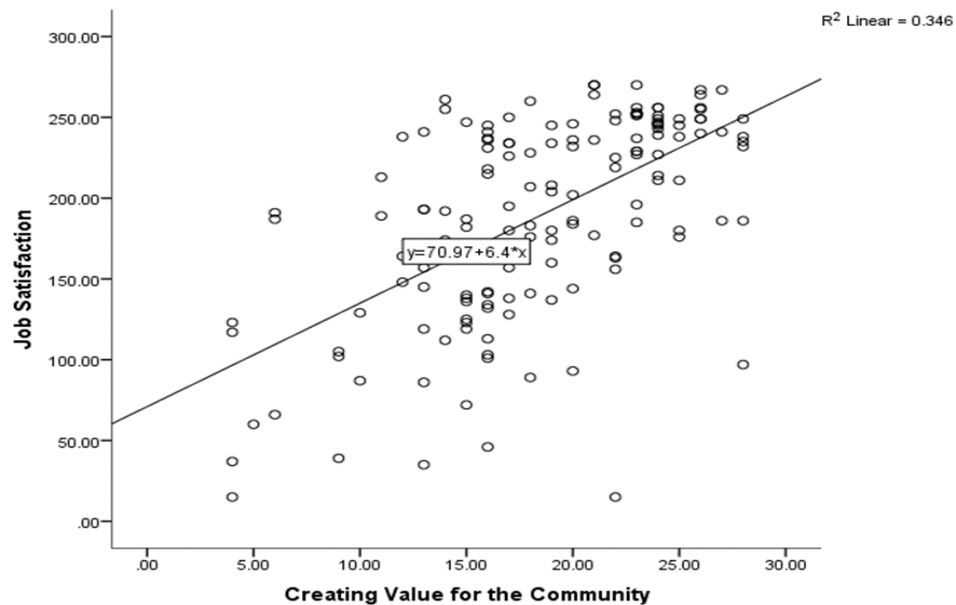
Research Question 8 asked, “To what extent does the servant leadership characteristic ‘creating value for the community’ used in the U.S. Navy significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel?” There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .59$ ,

$p < .001$ , two-tailed. The coefficient of determination was  $r^2 = .3481$ , meaning that 34.81% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by the servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community.”

H<sub>08</sub> stated that the servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel,  $r(146) = .59$ ,  $p < .001$ , two-tailed. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. A scatterplot of this relationship is presented in Figure 20. The hypotheses and outcomes are summarized in Table 6.

**Figure 20**

*Scatterplot of the Relationship Between the Servant Leadership Characteristic of Creating Value for the Community and Job Satisfaction*



**Table 6***Hypothesis Summary and Outcomes*

Hypothesis	Significance	Outcome
H <sub>01</sub> : There is no significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel.	$p < .001$	Null rejected.
H <sub>02</sub> : The servant leadership characteristic “conceptualizing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.	$p < .001$	Null rejected.
H <sub>03</sub> : The servant leadership characteristic “emotional healing” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.	$p < .001$	Null rejected.
H <sub>04</sub> : The servant leadership characteristic “putting followers first” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.	$p < .001$	Null rejected.
H <sub>05</sub> : The servant leadership characteristic “helping followers grow and succeed” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.	$p < .001$	Null rejected.
H <sub>06</sub> : The servant leadership characteristic “behaving ethically” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.	$p < .001$	Null rejected.
H <sub>07</sub> : The servant leadership characteristic “empowering” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.	$p < .001$	Null rejected.
H <sub>08</sub> : The servant leadership characteristic “creating value for the community” used in the U.S. Navy does not significantly impact the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel.	$p < .001$	Null rejected.

## Summary

Eight research questions and hypotheses were formulated for investigation. They were tested with Spearman's Rho because of the nonnormality of the distributions and with Pearson r. The results of Spearman's Rho were the same as with Pearson r. Therefore, only the results of the Pearson r were reported because that was the proposed statistical test initially.

It was determined that there was a significant, strong, positive relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, strong, positive relationship between the servant leadership characteristic of conceptualizing and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic "emotional healing" and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic "putting followers first" and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic "helping followers grow and succeed" and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic "behaving ethically" and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic "empowering" and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. There was a significant, positive, strong relationship between the servant leadership characteristic "creating value for the community" and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. Predictor variables

explained between 34% and 48% of the variance in the criterion variable of job satisfaction. Implications and recommendations of these findings are further presented in Chapter 5.



## CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent relationships existed between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. The problem addressed in this study was that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy is not currently well understood. The implication of increasing the research of the servant leadership constructs to include the U.S. Navy Organization has created a broader understanding of these concepts to a new setting. The researcher used a quantitative research method to examine the potential relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction variables. The data collection method was conducted through the SurveyMonkey internet-based platform that allowed the researcher to quickly administer large volumes of the survey (Rice et al., 2017). Servant leadership and job satisfaction were assessed using two existing, prevalidated instruments, the SLQ and JDI. Previous research suggested that a strong correlation exists between the presence of servant leadership and level of job satisfaction within the U.S. Navy using the OLA and the MSQ (Jordan, 2015).

The primary limitation of the study was in obtaining permission to survey within an organization and participants in general. This limitation prevented the researcher from surveying active-duty persons from the U.S. Navy. On average, reserve members are only a part of reservist commands and active-duty organizations a few days a month and 2 weeks a year. As stated in a previous study, the time constraint may have deterred the accuracy of the assessment of leadership within the study (Jordan, 2015). Although the researcher was prepared for this limitation, each participant was asked whether they had ever served on active duty in the U.S. Navy, and if they had, for how long. The next

limitation was that the researcher combined officer and enlisted personnel. From the perspective of rank, officers are considered at the top and enlisted at the bottom, which may also have presented limitations. The researcher decided to combine officer and enlisted personnel because of the limited total responses to the survey.

These questions provided data on the population's experience of leadership among both active-duty and reservist personnel. Prior to administering the survey, a Correlation: Bivariate normal model, also known as a G\*Power test, was run to identify the appropriate sample size for this study. Results from the proposed statistical test concluded that a sample size of 138 was required. Although the survey was posted in two private Facebook groups for over 6,000 U.S. Navy Reservists to participate, only 183 participants completed the survey. After the dataset of 183 participants was examined for missing data, 148 participants qualified for inclusion in the final sample.

For the researcher to conduct this study, ethical constructs were required. Although the doctoral research in this study was conducted under the counsel and guidance of the dissertation chair and committee, two additional requirements were met. The first requisite for conducting this study included approval from the institution's Institutional Review Board. The second requisite was to include an informed consent form within each survey administered. No proper permissions or formal requests were required to survey the two selected groups; however, the researcher did ask permission from the group administrators to recruit within the groups.

### **Major Findings**

The Pearson  $r$  test was selected to analyze the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel. The servant leadership

questionnaire (SLQ) examines seven servant leadership dimensions and the JDI identifies six areas that can affect a person's level of job satisfaction. There was a significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel. There were significant relationships between each of the seven servant leadership dimensions "conceptualizing," "emotional healing," "putting followers first," "helping followers grow and succeed," "behaving ethically," "empowering," "creating value for the community," and the level of job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. These findings resulted in rejecting all eight null hypotheses.

Overall, the results of the quantitative analysis indicated that there was a significant, strong, positive relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel. These findings suggested that the perceptions employees have on servant leadership characteristic behavior, specifically emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptualizing, empowering, helping followers grow and succeed, putting followers first, behaving ethically, and servant leadership did have a direct impact on the U.S. Navy personnel's level of job satisfaction. The identified relationship implies that the behaviors of the U.S. Navy leadership do affect their personnel. This relationship also leads itself to practical implications within the U.S. Navy organization. Given that the sample population was from groups of U.S. Navy Reservist, 88.5% responded yes with an average time served active duty of 6.71 years. Past research on servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy did not capture the time each participant spent on active-duty or whether they only experienced U.S. navy leadership within the reserves. Most of the participants in this study have experienced leadership on active-duty.

The servant leadership characteristics that were identified as having a significant relationship with overall job satisfaction can be viewed and adopted by others within the U.S. Navy environments. If leaders who exercise servant leadership characteristics impacted the level of job satisfaction of their personnel who worked with them, as found in this study, then the organization should consider practicing servant leadership behaviors. The data collected for this study are significant because they provide an opportunity to identify the effects servant leadership behaviors have on personnel being led. Furthermore, the perceptions of the leader's behavior are from the follower's perspective. The results from this study provide transparency regarding the problem that is addressed in this study.

### **Conclusions**

The problem driving this study was that there is minimal understanding of how servant leadership characteristics impact the job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. The goal of this study was to analyze the possible relationship between two variables, servant leadership and job satisfaction, by surveying and examining the responses of U.S. Navy personnel. It measured servant leadership received by employees using the SLQ developed by Liden et al. (2008), and it used the JDI developed by Smith et al. in 1969. The literature related with servant leadership included contrasting views of the validity of the theory. Of the highlighted faultfinding assessments, P. T. Wong and Davey (2007) explained how the term "servant leader" sounds like an oxymoron. They suggested that in the harsh business world, the term might seem weak. Furthermore, they described the term as being indecisive and noted that there might be potential for CEOs to become afraid of this stigma. Second is Gonaim (2019), who discussed how the participants in

his study indicated that servant leaders could seem to be weak leaders. He further explained how the leader's attitude toward this belief might affect their decision to adopt such a leadership style; if the department chairs hold a predominant belief that leadership is authority, they may believe that the practice of servant leadership decreases their authority.

Although findings from this study described research associated with the servant leadership theory as limited, the discoveries aligned with a great amount the research explored in Chapter 2. Findings within the literature on servant leadership include significant connections between the practice of servant leadership and its impact on personnel's level of job satisfaction (Dapula & Castano, 2017; Greenleaf, 1977; Nisa et al., 2019, Ramdas & Patrick, 2019; Spears, 2010). Nisa et al. (2019) found strong evidence for a positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. They noted how the more servant leader behaviors were used, the more elements of job satisfaction were met. Lee et al. (2018) conducted a similar study on servant leadership and job satisfaction; however, their focus was on fitness clubs, surveying 320 employees. Results from that study identified servant leadership in fitness clubs as having a positive influence on the job satisfaction of employees.

