

**Assessing Servant Leadership and its Relationship with Employee Morale
and Organizational Commitment in the U.S. Marine Corps**

Norris Wise

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of

The Chicago School of Professional Psychology

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Organizational Leadership

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I am grateful to Dr. Thomas W. Britt for permission to use the Morale Scale (Britt et al., 2007, 2013; Britt & Dickinson, 2006; Ivey et al., 2015). See letter of permission in Appendix G.

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Dedication

2020 has been a challenging year for many, particularly due to the pandemic (COVID-19). I also lost two grandparents this year, so I dedicate this dissertation in their honor/memory.

Abstract

Various leadership taxonomies such as transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and charismatic leadership have provided sufficient explanation for their leadership approach, but research has posited that most leadership theories (models) highlight the leader's role in ensuring that subordinates serve the organization to achieve its goals (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011), which can have a negative impact on employee morale and organizational commitment. Servant leadership focuses on the needs of its followers by investing in their well-being first. This dissertation assessed servant leadership characteristics to determine its relationship with employee morale and organizational commitment in the U.S. Marine Corps by examining two research questions: (1) What is the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and employee morale among Marine Corps personnel? and (2) What is the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel? Using a quantitative, nonexperimental, cross-sectional design, data were analyzed for 154 participants using the Servant Leadership Questionnaire, Morale Scale, and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. Employing a hierarchical multiple regression, no statistical significance was found for the servant leadership characteristics. However, statistical significance was found for servant leadership overall, suggesting the efficacy of the construct in relation to the dependent variables used in this research. Moreover, within a Marine Corps setting, the study confirmed existing research on servant leadership as a viable leadership approach to improve the level of subordinate-employee morale and organizational commitment. The results, implications, and future research are discussed.

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Chapter 1: Nature of the Study

Chapter 1 highlights the importance of morale as well as organizational commitment and introduces servant leadership as a potential measure for the military, particularly the U.S. Marine Corps. The background as well as the rationale is provided, including the problem statement, research questions, and hypotheses to guide the study. The chapter concludes with a proposition that not only enhances the lack of research in this organizational setting but proffers a model that explains the influence of servant leadership on employee morale and organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel.

Background

One of the most significant challenges within organizations is the ability to sustain the morale of its employees (Brode, 2012). This requires organizations to be engaged with its most valuable asset, its people (Amabile & Kramer, 2011). Without this perspective, morale suffers, which can have a direct impact on productivity (Kennedy, 1995). Morale is a broadly defined, intangible concept, referring to how positive and supportive a group feels towards the organization and the unique feelings group members share (Haddock, 2010). Ngambi (2011) identified specific characteristics such as “trust, self-worth, purpose, pride in one’s achievement, and faith in the leadership and organizational success” (p. 764). Prasad and Maran (2013) exclaimed that “morale affects the output—the quality of the product, costs, co-operation, discipline, enthusiasm, initiative and other aspects of success” (p. 21). Britt et al. (2007) believed that “morale is best predicted by work conditions and leadership behaviors that provide the individual with purpose, meaningfulness, confidence, and/or optimism” (p. 36). In particular, Arunchand and Ramanathan (2013) defined employee morale as the relationship an employee or group members have with their work—and the organizations they work for—including the

“overall outlook, attitude, satisfaction, and confidence that employees feel at work” (p. 1). Seroka (2009; as cited in Ngambi, 2011) included “the general level of confidence or optimism experienced by a person or a group of people, especially if it affects discipline and willingness” (p.764). Key factors affecting employee morale include the “nature of work, working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relations, management policies, and personal factors of the employee” (Prasad & Maran, 2013, p. 22). Finger (2005) argued that employee morale is heavily influenced from the top and flows downward, not from the bottom up.

Used extensively “by the military as a mission-critical measure of the psychological readiness of troops, high morale has been shown to be a powerful driver of performance in all organizations” (“Employee Morale,” 2017). This psychological state is shared by group members and “comprises the general feelings of satisfaction with conditions that have impacted the group and the strong motivation to accomplish group objectives despite obstacles or adversity” (Osman et al., 2018, p. 1174).