### **Implications for Action**

The results from this study contribute to the literature about servant leadership and the discussion on the validity of the theory. The findings from this study also help validate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. The U.S. Navy and other organizations may find results from this study useful by having information to help better understand the affects servant leadership behaviors have on

their personnel. Specifically, servant leadership characteristics include emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptualizing, empowering, helping followers grow and succeed, putting followers first, and behaving ethically.

Organizations can see how implementation of these servant leadership behaviors could have a significant, positive impact on the job satisfaction of their personnel. It has been argued that the concerns of the validity of servant leadership as poorly understood or underresearched should not deter officers from striving to be servant leaders (Quinn & Bryant, 2019).

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

The following recommendations for future research could provide additional insight into the impact of servant leadership and contribute to the exploration in improving job satisfaction of U.S. Navy personnel. The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent relationships existed between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. Utilizing the SLQ developed by Liden et al. (2008) and the JDI developed by Smith et al. in 1969, future research could focus on the active-duty population. Researchers could go further to identify specific commands. Although military members might have limited time spent at different commands, identifying the time spent at each command might identify a difference in impact and effectiveness of servant leadership on job satisfaction.

Research could also be further developed in demographic areas. Many studies have identified that work values, pay, and promotion prospects differ significantly across gender (Clark, 1997; Foong et al., 2018; Saha et al., 2021). Another demographic area that could contribute in areas of this study is the relationship between the perception of

servant leadership and rank. Scholars have also found significant correlations between the perception of servant leadership and employee level (Drury, 2004; Laub, 1999; Wang et al., 2018). Demographics could also be used to measure how different genders and ranks respond to different types of leadership.

A promising direction for further research might be surveying U.S. Navy personnel on different deployed and nondeployed ships that might influence the effectiveness of servant leadership on the personnel's level of job satisfaction. More research is also needed between each military organization, including the U.S. Navy, Army, Marines, Air Force, Coast Guard, and National Guard. Although there is a relative newness of surveying the U.S. Navy organization on servant leadership's impact on variables such as job satisfaction; these types of studies add depth to the literature.

### **Concluding Remarks and Reflections**

Through empirical exploration of the constructs of servant leadership and measurements of job satisfaction, results from this study have contributed to research on leadership. The researcher examined the job satisfaction framework in which servant leadership is most effective. Kapp (2020) communicated concern about stress resulting from significant combat deployments to Iraq and Afghanistan from 2004 to 2009. He further explained the concerns raised regarding stress and the willingness of military personnel to continue their service. Kapp accounted for the result of too few people staying in the military and for how this could include a shortage of experienced leaders. Furthermore, too few people staying in the military could decrease both military efficiency and job satisfaction. Leadership within the U.S. Navy has taken steps to

address the issues of personnel support in the military; the main focus is on individual training (Jordan, 2015).

The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent relationships existed between dimensions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy. The data analysis revealed there was a significant, strong, positive relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel. Previous research related specifically to servant leadership. The U.S. Navy indicated that a strong correlation exists between the presence of servant leadership and level of job satisfaction within the U.S. Navy using the OLA and the MSQ (Jordan, 2015). Additional findings in the literature on servant leadership included significant connections between the implementation of servant leadership and the impact it has on personnel's level of job satisfaction (Dapula & Castano, 2017; Greenleaf, 1977; Nisa et al., 2019; Ramdas & Patrick, 2019; Spears, 2010).

There is a conscious change in how military organizations are revamping their managerial policies to accommodate the new shift from conservative to a more educated approach (Sampayo & Maranga, 2019). Results from this study offer new ways for the U.S. Navy and organizations to capitalize on their personnel while encouraging them to grow. Servant leadership is an optimal leadership style not only for the development of the organization but also for making the organization a preferred workplace (Barbuto & Gottfredson, 2016). Servant leadership is a more holistic leadership style that focuses on engaging people relationally, ethically, emotionally, and spiritually (Eva et al., 2019). Although many positive ideologies have been identified regarding the impact servant



leadership has on job satisfaction, it is suggested that additional research about this topic is conducted to aid in the contribution of the literature.

Organizational leaders want to empower their employees and build an ethical employee–boss relationship, and the servant leadership construct offers a framework worth implementing. The conclusion based on the findings from this study is that a significant, strong, positive relationship between the level of servant leadership and the level of job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel exists. Findings from this research align with previous studies and address an existing gap in literature regarding the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy.

## REFERENCES

- Abraham, A. (2018). Exploring teacher-educators' job satisfaction using job descriptive index. *Horn of African Journal of Business and Economics (HAJBE)*, 2(1), 126–129. <https://journals.ju.edu.et/index.php/jbeco/article/view/602>
- Acquah, A. (2017). Implications of the job characteristics theory for school management in Ghana: A literature review. *Research of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 7(1), 8–13.
- Adams, J. S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67(5), 422–436. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0040968>
- Alden, J. R., & Middlekauff, R. (1962). *The American Revolution, 1763–1783*. Harper & Row. <http://web.bvu.edu/faculty/feis/ftcd/03%20Chapter%203%20Bibs.pdf>
- Alghamdi, M. G., Topp, R., & AlYami, M. S. (2018). The effect of gender on transformational leadership and job satisfaction among Saudi nurses. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 74(1), 119–127. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.13385>
- Alkhateri, A. S., Abuelhassan, A. E., Khalifa, G. S., Nusari, M., & Ameen, A. (2018). The impact of perceived supervisor support on employees turnover intention: The Mediating role of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment. *International Business Management*, 12(7), 477–492.
- Alonderiene, R., & Majauskaite, M. (2016). Leadership style and job satisfaction in higher education institutions. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 30(1), 140–164. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-08-2014-0106>

- Alvesson, M., & Einola, K. (2019). Warning for excessive positivity: Authentic leadership and other traps in leadership studies. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 30(4), 383–395. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2019.04.001>
- Ameen, K. J., & Faraj, S. A. (2019). Effect of job stress on job satisfaction among nursing staff in Suleimani mental health hospitals. *Mosul Journal of Nursing*, 7(2), 109–119. <https://doi.org/10.33899/mjn.2019.164132>
- Arvey, R. D., Carter, G. W., & Buerkley, D. K. (1991). Job satisfaction: Dispositional and situational influences. In C. Cooper & I. T. Robertson, *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Vol 6, pp. 359–383). John Wiley & Sons.
- ASVAB Career Exploration Program. (2021, August 26). What’s the difference? Active duty vs. reserve. <https://www.asvabprogram.com/media-center-article/67>
- Bahmani, E., Teimouri, H., Moshref Javadi, M. H., & Rabbani Khorasegani, A. (2021). Theoretical development of servant leadership in a military context: A mixed methods research. *Human Systems Management*, 40(1), 65–80. <https://doi.org/10.3233/hsm-200936>
- Baltacı, A., & Balcı, A. (2017). Complexity leadership: A theoretical perspective. *International Journal of Educational Leadership and Management*, 5(1), 30–58. <https://doi.org/10.17583/ijelm.2017.2435>
- Ball, S., Van ’t Wout, C., & Oosthuizen, R. (2019). *A framework for implementing a data science capability in a military intelligence system*. Council for Scientific and Industrial Research. <https://easychair.org/publications/preprint/jRDv>

- Barbuto, J. E., Jr., & Gottfredson, R. K. (2016). Human capital, the millennial's reign, and the need for servant leadership. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 10(2), 59–63.  
<https://doi.org/10.1002/jls.21474>
- Barbuto, J. E., Jr., & Wheeler, D. W. (2006). Scale development and construct clarification of servant leadership. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(3), 300–326. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601106287091>
- Baron, D. (1999). *Moses on management: 50 leadership lessons from the greatest manager of all time*. Pocket Books.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1998). *Transformational leadership: Industry, military, and educational impact*. Erlbaum.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership* (3rd ed.). Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1989). Potential biases in leadership measures: How prototypes, leniency, and general satisfaction relate to ratings and rankings of transformational and transactional. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 49(3), 509–527. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001316448904900302>
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 207–218. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.207>
- Bathurst, R. J., & Chen, M. S. (2018). A smile and a sigh: Leadership insights from the East. *Handbook of Philosophy of Management. Handbooks in Philosophy*, 1–18.  
[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-48352-8\\_21-1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-48352-8_21-1)

- Batura, N., Skordis-Worrall, J., Thapa, R., Basnyat, R., & Morrison, J. (2016). Is the Job Satisfaction Survey a good tool to measure job satisfaction amongst health workers in Nepal? Results of a validation analysis. *BMC Health Services Research*, 16(1), Article 308. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-016-1558-4>
- Bauer, T. N., Perrot, S., Liden, R. C., & Erdogan, B. (2019). Understanding the consequences of newcomer proactive behaviors: The moderating contextual role of servant leadership. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 112, 356–368. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2019.05.001>
- Bavik, A., Bavik, Y. L., & Tang, P. M. (2017). Servant leadership, employee job crafting, and citizenship behaviors: A cross-level investigation. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 58(4), 364–373. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965517719282>
- Bayraktar, C. A., Araci, O., Karacay, G., & Calisir, F. (2017). The mediating effect of rewarding on the relationship between employee involvement and job satisfaction. *Human Factors and Ergonomics in Manufacturing & Service Industries*, 27(1), 45–52. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hfm.20683>
- Bell, E., Bryman, A., & Harley, B. (2018). *Business research methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Benmira, S., & Agboola, M. (2021). Evolution of leadership theory. *British Medical Journal Leader*, 2021(5), 3–5. <https://doi.org/10.1136/leader-2020-000296>
- Berger, A. A. (2018). *Media and communication research methods: An introduction to qualitative and quantitative approaches*. SAGE Publications.
- Bering, H. (2011, August). The perfect officer. *Policy Review*, (168), 51–68. <https://www.hoover.org/research/perfect-officer>