Arunchand and Ramanathan (2013) suggested that the psychological state of members/employees mediated by its conditions has an impact on the level of morale; for example, when employees exhibit a high level of morale, it is an indication of satisfaction that is reflected in work production, but conversely, “low employee morale results in less productivity” (p. 1). Low or high employee morale is made up of a combination of related factors, including “changes in the internal and external environment and the leadership approach taken in responding to those changes” (Ngambi, 2011, p. 764). Ngambi (2011) exclaimed that “in order to improve the esprit de corps of a group—the morale of each individual in the group must be improved, which is best achieved through the personal missionary work of the manager” (p. 765). As such, leaders have a critical role in influencing subordinates’ outlook in the workplace

or organizational settings. Fink (n.d.) posited that applying the characteristics of servant leadership could lead to higher employee morale and commitment due to its focus on its followers and/or subordinate-employees within the organization.

Problem Statement

Existing leadership models or theories such as transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and charismatic leadership have provided sufficient explanation for their leadership approach, but the problem is that “most leadership theories and models highlight the leader’s role in getting followers to serve and support the organization willingly and participate actively in goal attainment” (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011, p. 49). Ojokuku et al. (2012) posited that “leadership [should] focus on the development of followers and their needs” (p. 202). De Waal and Sivro (2012) intimated that today’s organizations are looking for “people-centered leaders” (p. 173) to deal with employees as well as those with values to facilitate good performance. Schaefer (2019) exclaimed that when employees feel underappreciated and that their only purpose is to serve the organization, “you have amplified the root cause of low employee morale and it’s going to cost you big time” (para. 3).

Abbott (2003) found that “satisfied employees have positive energy and a willingness to give good service” (p. 334), which increases satisfaction and company loyalty, an important part of organizational commitment. Jordan’s (2015) study of U.S. Navy personnel revealed that servant leadership has a strong correlation among service members in terms of job satisfaction (a component of employee morale), but more research is recommended due to a lack of research regarding servant leadership across the military. As a component of the Department of the Navy, the United States Marine Corps acts as a branch of the United States Armed Forces, responsible for conducting amphibious operations with the United States Navy (Krulak, 1996). Research has

posited that servant leadership positively impacts organizational settings, and Georges (2015) noted that servant leadership is at the heart of the Marine Corps. This research contributes to the body of knowledge needed to address the problem empirically by focusing on servant leadership and its relationship with employee morale and organizational commitment within this organizational setting.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between servant leadership and employee morale and organizational commitment. In particular, the study investigated the characteristics (behaviors) of servant leadership that can help explain, if any, the relationship between employee morale and organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses guided the study:

Research Question (RQ) 1: What is the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and employee morale among U.S. Marine Corps personnel?

H₀1: There is no relationship between Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics and their subordinate-employees' level of morale.

H_a1: Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics will have a positive relationship with their subordinate-employees' level of morale.

Research Question (RQ) 2: What is the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and organizational commitment (affective) among U.S. Marine Corps personnel?

H₀2: There is no relationship between Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics with their subordinate-employees' organizational commitment.

H_{a2}: Marine leaders who exhibit the servant leadership characteristics will have a positive relationship with their subordinate-employees' organizational commitment.

Theoretical Framework

Servant leadership is based on the theory that a servant-leader is a servant first. Robert Greenleaf's (1970/2008) work, stated: "The servant-leader is servant first; it begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first—then the process brings a conscious choice to want to lead, afterwards" (p. 15). A servant-leader is unique from the individual who wants to lead first, "perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions" (Greenleaf, 1970/2008, p. 15). The latter will choose to serve after a leadership position is established and, therefore, the two "leader-first and servant-first" (Greenleaf, 1970/2008, p.15) operate on opposite ends of the spectrum. Moreover, the distinction is viewed in the care and concern taken by the "servant-first to ensure that other people's highest priority needs are being served" (Greenleaf, 1970/2008, p. 15).

To augment Greenleaf's (1970/2008) concept, various scholars have identified characteristics to explicate servant leadership; for example, Spear's (2010) developed 10 characteristics believed to be "central to the development of servant-leaders" (p. 27), including listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of the people, and building community. Germane to this study, Liden et al. (2008) synthesized seven dimensions of servant leadership behaviors (see Figure 1) with the highest realm from its original metrics to offset those proposed by various studies and measurements (e.g., Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Page & Wong, 2000; Spears, 2004), including emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, and behaving ethically. Thus, servant

leadership has “unique behavioral patterns and attitudinal aspects which are distinct from other related leadership concepts and, thus, accounts for a broad spectrum of positive outcomes even after controlling other aspects of leadership” (Rivkin et al., 2014, p. 4).