- Blaikie, N., & Priest, J. (2019). *Designing social research: The logic of anticipation*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Blank, W., Green, S. G., & Weitzel, R. (1990). A test of the situational leadership theory. *Personnel Psychology*, 43(3), 579–597. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1990.tb02397.x>
- Boamah, S. A., Laschinger, H. K. S., Wong, C., & Clarke, S. (2018). Effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction and patient safety outcomes. *Nursing Outlook*, 66(2), 180–189. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.outlook.2017.10.004>
- Bonde, J. P., Utzon-Frank, N., Bertelsen, M., Borritz, M., Eller, N. H., Nordentoft, M., Olesen, K., Rod, N. H., & Rugulies, R. (2016). Risk of depressive disorder following disasters and military deployment: Systematic review with meta-analysis. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 208(4), 330–336. <https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.bp.114.157859>
- Booth-Kewley, S., Dell’Acqua, R. G., & Thomsen, C. J. (2017). Factors affecting organizational commitment in navy corpsmen. *Military Medicine*, 182(7), e1794–e1800. <https://doi.org/10.7205/MILMED-D-16-00316>
- Bowling, N. A., Beehr, T. A., Wagner, S. H., & Libkuman, T. M. (2005). Adaptation-level theory, opponent process theory, and dispositions: An integrated approach to the stability of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(6), 1044–1053.
- Bowling Green State University. (2021, September). Job descriptive index. <https://services.bgsu.edu/jdi/>
- Brace, N., Kemp, R., & Snelgar, R. (2013). *SPSS for psychologists*. Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

- Brooks, S. K., & Greenberg, N. (2018). Non-deployment factors affecting psychological wellbeing in military personnel: Literature review. *Journal of Mental Health*, 27(1), 80–90. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09638237.2016.1276536>
- Buchen, I. (1998). Servant leadership: A model for future faculty and future institutions. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(1), 125–134. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179199800500111>
- Buddin, R. J. (2005). *Success of first-term soldiers. The effects of recruiting practices and recruit characteristics*. RAND. <https://www.rand.org/pubs/monographs/MG262.html>
- Bui, H. T. (2017). Big five personality traits and job satisfaction: Evidence from a national sample. *Journal of General Management*, 42(3), 21–30. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0306307016687990>
- Burns, G. N., Jasinski, D., Dunn, S. C., & Fletcher, D. (2012). Athlete identity and athlete satisfaction: The nonconformity of exclusivity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 52(3), 280–284. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2011.10.020>
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. Harper & Row.
- Burton, T., Farley, D., & Rhea, A. (2009). Stress-induced somatization in spouses of deployed and nondeployed servicemen. *Journal of the American Academy of Nurse Practitioners*, 21(6), 332–339. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-7599.2009.00411.x>
- Cable, D. (2018). How humble leadership really works. *Harvard Business Review*, 23, 2–5.

- Cain, M. K., Zhang, Z., & Yuan, K. H. (2017). Univariate and multivariate skewness and kurtosis for measuring nonnormality: Prevalence, influence, and estimation. *Behavior Research Methods*, 49(5), 1716–1735. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-016-0814-1>
- Castanheira, F. (2014). Job descriptive index. In A. C. Michalos, *Encyclopedia of quality of life and well-being research*. Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0753-5\\_1565](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-0753-5_1565)
- Chaita, M. V. (2014). The impact of employee attitudes on job satisfaction: A comparative study of university professors in the northwest region of England. *International Journal on Global Business Management & Research*, 3(1), 2–12. <http://www.rajalakshmi.org/ijgbmr/downloads/IJGBMRAug14.pdf>
- Clark, A. E. (1997). Job satisfaction and gender: Why are women so happy at work? *Labour Economics*, 4(4), 341–372.
- Coetzer, M. F., Bussin, M., & Geldenhuys, M. (2017). The functions of a servant leader. *Administrative Sciences*, 7(1), 5. <https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci7010005>
- Cohen, J. (1977). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Lawrence Erlbaum. <http://www.utstat.toronto.edu/~brunner/oldclass/378f16/readings/CohenPower.pdf>
- Comfort, L. K., & Kapucu, N. (2006). Inter-organizational coordination in extreme events: The World Trade Center attacks, September 11, 2001. *Natural Hazards*, 39(2), 309–327. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-006-0030-x>
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. SAGE Publications.



- Crippen, C., & Willows, J. (2019). Connecting teacher leadership and servant leadership: A synergistic partnership. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 171–180.  
<https://doi.org/10.12806/V18/I2/T4>
- Crosbie, T., Lucas, E. R., & Withander, N. E. (2019). Educating military elites: Professional military education in NATO countries. In S. Paananen & A.-T. Pulkka (Eds.), *Processes and practices in military training and education* (pp. 41–60). Helsinki, Finland. National Defence University.
- Dansereau, F., Jr., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13(1), 46–78. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(75\)90005-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(75)90005-7)
- Dapula, G. F., & Castano, M. C. N. (2017). Core self-evaluations, job satisfaction, transformational and servant leadership model in the Roman Catholic education system. *Asian Journal of University Education*, 13(2), 1–15.  
<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1207753>
- Darma, P. S., & Supriyanto, A. S. (2017). The effect of compensation on satisfaction and employee performance. *Management and Economics Journal (MEC-J)*, 1(1).  
<https://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=3141006>

Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Service. (n.d.). Planning and accountability.

<https://www.dcpas.osd.mil/aboutdcpas/directorates-special-offices/planning-and-accountability>

Demirkol, I. C., & Nalla, M. K. (2018). Predicting job satisfaction and motivation of aviation security personnel: a test of job characteristics theory. *Security Journal*, 31, 901–923. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41284-018-0137-2>

Department of Defense. (2018). *Annual suicide report*.

[https://www.dspo.mil/Portals/113/2018%20DoD%20Annual%20Suicide%20Report\\_FINAL\\_25%20SEP%2019\\_508c.pdf](https://www.dspo.mil/Portals/113/2018%20DoD%20Annual%20Suicide%20Report_FINAL_25%20SEP%2019_508c.pdf)

Department of Defense. (2019). *2019 demographics: Profile of the military community*.

<https://download.militaryonesource.mil/12038/MOS/Reports/2019-demographics-report.pdf>

Department of the Army. (2019, July). *ADRP 6-22: Army leadership and the profession*.

Headquarters, Department of the Army.

[https://armypubs.army.mil/epubs/DR\\_pubs/DR\\_a/ARN20039-ADP\\_6-22-001-WEB-0.pdf](https://armypubs.army.mil/epubs/DR_pubs/DR_a/ARN20039-ADP_6-22-001-WEB-0.pdf)

De Pree, M. (1992). *Leadership jazz*. Dell.

De Silva, R. (2019). Factors affecting job satisfaction of non-commissioned officers in Sri Lanka military academy. In *Vavuniya Campus International Research Symposium-2019 (VCIRS-2019)* (p. 57). <http://ir.kdu.ac.lk/handle/345/3560>

- De Vito, L., Brown, A., Bannister, B., Cianci, M., & Mujtaba, B. G. (2018). Employee motivation based on the hierarchy of needs, expectancy and the two-factor theories applied with higher education employees. *International Journal of Advances in Management, Economics, and Entrepreneurship*, 3(1), 20–32.  
<https://www.ijamee.info/index.php/IJAMEE/article/download/37/35>
- Dobrow Riza, S., Ganzach, Y., & Liu, Y. (2018). Time and job satisfaction: A longitudinal study of the differential roles of age and tenure. *Journal of Management*, 44(7), 2558–2579. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206315624962>
- Doerer, F. (2013). Leader-driven foreign-policy change: Denmark and the Persian Gulf war. *International Political Science Review*, 34(5), 582–597.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0192512112473027>
- Drury, S. L. (2004, August). *Servant leadership and organizational commitment*. Servant Leadership Research Roundtable.  
[http://www.drurywriting.com/sharon/drury\\_servant\\_leadership.pdf](http://www.drurywriting.com/sharon/drury_servant_leadership.pdf)
- Duffy, M. (2016). Gung ho, marine! Servant leadership, Evans Carlson, and the 2nd Marine raider battalion. *Servant Leadership: Theory & Practice*, 3(1), 89–107.  
<https://csuepress.columbusstate.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1011&context=sltp>
- Dugguh, S. I., & Ayaga, D. (2014). Job satisfaction theories: Traceability to employee performance in organizations. *Internal Organization of Scientific Research Journal of Business and Management*, 16(5), 11–18.  
<https://doi.org/10.9790/487X-16511118>

Easy-to-Read Version. (2006). *East-to-read version online*. BibleGateway.

<https://www.biblegateway.com/>

Ehrhart, M. G. (2004). Leadership and procedural justice climate as antecedents of unit-level organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 57(1), 61–94.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2004.tb02484.x>

Enlistment Oath: Who May Administer, 10 § 502 U.S.C .(1958).

<https://uscode.house.gov/view.xhtml?req=granuleid:USC-prelim-title10-section502&num=0&edition=prelim>

Eva, N., Robin, M., Sendjaya, S., van Dierendonck, D., & Liden, R. C. (2019). Servant leadership: A systematic review and call for future research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 30(1), 111–132. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2018.07.004>

Farrington, S. M., & Lillah, R. (2019). Servant leadership and job satisfaction within private healthcare practices. *Leadership in Health Services*, 32(1), 148–168. <https://doi.org/10.1108/LHS-09-2017-0056>

Fatima, T., Naz, A., Chughtai, S., & Khawaja, K. F. (2017). Workplace spirituality and job satisfaction: Moderating role of intrinsic and extrinsic values. *Paradigms*, 11(1), 58–66. <https://doi.org/10.24312/paradigms110110>

Faturochman, F. (2016). The job characteristics theory: A review. *Bulletin Psikologi*, 5(2), 1–13. <https://jurnal.ugm.ac.id/buletinpsikologi/article/view/13552/9718>

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A.-G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G\*power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, 39, 175–191. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03193146>

- Fernandez, C. F., & Vecchio, R. P. (1997). Situational leadership theory revisited: A test of an across jobs perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 8(1), 67–84.  
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(97\)90031-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(97)90031-X)
- Ferreira, A. I., Martinez, L. F., Lamelas, J. P., & Rodrigues, R. I. (2017). Mediation of job embeddedness and satisfaction in the relationship between task characteristics and turnover. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(1), 248–267. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-03-2015-0126>
- Fiaz, M., Su, Q., & Saqib, A. (2017). Leadership styles and employees' motivation: Perspective from an emerging economy. *Journal of Developing Areas*, 51(4), 143–156. <https://doi.org/10.1353/jda.2017.0093>
- Fisher, A. H., Jr., & DiSario, M. R. (1974, February). *Attitudes of youth toward military service in a zero-draft environment: Results of a national survey conducted in November 1972*. Air Force Human Resources Research Organization.  
<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED097490.pdf>
- Focht, A., & Ponton, M. (2015). Identifying primary characteristics of servant leadership: Delphi study. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 9(1), 1–18.  
<https://www.regent.edu/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/1-IJLS.pdf>
- Folakemi, O., Adenike, A. A., Olumuyiwa, O. A., & Osibanjo, A. O. (2018). Survey dataset on leadership styles and job satisfaction: the perspective of employees of hospitality providers. *Data in Brief*, 19, 2178–2188.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dib.2018.06.033>

- Foong, E., Vincent, N., Hecht, B., & Gerber, E. M. (2018). Women (still) ask for less: Gender differences in hourly rate in an online labor marketplace. *Proceedings of the ACM on Human-Computer Interaction*, 2(CSCW), 1–21.  
<https://doi.org/10.1145/3274322>
- Freeborough, R., & Patterson, K. (2016). Exploring the effect of transformational leadership on nonprofit leader engagement. *Servant Leadership: Theory & Practice*, 2(1), 49–70.  
<https://csuepress.columbusstate.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1004&context=sltp>
- Freeman, R. B. (1977). Job satisfaction as an economic variable. *American Economic Review*, 68(2), 135–141. <https://doi.org/10.3386/w0225>
- Frempong, L. N., Agbenyo, W., & Darko, P. A. (2018). The impact of job satisfaction on employees' loyalty and commitment: A comparative study among some selected sectors in Ghana. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 10(12), 95–105. <https://www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/EJBM/article/view/42154/43399>
- Geeng, C., Yee, S., & Roesner, F. (2020, April). Fake news on Facebook and Twitter: Investigating how people (don't) investigate. In *CHI '20: Proceedings of the 2020 CHI conference on human factors in computing system*, 1–14.  
<https://doi.org/10.1145/3313831.3376784>
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2019). *IBM SPSS statistics 26 step by step: A simple guide and reference*. Routledge.

- Gonaim, F. A. (2019). Leadership in higher education in Saudi Arabia: Benefits, constraints and challenges of adopting servant leadership model by department chairs. *International Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(2), 101–111.  
<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1218573>
- Goodson, J. R., McGee, G. W., & Cashman, J. F. (1989). Situational leadership theory: A test of leader prescriptions. *Group and Organizational Studies*, 14(4), 446–461.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/105960118901400406>
- Government Organization and Employees, 5 U.S.C. § 3331 (1966).  
[https://uscode.house.gov/view.xhtml?req=\(title:5%20section:3331%20edition:prelim\)#sourcecredit](https://uscode.house.gov/view.xhtml?req=(title:5%20section:3331%20edition:prelim)#sourcecredit)
- Graham, J. W. (1991). Servant-leadership in organizations: Inspirational and moral. *Leadership Quarterly*, 2(2), 105–119. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843\(91\)90025-W](https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(91)90025-W)
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1970). *The servant as leader*. The Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness*. Paulist Press.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1996). Types of leaders. In A. T. Fraker & L. C. Spears (Eds.), *Seeker and servant: Reflections on religious leadership* (pp. 89–100). Jossey-Bass.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (2003). *The servant leader within: A transformative path*. Paulist Press.

- Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 463–488. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600305>
- Grint, K. (2011). A history of leadership. In Bryman, A., Collinson, D., Grint, K., Jackson, B., & Uhl-Bien, M., *The SAGE handbook of leadership* (pp. 3–14). SAGE Publications.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16(2), 250–279. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073\(76\)90016-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0030-5073(76)90016-7)
- Hair, J. F., Jr., Page, M., & Brunsveld, N. (2019). *Essentials of business research methods*. Routledge.
- Hall, L. K. (2011). The importance of understanding military culture. *Social Work in Healthcare*, 50(1), 4–18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00981389.2010.513914>
- Hanaysha, J., & Tahir, P. R. (2016). Examining the effects of employee empowerment, teamwork, and employee training on job satisfaction. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 219, 272–282. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.05.016>
- Hanusz, Z., Tarasinska, J., & Zielinski, W. (2016). Shapiro-Wilk test with known mean. *REVSTAT-Statistical Journal*, 14(1), 89–100. <https://bw.sggw.edu.pl/info/article/WULS438603ff990c41a9a7e60df7c140ef0b/>
- Hater, J. J., & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(4), 695–702. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.73.4.695>



- Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H., & Natemeyer, W. E. (1979). Situational leadership, perception, and the impact of power. *Group & Organization Studies*, 4(4), 418–428. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105960117900400404>
- Herzberg, F. (1974). Motivation-hygiene profiles: pinpointing what ails the organization. *Organizational Dynamics*, 3, 18–29. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616\(74\)90007-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(74)90007-2)
- Herzberg, F. A., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. Wiley.
- Hijazi, S., Kasim, A. L., & Daud, Y. (2017). Leadership styles and their relationship with the private university employees' job satisfaction in United Arab Emirates. *Journal of Public Administration and Governance*, 6(4), 110–124. <https://doi.org/10.5296/jpag.v6i4.10347>
- Hoboubi, N., Choobineh, A., Ghanavati, F. K., Keshavarzi, S., & Hosseini, A. A. (2017). The impact of job stress and job satisfaction on workforce productivity in an Iranian petrochemical industry. *Safety and Health at Work*, 8(1), 67–71. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.shaw.2016.07.002>
- Hoch, J. E., Bommer, W. H., Dulebohn, J. H., & Wu, D. (2018). Do ethical, authentic, and servant leadership explain variance above and beyond transformational leadership? A meta-analysis. *Journal of Management*, 44(2), 501–529. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316665461>
- Holcomb, Z. C. (2016). *Fundamentals of descriptive statistics*. Routledge.

- Hom, P. W., Caranikas-Walker, F., Prussia, G. E., & Griffeth, R. W. (1992). A meta-analytical structural equations analysis of a model of employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(6), 890–909. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.77.6.890>
- Hopkinson, S. G., Dickinson, C. M., Dumayas, J. Y., Jarzombek, S. L., & Blackman, V. S. (2020). A multi-center study of horizontal violence in United States military nursing. *Nurse Education in Practice*, 47, 102838. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nepr.2020.102838>
- Horsman, J. H. (2018). *Servant-leaders in training: Foundations of the philosophy of servant-leadership* (Palgrave studies in workplace spirituality and fulfillment). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hunt, T., & Fedynich, L. (2019). Leadership: past, present, and future: An evolution of an idea. *Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 8(2), 22–26.
- Hur, Y. (2018). Testing Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation in the public sector: Is it applicable to public managers? *Public Organization Review*, 18(3), 329–343. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11115-017-0379-1>
- Irving, J. A., & Longbotham, G. J. (2007). Leading effective teams through servant leadership: An expanded regression model of essential servant leadership themes. *American Society of Business and Behavioral Sciences Proceedings*, 14(1), 806–817. [https://people.bethel.edu/~irvjus/PDF/ASBBS\\_2007\\_Nine%20Themes\\_Irving\\_Longbotham.pdf](https://people.bethel.edu/~irvjus/PDF/ASBBS_2007_Nine%20Themes_Irving_Longbotham.pdf)
- Islam, S. S. (2016). A new method to measure the job satisfaction level of an employee. *Engineering International*, 4(1), 19–24. <https://doi.org/10.18034/ei.v4i1.182>

- Jain, S., & Angural, V. (2017). Use of Cronbach's alpha in dental research. *Medico Research Chronicles*, 4(03), 285–291.  
<http://www.medrech.com/index.php/medrech/article/download/242/242>
- Jawoosh, H. N., Hatim, A. D., & Razak, M. A. (2021). Leadership theories in management and psychologist educational filed. *Modern Sport Journal*, 20(2).  
<https://jcopew.uobaghdad.edu.iq/index.php/sport/article/download/796/614>
- Johnson, J., Irizarry, M., Nguyen, N., & Maloney, P. (2018). Part 1: Foundational theories of human motivation. *Motivation 101: A guide for public servants*.  
<https://stars.library.ucf.edu/motivationforpublicservants/1>
- Jones, E. L., & Jones, R. C. (2017). Leadership style and career success of women leaders in nonprofit organizations. *Advancing Women in Leadership*, 37, 37–48.
- Jordan, M. K. (2015). *Determining the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction among U.S. Navy personnel* (Publication No. 3684590) [Doctoral Dissertation, Northcentral University]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.
- Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Klinger, R. (2008). The dispositional sources of job satisfaction: A comparative test. *Applied Psychology*, 57(3), 361–372.  
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2007.00318.x>
- Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., & Durham, C. C. (1997). The dispositional causes of job satisfaction: A core evaluations approach. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 19, 151–188.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 755–768. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.5.755>

- Julius, N. T., Ojiabo, U., & Alagah, A. D. (2017). Organizational politics and employee's job satisfaction in the health sector of rivers state. *International Journal of Advanced Academic Research*, 3(7), 88–106.
- Kapp, L. (2020). *Defense primer: Active duty enlisted retention*. Congressional Research Service. <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/natsec/IF11274.pdf>
- Kark, R., Karazi-Presler, T., & Tubi, S. (2016). Paradox and challenges in military leadership. In C. Peus, S. Braun, & B. Schyns (Eds.), *Leadership lessons from compelling contexts* (Vol. 8, pp. 157–187). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Keith, K. M. (2008). *The case for servant leadership*. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership.
- Khaliq, C. A., Ashraf, I. A., Chattha, M. N., Haroon, A., & Aslam, N. (2016). The impact of perceived leadership behavior and organizational commitment of employees in the education sector of Pakistan. *European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences*, 5(4), 902. <https://european-science.com/eojnss/article/view/4650/pdf>
- Khan, N. Z. A., Imran, A., & Anwar, A. (2017). Under the shadow of destructive leadership: Causal effect of job stress on turnover intention of employees in call centers. *International Journal of Management Research and Emerging Science*, 7(1), 53–77.
- Khudari, M., & Saad, N. M. (2019). Sukuk issuance in the emerging markets—A relative evaluation. *International Journal of Engineering and Advanced Technology*, 9(1), 3571–3574. <http://doi.org/10.35940/2Fijeat.A2689.109119>
- Kianto, A., Vanhala, M., & Heilmann, P. (2016). The impact of knowledge management on job satisfaction. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 20(4), 621–636.