Figure 1

Dimensions of Servant Leadership



Note. Adapted from “Servant Leadership: Development of a Multidimensional Measure and Multi-Level Assessment,” by Liden et al., 2008, *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(2), 161–177. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.01.006>

Page and Wong (2000) posited that servant leadership is more than just being a service-oriented person in the traditional notion of servanthood: A servant-leader’s chief purpose for leading is to serve others, by investing in their growth and well-being for the accomplishment of organizational tasks and goals for the common good (Page & Wong, 2000). The impact of servant leadership is geared toward the needs of its followers to attain organizational goals or objectives (Wong, 2004). Moreover, organizational commitment is germane to an employee’s state of commitment in supporting organizational goals, which involves identity levels, activity,

and allegiance; this devotion or state is an “emotional response that can be measured through people’s behaviors, beliefs, and attitudes and can range anywhere from very low to very high” (Caught & Shadur, 2000, p. 3).

Scope of the Study

This nonexperimental study was employed with Marine Corps personnel as participants to assess whether servant leadership characteristics affect employee morale and organizational commitment. Thus, the study was limited to the behavioral characteristics of servant leadership, with its applicability on personnel serving in the U. S. Marine Corps within the state of California. Additionally, no civilian personnel employed at this organization were allowed to participate in the research study.

Definition of Key Terms

Behaving ethically. Interacting openly, fairly, and honestly with others (Liden et al., 2008).

Conceptual skills. Possessing knowledge of the organization and tasks to be accomplished, and effectively supporting and assisting others, especially immediate followers (Liden et al., 2008).

Creating value for the community. A conscious, genuine concern for helping the community (Liden et al., 2008).

Emotional healing. Demonstrating sensitivity to other concerns (Liden et al., 2008).

Employee morale. The relationship between an employee or member of a group with work and the organization they for, including the “overall outlook, attitude, satisfaction, and confidence that employees feel at work” (Arunchand & Ramanathan, 2013, p. 1), as well as a

member's "motivation and enthusiasm for accomplishing work objectives" (Britt et al., 2007, 2013).

Empowering. Encouraging and facilitating others, especially immediate followers, in identifying and solving problems and determining when and how to complete work tasks (Liden et al., 2008).

Helping subordinates grow and succeed. Demonstrating genuine concern for others' career growth and development by providing support and mentoring (Liden et al., 2008).

Organizational commitment. Employee's state of commitment to support the organization's goals, which involves identity levels, activity, and allegiance (Caught & Shadur, 2000).

Putting subordinates first. Using actions and words to make it clear to others, especially immediate followers, that satisfying their work needs is a priority (Liden et al., 2008).

Servant leadership. "Servant leaders, by definition, place the needs of their subordinates before their own needs and center their efforts on helping subordinates grow to reach their maximum potential and achieve optimal organizational and career success" (Liden et al., 2008, p. 163).

Significance of the Study

A growing body of research has begun akin to servant leadership in the military, but empirical studies regarding the leadership taxonomy is deficient in the U.S. Marine Corps. This research contributes to the empirical development of servant leadership, as well as the influence of servant leadership on employee morale and organizational commitment within the examined Marine Corps setting, to facilitate a better understanding of the servant leadership model within a

military context as well as assess its implications as a potential measure for improving organizational outcomes.

Summary

Chapter 1 presented the background, problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions, theoretical framework, scope of the study, definitions, and significance of the study. Chapter 2 includes a review of the topic's literature germane to the study. Chapter 3 presents the research design and methodology, including the instrumentation/measurements used for the study. Chapter 4 presents the results summary, and Chapter 5 includes a discussion of the findings and implications for servant leadership as a potential measure in the U.S. Marine Corps.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this research was to assess the relationship between servant leadership and employee morale, as well as the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment, among military personnel in the U.S. Marine Corps. This chapter provides a synthesis of the relevant research, including a review of leadership studies, servant leadership, charismatic leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, leadership and satisfaction, servant leadership and satisfaction in the military, employee morale, servant leadership and employee morale, servant leadership and employee morale, organizational commitment, and servant leadership and organizational commitment.