- Kiker, D. S., Callahan, J., & Kiker, M. B. (2019). Exploring the boundaries of servant leadership: A meta-analysis of the main and moderating effects of servant leadership on behavioral and affective outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 31(2), 172–197.
- Kime, P. (2019, August 2). Military suicides reach highest rate since record-keeping began after 9/11. *Military.Com*. <https://www.military.com/daily-news/2019/08/01/pentagon-reports-record-number-suicides.html>
- Knock, N., Mayfield, M., Mayfield, J., Sexton, S., & De La Garza, L. M. (2019). Empathetic leadership: How leader emotional support and understanding influences follower performance. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 26(2), 217–236.
- Kollmann, T., Stöckmann, C., Kensbock, J. M., & Peschl, A. (2020). What satisfies younger versus older employees, and why? An aging perspective on equity theory to explain interactive effects of employee age, monetary rewards, and task contributions on job satisfaction. *Human Resource Management*, 59(1), 101–115.
- Konstantinou, C., & Prezerakos, P. (2018). Relationship between nurse managers' leadership styles and staff nurses' job satisfaction in a Greek NHS hospital. *American Journal of Nursing*, 7(3-1), 45–50.
- Kotni, V. D. P., & Karumuri, V. (2018). Application of Herzberg two-factor theory model for motivating retail salesforce. *Indiana University Pennsylvania Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17(1), 24–42.  
[https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\\_id=3223240](https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3223240)

- Kyumana, V. (2017). Measuring the level of job satisfaction of library staff at the institute of finance management, Tanzania: A case study. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 6(11), 79–85.
- Laerd Statistics. (n.d.). Multiple regression analysis using SPSS statistics.  
<https://statistics.laerd.com/spss-tutorials/multiple-regression-using-spss-statistics.php>
- Lake, C. J., Gopalkrishnan, P., Sliter, M. T., & Withrow, S. (2010). The job descriptive index: Newly updated and available for download. *The Industrial-Organizational Psychologist*, 48(1), 47–49.
- Landis, E. A., Hill, D., & Harvey, M. R. (2014). A synthesis of leadership theories and styles. *Journal of Management Policy and Practice*, 15(2), 97–100.
- Laub, J. A. (1998). *Organizational leadership assessment*.  
<https://olagroup.com/documents/instrument.pdf>
- Laub, J. A. (1999). *Assessing the servant organization: Development of the servant organizational leadership assessment (SOLA) instrument* (Publication No. 9921922) [Doctoral dissertation, Florida Atlantic University]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.
- Laub, J. (2018). Explaining the servant mindset: The OLA servant leadership model. In *Leveraging the Power of Servant Leadership* (pp. 73–111). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.
- Lawler, E. E., III. (1973). *Motivation in work organizations*. Brooks/Cole.  
<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED091542>

- Lee, K., Kim, Y., & Cho, W. (2018). A study on the relationship between servant leadership, organizational culture and job satisfaction in fitness clubs. *Sport Montenegro*, 16(3), 43–49. <https://doi.org/10.26773/smj.181008>
- Lemoine, G. J., Hartnell, C. A., & Leroy, H. (2019). Taking stock of moral approaches to leadership: An integrative review of ethical, authentic, and servant leadership. *Academy of Management Annals*, 13(1), 148–187. <https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2016.0121>
- Levy, B. S., & Sidel, V. W. (2013). Adverse health consequences of the Iraq war. *The Lancet*, 381(9870), 949–958. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(13\)60254-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(13)60254-8)
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(2), 161–177.
- Lincoln, M. L., Moore, R. S., & Ames, G. M. (2018). Sleep disturbances after deployment: National Guard soldiers' experiences and strategies. *Sleep Health*, 4(4), 377–383. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sleh.2018.05.005>
- Lindquist, C., Jr., & Russell, E. (2019). Fire & emergency services perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction. *Servant Leadership: Theory & Practice*, 6(1), 37–52.
- Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1297–1343). Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Ly, A., Marsman, M., & Wagenmakers, E. J. (2018). Analytic posteriors for Pearson's correlation coefficient. *Statistica Neerlandica*, 72(1), 4–13.

- Lytell, M. C., & Drasgow, F. (2009). “Timely” methods: Examining turnover rates in the U.S. military. *Military Psychology*, 21(3), 334–350.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/08995600902914693>
- Mabaso, C. M., & Dlamini, B. I. (2017). Impact of compensation and benefits on job satisfaction. *Research Journal of Business Management*, 11(2), 80–90.  
<https://doi.org/10.3923/RJBM.2017.80.90>
- Maguen, S., Turcotte, D. M., Peterson, A. L., Dremsa, T. L., Garb, H. N., McNally, R. J., & Litz, B. T. (2008). Description of risk and resilience factors among military medical personnel before deployment to Iraq. *Military Medicine*, 173(1), 1–9.  
<https://doi.org/10.7205/MILMED.173.1.1>
- Mao, D., Zhang, L., Li, X., & Mu, D. (2018). Trusted authority assisted three-factor authentication and key agreement protocol for the implantable medical system. *Wireless Communications and Mobile Computing*, 2018, Article 7579161.  
<https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/7579161>
- Mareus, R., Patterson, K., Firestone, S., & Winston, B. E. (2019). Exploring servant leadership in a top-down environment. *Servant Leadership: Theory & Practice*, 6(1), 4.
- Martin, B. A., & Allen, S. J. (2016). Empirical test of the know, see, plan, do model for curriculum design in leadership education. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 15(4), 132–143. <https://doi.org/10.12806/V15/I4/A2>
- Martínez-Córcoles, M., & Stephanou, K. (2017). Linking active transactional leadership and safety performance in military operations. *Safety Science*, 96, 93–101.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2017.03.013>



- Mathur, S., & Samdani, G. L. (2019). A study of job satisfaction amongst the employees of textile industry. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Erudition*, 9(2), 1–10.  
<http://pharmaerudition.org/ContentPaper/2019/aug%201-10.pdf>
- Matteson, J. A., & Irving, J. A. (2006). Servant versus self-sacrificial leadership: A behavioral comparison of two follow-oriented leadership theories. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 2(1), 36–51.
- Maxwell, J. C. (2007). *The 21 irrefutable laws of leadership: Follow them and people will follow you*. Thomas Nelson.
- Maxwell, J. C., & Ekstrand, D. W. (2019). A passion for leadership. In R. J. Vallerand & N. Houliort (Eds.), *Passion for Work: Theory, Research, and Applications* (p. 411). Oxford University Press.
- McClellan, J. L. (2007). The advisor as servant: The theoretical and philosophical relevance of servant leadership to academic advising. *NACADA Journal*, 27(2), 41–49. <https://doi.org/10.12930/0271-9517-27.2.41>
- Metscher, D. S., Lowe, W. A., Barnes, F. B., & Lai, L. (2011). Using leadership to increase commitment for civil servants and air force personnel in times of conflict. *Air Force Journal of Logistics*, 35(1/2), 125–133.
- Meyer, E. G., & Wynn, G. H. (2018). The importance of U.S. military cultural competence. In L. W. Roberts & C. H. Warner (Eds.), *Military and veteran mental health* (pp. 15–33). Springer.
- Miller, A. M. (2018). *Leadership frameworks for multi domain battle: Mindsets for organizational adaptability and future viability*. U.S. Army School for Advanced Military Studies <https://www.hsdl.org/?view&did=824256>

- Mishra, A., & Mahapatra, M. (2018). Servant leadership: A necessity for competitive advantage. *Journal of Business Management and Social Services Research*, 7(2), 40–44.
- Mishra, P., Pandey, C. M., Singh, U., Gupta, A., Sahu, C., & Keshri, A. (2019). Descriptive statistics and normality tests for statistical data. *Annals of Cardiac Anaesthesia*, 22(1), 67–72. [https://doi.org/10.4103/aca.ACA\\_157\\_18](https://doi.org/10.4103/aca.ACA_157_18)
- Mobilio, S. B., Irish, T. R., Larson, J. W., Finnerty, M. W., & Sweetser, K. D. (2021). The few, the proud, the satisfied? The relationship between perceptions of public affairs and job satisfaction in the U.S. Marine Corps. *Public Relations Review*, 47(4), 102045. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2021.102045>
- Munnangi, S., Dupiton, L., Boutin, A., & Angus, L. D. (2018). Burnout, perceived stress, and job satisfaction among trauma nurses at a level I safety-net trauma center. *Journal of Trauma Nursing*, 25(1), 4–13. <https://doi.org/10.1097/JTN.0000000000000335>
- Myers, S. R., & Groh, J. (2010). The future of strategic leader development at the U.S. army war college. *Integral Leadership Review*, 10(1), 1–14.
- Nadeak, B. (2019). Effects of servant leadership and training programs on servant motivation of hospital medical personnel. *Indian Journal of Public Health Research & Development*, 10(9), 1772–1775. <https://doi.org/10.5958/0976-5506.2019.02709.8>

- Nair, S. L. S., Aston, J., & Kozlovski, E. (2019). The relationship between organisational culture and the job satisfaction levels of IT sector employees in contrasting economies. *Forum Scientiae Oeconomia*, 7(3), 77–88. <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/96241/>
- Naresh, B. V., & Krishna, P. M. (2017). Analysis on leadership characteristics of managers of information technology and non-information technology organizations with special reference to Karnataka. *International Journal of Advanced Scientific Research & Development (IJASRD)*, 4(7), 59–75.
- Nazim, F. (2016). Principals' transformational and transactional leadership style and job satisfaction of college teachers. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(34), 18–22. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1126682.pdf>
- Negrusa, S., Negrusa, B., & Hosek, J. (2016). Deployment and divorce: An in-depth analysis by relevant demographic and military characteristics. In S. M. Wadsworth & D. S., Riggs (Eds.), *War and family life* (pp. 35–54). Springer.
- Newsom, J. T. (2019). *Post hoc tests. Univariate quantitative methods*. [http://web.pdx.edu/~newsomj/uvclass/ho\\_posthoc.pdf](http://web.pdx.edu/~newsomj/uvclass/ho_posthoc.pdf)
- Newstrom, J. W. (2007). *Organizational behavior: Human behavior at work*. McGraw-Hill.
- Nikolaev, B., Shir, N., & Wiklund, J. (2020). Dispositional positive and negative affect and self-employment transitions: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 44(3), 451–474. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1042258718818357>

- Nikolić, D., Mureşan, R. C., Feng, W., & Singer, W. (2012). Scaled correlation analysis: A better way to compute a cross-correlogram. *European Journal of Neuroscience*, 35(5), 742–762. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-9568.2011.07987.x>
- Nisa, K., Yacobson, H., & Chandra, M. W. (2019). The relationship between servant leadership, employee engagement, burnout and job satisfaction at Pt. Pertamina Mor VI. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Advanced Studies*.
- Njue, C. M., & Mbataru, P. (2019). Determinants of employee job satisfaction in the parliamentary joint services Kenya. *International Academic Journal of Human Resource and Business Administration*, 3(7), 496–513.  
[http://www.iajournals.org/articles/iajhrba\\_v3\\_i7\\_496\\_513.pdf](http://www.iajournals.org/articles/iajhrba_v3_i7_496_513.pdf)
- Norris, W. R., & Vecchio, R. P. (1992). Situational leadership theory: A replication. *Group and Organizational Management*, 17(3), 331–342.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1059601192173010>
- Northouse, P. (2018). *Leadership: Theory and practice* [Kindle for PC version].  
<http://www.amazon.com>
- Northouse, P. G. (2019). *Introduction to leadership: Concepts and practice*. SAGE Publications.
- Obiora, C. A., & Iwuoha, V. C. (2013). Work related stress, job satisfaction and due process in Nigerian public service. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(20).
- Okolo, D. (2018). An exploration of the relationship between technostress, employee engagement and job design from the Nigerian banking employee's perspective. *Management Dynamics in the Knowledge Economy*, 6(4), 511–531.

- Ong, M. H. A., & Puteh, F. (2017). Quantitative data analysis: Choosing between SPSS, PLS, and AMOS in social science research. *International Interdisciplinary Journal of Scientific Research*, 3(1), 14–25.
- Ozel, A., & Bayraktar, C. A. (2018). Effect of organizational justice on job satisfaction. In F. Calisir, & H. Camgoz Akdag (Eds.), *Industrial Engineering in the Industry 4.0 Era* (pp. 205–218). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-71225-3\\_18](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-71225-3_18)
- Paananen, S., & Pulkka, A. T. (Eds.). (2019). *Processes and practices in military training and education*. National Defence University, Helsinki.  
[https://www.doria.fi/bitstream/handle/10024/173166/Paananen%26Pulkka\\_Processes%20and%20Practices\\_web.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y](https://www.doria.fi/bitstream/handle/10024/173166/Paananen%26Pulkka_Processes%20and%20Practices_web.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y)
- Page, D., & Wong, P. T. P. (2000). A conceptual framework for measuring servant leadership. In S. Adjibolooso (Ed.), *The human factor in shaping the course of history and development* (pp. 69–110). American University Press.
- Parris, D. L., & Peachey, J. W. (2013). A systematic literature review of servant leadership theory in organizational contexts. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 113, 377–393. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1322-6>
- Patel, A. B. (2019). *Developing leaders in schools: Unique servant leadership youth development curriculum* [Master's thesis, University of San Diego]. Capstone Project Papers, 54. <https://digital.sandiego.edu/solesmalscap/54>
- Patterson, K. (2003). *Servant leadership: A theoretical model* (Publication No. 3082719) [Doctoral Dissertation, Regent University]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

- Pawirosumarto, S., Sarjana, P. K., & Gunawan, R. (2017). The effect of work environment, leadership style, and organizational culture towards job satisfaction and its implication towards employee performance in Parador Hotels and Resorts, Indonesia, *International Journal of Law and Management*, 59(6), 1337–1358.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/IJLMA-10-2016-0085>
- Person, H. S. (1928). Leadership as a response to environment. *Educational Research Supplement*, 9, 10–21.
- Peter, K. T. (2019). A therapeutic mangle of history: Towards a politics of reconciliation in Arjun Raj Gaiind's empire of blood. *Neo-Victorian Studies*, 11(2), 153–176.  
<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2628500>
- Piccolo, R. F., Bono, J. E., Heinitz, K., Rowold, J., Duehr, E., & Judge, T. A. (2012). The relative impact of complementary leader behaviors: Which matter most? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(3), 567–581.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.12.008>
- Pleil, J. D. (2016). QQ-plots for assessing distributions of biomarker measurements and generating defensible summary statistics. *Journal of Breath Research*, 10(3).  
<https://doi.org/10.1088/1752-7155/10/3/035001>
- Potter, E. M., Egbelakin, T., Phipps, R., & Balaei, B. (2018). Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behaviours of construction project managers. *Journal of Financial Management of Property and Construction*, 23(1), 73–89.  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMPC-01-2017-0004>

- Priarso, M. T., Diatmono, P., & Mariam, S. (2019). The effect of transformational leadership style, work motivation, and work environment on employee performance that in mediation by job satisfaction variables in Pt. Gynura Consulindo. *Business and Entrepreneurial Review*, 18(2), 165–176.  
<https://doi.org/10.25105/ber.v18i2.5334>
- Qing, M., Asif, M., Hussain, A., & Jameel, A. (2019). Exploring the impact of ethical leadership on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in public sector organizations: The mediating role of psychological empowerment. *Review of Managerial Science*, 14, 1408–1432. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11846-019-00340-9>
- Queirós, A., Faria, D., & Almeida, F. (2017). Strengths and limitations of qualitative and quantitative research methods. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 3(9), 369–387. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.88708>
- Quinn, I., & Bryant, P. C. (2019). How Christian should an Army officer be? The answer may lie in servant leadership. *Servant Leadership: Theory & Practice*, 6(1), 75–89. <https://csuepress.columbusstate.edu/sltp/vol6/iss1/5>
- Rahman, K. U., Akhter, W., & Khan, S. U. (2017). Factors affecting employee job satisfaction: A comparative study of conventional and Islamic insurance. *Cogent Business & Management*, 4(1). <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2016.1273082>
- Rahmat, R., Ramly, M., Mallongi, S., & Kalla, R. (2019). The leadership style effect on the job satisfaction and the performance. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management and Education*, 2(1).

- Ramdas, S. K., & Patrick, H. A. (2019). Driving performance through positive leadership. *Journal of Positive Management*, 9(3), 17–33.  
<https://doi.org/10.12775/jpm.2018.146>
- Rand, T. (1999). Why businesses fail: An organizational perspective. *Emergence*, 1(4), 97–114. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327000em0104\\_6](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327000em0104_6)
- Raymer, S. D., Dobbs, J., Kelley, C. P., & Lindsay, D. R. (2018). Leadership education and development: Theory driven evolutions. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 17(2), 138–148. <https://doi.org/10.12806/v17/i2/a5>
- Reynolds, G. M., & Shendruk, A. (2018). Demographics of the U.S. military.  
<https://www.cfr.org/article/demographics-us-military>
- Rice, S., Winter, S. R., Doherty, S., & Milner, M. (2017). Advantages and disadvantages of using internet-based survey methods in aviation-related research. *Journal of Aviation Technology and Engineering*, 7(1), Article 5.  
<https://doi.org/10.7771/2159-6670.1160>
- Rosenbach, W. E., Taylor, R. L., & Youndt, M. A. (Eds.). (2018). *Contemporary issues in leadership*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429494000>
- Rožman, M., Treven, S., & Čančer, V. (2017). Motivation and satisfaction of employees in the workplace. *Business Systems Research: International Journal of the Society for Advancing Innovation and Research in Economy*, 8(2), 14–25.  
<https://doi.org/10.1515/bsrj-2017-0013>
- Russell, R. F., & Stone, A. G. (2002). A review of servant leadership attributes: Developing a practical model. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal*, 23(3/4), 145–158. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730210424>



- Ruthankoon, R., & Ogunlana, S. O. (2003). Testing Herzberg's two-factor theory in the Thai construction industry. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, 10(5), 333–341. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09699980310502946>
- Saha, K., Yousuf, A., Hickman, L., Gupta, P., Tay, L., & De Choudhury, M. (2021). A social media study on demographic differences in perceived job satisfaction. *Proceedings of the ACM on Human-Computer Interaction*, 5(CSCW1), 1–29. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3449241>
- Sahito, Z., & Vaisanen, P. (2017). The diagonal model of job satisfaction and motivation: extracted from the logical comparison of content and process theories. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(3), 209–230. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n3p209>
- Salihu, M. J. (2019). A conceptual analysis of the leadership theories and proposed leadership framework in higher education. *Asian Journal of Education and Social Studies*, 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.9734/ajess/2019/v5i430164>
- Sampayo, J., & Maranga, K. (2019). The servant-leader model: Air force lawyers. *Journal of Management Policy and Practice*, 20(2). <https://doi.org/10.33423/jmpp.v20i2.2096>
- Sanchez, R. P., Bray, R. M., Vincus, A. A., & Bann, C. M. (2004). Predictors of job satisfaction among active duty and reserve/guard personnel in the U.S. military. *Military Psychology*, 16(1), 19–35. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327876mp1601\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327876mp1601_2)
- Schober, P., Boer, C., & Schwarte, L. A. (2018). Correlation coefficients: Appropriate use and interpretation. *Anesthesia & Analgesia*, 126(5), 1763–1768. <https://doi.org/10.1213/ane.0000000000002864>

- Scordato, M., & Monopoli, P. A. (2002). Free speech rationales after September 11th: The first amendment in post-World Trade Center America. *Stanford Law & Policy Review*, 13, 185.
- Senjaya, S. (2003). Development and validation of servant leadership behavior scale. *Proceedings of the Servant Leadership Research Roundtable*.
- Setyaningrum, R. P., Setiawan, M., Surachman, & Irawanto, D. W. (2020). Servant leadership characteristics, organizational commitment, followers' trust, employees' performance outcomes: A literature review. *European Research Studies*, 23(4), 902–911. <https://doi.org/10.35808/ersj/1722>
- Shamir, B., & Ben-Ari, E. (2000). Challenges of military leadership in changing armies. *Journal of Political and Military Sociology*, 28(1), 43–59.
- Sharma, P. (2017). Organizational culture as a predictor of job satisfaction: The role of age and gender. *Management-Journal of Contemporary Management Issues*, 22(1), 35–48. <https://doi.org/10.30924/mjcmi/2017.22.1.35>
- Sharma, P. K., Misra, R. K., & Mishra, P. (2017). Job satisfaction scale: Adaptation and validation among Indian IT (information technology) employees. *Global Business Review*, 18, 703–718.
- Shobe, K. (2018). Productivity driven by job satisfaction, physical work environment, management support and job autonomy. *Business and Economics Journal*, 9(2), 2–9. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2151-6219.1000351>
- Sia, L. A., & Tan, T. A. (2016). The influence of organizational justice on job satisfaction in a hotel setting. *DLSU Business & Economics Review*, 26(1), 17–29.

- Singh, M. M., Amiri, M., & Sabbarwal, S. (2019). Role of job stress on job satisfaction. *International Journal of Management Studies*, 6(4), 57–60.
- Sipe, J., & Frick, D. (2015). *Seven pillars of servant leadership*. Paulist Press.
- Smith, P. C., Kendall, L. M., & Hulin, C. L. (1969). *The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement. A strategy for the study of attitudes*. Rand McNally.  
<https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED051271>
- Soyoung, P., & Sungchan, K. (2017). The linkage between work unit performance perceptions of U.S. federal employees and their job satisfaction: An expectancy theory. *Transylvanian Review of Administrative Sciences*, 13(52), 77–93.  
<https://doi.org/10.24193/tras.52e.5>
- Spears, L. C. (Ed.). (1995). *Reflections on leadership: How Robert K. Greenleaf's theory of servant-leadership influenced today's top management thinkers*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Spears, L. C. (2010). Character and servant leadership: Ten characteristics of effective, caring leaders. *Journal of Virtues & Leadership*, 1(1), 25–30.  
[https://www.regent.edu/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Spears\\_Final.pdf](https://www.regent.edu/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Spears_Final.pdf)
- Spears, L. C., & Lawrence, M. (Eds.). (2016). *Practicing servant-leadership: Succeeding through trust, bravery, and forgiveness*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 13(6), 693–713. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bF00929796>

- Spisak, B. R., O'Brien, M. J., Nicholson, N., & van Vugt, M. (2015). Niche construction and the evolution of leadership. *Academy of Management Review*, 40(2), 291–306. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2013.0157>
- Statistics Solutions. (n.d.). General uses of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). <https://www.statisticssolutions.com/general-uses-of-analysis-of-covariance-ancova/>
- Stogdill, R. M. (1975). The evolution of leadership theory. In *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1975(1), 4–6. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.1975.4975786>
- Subedi, D. (2016). Explanatory sequential mixed method design as the third research community of knowledge claim. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 4(7), 570–577. <https://doi.org/10.12691/education-4-7-10>
- Suharjo, B. (2019). Using system dynamics to analyze the leadership style on motivation and soldier's performance. *E3S Web of Conferences*, 125, Article 22002. <https://doi.org/10.1051/e3sconf/201912522002>
- Suryanarayana, M., & Kumar, V. (2018). Career growth in retailing—Employees' perspective. In *Proceedings of Second National Conference on Emerging Trends in Computer Applications and Management—NCETCAM* (Vol. 12).
- Suttikun, C., Chang, H. J., & Bicksler, H. (2018). A qualitative exploration of day spa therapists' work motivations and job satisfaction. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 34, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2017.10.013>
- Swain, R. M., & Pierce, A. C. (2017). *The armed forces officer*. Government Printing Office.

- Taiye, B. H., Kehinde, B. H., Abdul, M., & Mustapha, H. B. (2019). Occupational stress and job satisfaction among nurse educators in Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. *Journal of Education, Society and Behavioural Science*, 29(4), 1–9.  
<https://doi.org/10.9734/jesbs/2019/v29i430116>
- Tan, H. R. (2019). Did military service during World War I affect the economic status of American veterans? *Explorations in Economic History*, 75 101301.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eeh.2019.101301>
- Tavacıoğlu, L., Taç, U., Eski, Ö., & Gökmen, N. (2019). Burnout and job satisfaction among Turkish oceangoing seafarers. *International Maritime Health*, 70(4), 232–238. <https://doi.org/10.5603/IMH.2019.0037>
- Taylor, R. L., Rosenbach, W. E., & Rosenbach, E. B. (Eds.). (2018). *Military leadership: In pursuit of excellence*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429495007>
- Thompson, G., & Glasø, L. (2018). Situational leadership theory: A test from a leader-follower congruence approach. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 39(5), 574–591. <https://doi.org/10.1108/lodj-01-2018-0050>
- Thompson, G., & Vecchio, R. P. (2009). Situational leadership theory: A test of three versions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(5), 837–848.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.06.014>
- Tynan, M. P., Prabhakar, G., & Nisar, T. (2019). *A qualitative review of the contribution of military leadership to the humanitarian supply chain operations* [Paper presentation]. 3rd IEOM European International Conference on Industrial Engineering and Operations Management, Pilsen, Czech Republic. <https://uwe-repository.worktribe.com/output/845935>

- Udom, A. O. (2017). *Virtual team success: The impact of leadership style and project management experience* (Publication No. 10608700) [Doctoral dissertation, Walden University]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.
- U.S. Department of Veteran Affairs. (2012). Active duty vs. reserve or national guard. [https://www.va.gov/vetsinworkplace/docs/em\\_activereserve.html](https://www.va.gov/vetsinworkplace/docs/em_activereserve.html)
- U.S. Navy. (2019). *Navy leader development framework: Version 3.0*. <https://media.defense.gov/2020/May/18/2002302036/-1/-1/1/NLDF3MAY19.PDF>
- Valor-Segura, I., Navarro-Carrillo, G., Extremera, N., Lozano, L. M., García-Guiú, C., Roldán-Bravo, M. I., & Ruiz-Moreno, A. (2020). Predicting job satisfaction in military organizations: Unpacking the relationship between emotional intelligence, teamwork communication, and job attitudes in Spanish military cadets. *Frontiers in Psychology, 11*. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.00875>
- van Dierendonck, D. (2011). Servant leadership: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management, 37*(4), 1228–1261. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310380462>
- Vecchio, R. P., Bullis, R. G., & Brazil, D. M. (2006). The utility of situational leadership theory: A replication in a military setting. *Small Group Research, 37*(5), 407–424. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1046496406291560>
- Vogt, D., Perkins, D. F., Copeland, L. A., Finley, E. P., Jamieson, C. S., Booth, B., & Gilman, C. L. (2018). The veteran's metrics initiative study of USN veterans' experiences during their transition from military service. *British Medical Journal Open, 8*(6), e020734. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2017-020734>

- von Fischer, P., & De Jong, D. (2017). The relationship between teacher perception of principal servant leadership behavior and teacher job satisfaction. *Servant Leadership: Theory & Practice*, 4(2), Article 14.  
<https://csuepress.columbusstate.edu/sltp/vol4/iss2/14>
- Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. Wiley.
- Wang, Z., Xu, H., & Liu, Y. (2018). Servant leadership as a driver of employee service performance: Test of a trickle-down model and its boundary conditions. *Human Relations*, 71(9), 1179–1203.  
<https://espace.curtin.edu.au/bitstream/handle/20.500.11937/69967/268031.pdf?sequence=2>
- Warren, W. (2012). *Leadership qualities for the 21st century examination of servant and transformational leadership*. LEMIT Papers. Huntsville, TX: Sam Houston State University, Law Enforcement Management Institute of Texas. <https://shsu-ir.tdl.org/handle/20.500.11875/1835>
- Weber, M. (1947). *The theory of social and economic organisation*. The Free Press.
- Wegman, L. A., Hoffman, B. J., Carter, N. T., Twenge, J. M., & Guenole, N. (2018). Placing job characteristics in context: Cross-temporal meta-analysis of changes in job characteristics since 1975. *Journal of Management*, 44(1), 352–386.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316654545>
- Weiss, D. J., Dawis, R. V., England, G. W., & Lofquist, L. H. (1967). *Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire*. University of Minnesota, Industrial Relations Center. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1968-08111-001>

- Williams, D. U., Okon, E., & Onibasa, T. (2018). The utility of military force and the global war on terror (GWOT): Strategic or tactical? *Journal of Humanities and Social Policies*, 4(2), 1–11.
- Wilson, P. H. (2008). Defining military culture. *Journal of Military History*, 72(1), 11–41. <https://doi.org/10.1353/jmh.2008.0041>
- Wong, L., Bliese, P., & McGurk, D. (2003). Military leadership: A context specific review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14(6), 657–692.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.08.001>
- Wong, P. T., & Davey, D. (2007, July). *Best practices in servant leadership*. Address presented at the Servant Leadership Research Roundtable, School of Global Leadership and Entrepreneurship, Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA.  
<http://www.drpaulwong.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/wong-davey-2007-best-practices-in-servant-leadership.pdf>
- Yammarino, F. J., Spangler, W. D., & Bass, B. M. (1993). Transformational leadership and performance: A longitudinal investigation. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 4(1), 81–102. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843\(93\)90005-e](https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(93)90005-e)
- Yang, Z., Zhang, H., Kwan, H. K., & Chen, S. (2018). Crossover effects of servant leadership and job social support on employee spouses: The mediating role of employee organization-based self-esteem. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 147(3), 595–604. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2943-3>



- Yeboah-Assiamah, E., Asamoah, K., & Adams, S. (2019). Transdisciplinary public leadership theory: Between the extremes of “traditional public administration” and “new public management.” *Journal of Public Affairs*, 19(1), e1887. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.1887>
- Yousaf, S. (2020). Dissection of Herzberg’s two-factor theory to predict job satisfaction: empirical evidence from the telecommunication industry of Pakistan. *The Lahore Journal of Business*, 8(2), 85–128. <https://doi.org/10.35536/ljb.2019.v8.v2.a4>
- Yukl, G., Mahsud, R., Prussia, G., & Hassan, S. (2019). Effectiveness of broad and specific leadership behaviors. *Personnel Review*, 48(1), 774–783. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-03-2018-0100>

## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A

### Servant Leadership Measures

1

#### **Servant Leadership Measures (SL-28 and SL-7)**

Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multilevel assessment. *Leadership Quarterly*, 19, 161-177. [original scale development research]

**Section A. In the following set of questions, think of \_\_\_\_\_, your immediate supervisor or manager (or team leader); that is, the person to whom you report directly and who rates your performance. If the person listed above is not your immediate supervisor, please notify a member of our research team.**

**Please select your response from Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 7 presented below and enter the corresponding number in the space to the left of each question.**

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Neutral 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
___ 1.						
___ 2.						
___ 3.						
___ 4.						
___ 5.						
___ 6.						
___ 7.						
___ 8.						
___ 9.						
___ 10.						
___ 11.						
___ 12.						
___ 13.						
___ 14.						
___ 15.						
___ 16.						
___ 17.						
___ 18.						
___ 19.						
___ 20.						
___ 21.						
___ 22.						
___ 23.						

- my manager first.
- \_\_\_24. My manager wants to know about my career goals.
- \_\_\_25. My manager does whatever she/he can to make my job easier.
- \_\_\_26. My manager values honesty more than profits.
- \_\_\_27. My manager can recognize when I'm disappointed without asking me.
- \_\_\_28. I am encouraged by my manager to volunteer in the community.

**Item Key (SL-28)**

Item #s	Reference/comments
1, 8, 15, 22	Servant Leadership: Conceptual skills
2, 9, 16, 23	Servant Leadership: Empowering: our items
3, 10, 17, 24	Servant Leadership: Helping subordinates grow and. Item #3 is adapted from Ehrhart, PPSych, Spring, 2004
4, 11, 18, 25	Servant Leadership Putting subordinates first. Items #11 and #18 adopted from Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006 G&OM.
5, 12, 19, 26	Servant Leadership: Ethical Behavior. Item #5 is adapted from Ehrhart, PPSych, Spring, 2004.
6, 13, 20, 27	Servant Leadership: Emotional healing
7, 14, 21, 28	Servant Leadership: Creating value for the community. Item #7 is adopted from Ehrhart, PPSych, Spring, 2004

**Item Key for SL-7 (short form)**

Item #s	Reference/comments
1, 3, 6, 7, 11, 16, 19	Servant Leadership short form (SL-7): Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J., Meuser, J.D., Hu, J., Wu, J., & Liao, C. (2015). Servant Leadership: Validation of a Short Form of the SL-28. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 26, 254-269. - also used in: Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J., Liao, C., & Meuser, J.D. (2014). Servant leadership and serving culture: Influence on individual and unit performance. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 57, 1434-1452.


- \_\_\_1. My manager can tell if something work-related is going wrong.
- \_\_\_2. My manager makes my career development a priority.
- \_\_\_3. I would seek help from my manager if I had a personal problem.
- \_\_\_4. My manager emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community.
- \_\_\_5. My manager puts my best interests ahead of his/her own.
- \_\_\_6. My manager gives me the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way that I feel is best.
- \_\_\_7. My manager would **not** compromise ethical principles in order to achieve success.

## APPENDIX B

### Permission to Use the Servant Leadership Questionnaire

RL

Robert Liden <bobliden@uic.edu>  
Wed 6/30/2021 9:27 AM  
To: Jocelyn Johanssen

 servant leadership scale....  
24 KB

▼

Dear Jocelyn,

Yes, you may use our scale and it is attached. It is good that you plan to examine each dimension separately. As you know, most researchers have only analyzed overall/global servant leadership.

Best of luck with your research,

Bob

...

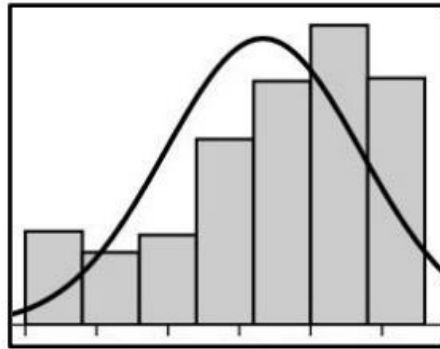
**Liden, Robert C.**

Professor of Management and Associate Dean for CBA Doctoral Program  
University Scholar  
UIC Business  
The University of Illinois at Chicago  
601 S. Morgan, Room Number 2232, MC 243  
Chicago, IL 60607

APPENDIX C

**Job Description Index (JDI)**

**THE  
JOB DESCRIPTIVE  
INDEX**



2009 Revision

*including*

**The Job in General Scale**

**BGSU<sup>®</sup>**

---

**Bowling Green State University**

### People on Your Present Job

Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes the people with whom you work  
N for "No" if it does not describe them  
? for "?" if you cannot decide

- .....
- ☐ Stimulating
  - ☐ Boring
  - ☐ Slow
  - ☐ Helpful
  - ☐ Stupid
  - ☐ Responsible
  - ☐ Likeable
  - ☐ Intelligent
  - ☐ Easy to make enemies
  - ☐ Rude
  - ☐ Smart
  - ☐ Lazy
  - ☐ Unpleasant
  - ☐ Supportive
  - ☐ Active
  - ☐ Narrow interests
  - ☐ Frustrating
  - ☐ Stubborn

### Job in General

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes your job  
N for "No" if it does not describe it  
? for "?" if you cannot decide

- .....
- ☐ Pleasant
  - ☐ Bad
  - ☐ Great
  - ☐ Waste of time
  - ☐ Good
  - ☐ Undesirable
  - ☐ Worthwhile
  - ☐ Worse than most
  - ☐ Acceptable
  - ☐ Superior
  - ☐ Better than most
  - ☐ Disagreeable
  - ☐ Makes me content
  - ☐ Inadequate
  - ☐ Excellent
  - ☐ Rotten
  - ☐ Enjoyable
  - ☐ Poor

Work on Present Job	Pay
<p>Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write</p>	<p>Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write</p>
<p><u>Y</u> for "Yes" if it describes your work  <u>N</u> for "No" if it does not describe it  <u>?</u> for "?" if you cannot decide</p>	<p><u>Y</u> for "Yes" if it describes your pay  <u>N</u> for "No" if it does not describe it  <u>?</u> for "?" if you cannot decide</p>
<p>.....</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Fascinating</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Routine</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Satisfying</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Boring</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Good</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Gives sense of accomplishment</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Respected</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Exciting</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Rewarding</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Useful</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Challenging</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Simple</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Repetitive</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Creative</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Dull</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Uninteresting</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Can see results</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Uses my abilities</li> </ul>	<p>.....</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Income adequate for normal expenses</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Fair</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Barely live on income</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Bad</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Comfortable</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Less than I deserve</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Well paid</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Enough to live on</li> <li><input type="checkbox"/> Underpaid</li> </ul>

(Go on to next page)



---

**Opportunities for Promotion**

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion  
N for "No" if it does not describe them  
? for "?" if you cannot decide
- .....

- ☐ Good opportunities for promotion
- ☐ Opportunities somewhat limited
- ☐ Promotion on ability
- ☐ Dead-end job
- ☐ Good chance for promotion
- ☐ Very limited
- ☐ Infrequent promotions
- ☐ Regular promotions
- ☐ Fairly good chance for promotion

**Supervision**

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes the supervision you get on the job  
N for "No" if it does not describe it  
? for "?" if you cannot decide
- .....

- ☐ Supportive
- ☐ Hard to please
- ☐ Impolite
- ☐ Praises good work
- ☐ Tactful
- ☐ Influential
- ☐ Up-to-date
- ☐ Unkind
- ☐ Has favorites
- ☐ Tells me where I stand
- ☐ Annoying
- ☐ Stubborn
- ☐ Knows job well
- ☐ Bad
- ☐ Intelligent
- ☐ Poor planner
- ☐ Around when needed
- ☐ Lazy

---

(Go on to back page)