Research Strategy

A literature review was conducted using secondary sources to gain an understanding of the literature and its significance of the topic available through The Chicago School of Professional Psychology Online Library, ProQuest, PsycINFO, Academic Journals, articles, books, Google, and Google Scholar. The search criteria included military, military personnel, U.S. Marine Corps, servant leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, employee morale, morale, satisfaction, commitment, and organizational commitment. After reviewing/analyzing the resources, those requisite to study were included the literature review.

Leadership Studies

Since the inception of the trait theory, behavioral theory, and contingency theory—through a continuum of excellence and transformational theories that focused on leadership as an organizational quality (Getzels, 1977)—the concept of leadership has grown. In fact, the notion of leadership and its various traits have expanded since the early 1900s, as its utility predicated

itself on the environment, motivation, goals, values, aspirations, focus, and conditions. The descriptors of leadership have emphasized specific characteristics, behaviors, processes, assignments, and emergence—contrasting the effects of leadership and power, leadership and coercion, and leadership and management (Northouse, 2016). Leadership has been broadly defined: Northouse (2016) suggested that there are a variety of ways to finish the sentence: “Leadership...” (p. 2). Stogdill (1974) argued that there are as “many definitions of leadership as there are people” (p. 7), but most scholars agree that the concept of leadership involves some form of influence over followers for the accomplishment of a goal.

Hickman (2010) described leadership as “a structure of action that engages persons to varying degrees throughout the levels and among the interstices of society” (p. 66). However, it is these narrow spaces (interstices) that are used figuratively to identify gaps of the world, and where there is a void, leadership fills those spaces through a process whereby an “individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2016, p. 6). Scholars and practitioners remain vigilant in an attempt to develop and apply leadership in ways that are results oriented, but as businesses evolve and become more complex, organizations strive to maintain a competitive advantage by seeking leaders who possess qualities to accommodate change and influence subordinates positively and productively.

Servant Leadership

Van Dierendonck (2011) acknowledged that servant leadership is positioned as a new field of research for leadership scholars, and compared to other leadership styles where the ultimate goal is ensuring the success and well-being of the organization, a servant leader is genuinely concerned with serving its followers. It is unique from other leadership taxonomies in that servant leadership places oneself as a “steward or servant” (Hickman, 2010, p. 64). Albeit, it

does have religious overtones and can be traced back to Christianity—the idea of servant leadership is enduring. In fact, Valeri (2007) stated:

Traces of it can be found in the Bible (e.g., Mark 10: “He who would be great among you must be the servant of all”) as well as the writings of Plato, Aristotle, and many other great thinkers through the ages. (p. 8)

Valeri (2007) posited that “in truth, the origins of servant leadership date back thousands of years in both Eastern and Western philosophy” (p. 8). Further, “Greenleaf’s contribution...is his recognition of and focus on the connection of the servant theme to that of leadership (p. 8). It was Robert Greenleaf who “coined” the phrase when he first published *The Servant as Leader* in 1970, which characterized the leader as a servant first (Greenleaf, 1970/2008). The concept evolved from his reading Herman Hesse’s story entitled “Journey to the East,” where the primary figure, Leo, accompanied the group during the journey, conducting menial tasks as he kept everyone’s spirits uplifted with songs. His presence made a considerable difference until he disappears, and the group falls into disorder and diminished without him. As the journey proceeds, the narrator finds Leo and is brought into the “Order” that was surety for the trip—only to find that Leo is the head of the Order (Greenleaf, 1970/2008). In his proposal, Greenleaf (1970/2008) stated: “My thesis, that more servants should emerge as leaders, or should follow only servant-leaders is not a popular one” (p. 12). He went on to posit that it is easier to acquiesce to a less demanding point of view. As a critical evaluation, Greenleaf proffered:

The best test, and difficult to administer, is do those served grow as persons; do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or, at least, will they not be further deprived? (p. 15)

Over time, scholars added addendums to the concept: For example, Abid et al. (2015) posited that servant leadership focuses on the betterment of its followers over the selfishness of the leader in that servant leaders lead by serving those who follow the leader. Thus, the central focus of servant leadership is “valuing and development of people, the building of community, the practice of authenticity...the sharing of power between leaders and followers” (p. 234) to benefit all parties—the organization as a whole and the community at large (Abid et al, 2015; Gordon, 2007). Hickman (2010) suggested that servant leaders look to grow those they serve and, in turn, “pave the way to provide support for participants to function at the best” (p. 64). Parris and Peachy (2012) believed that the servant leadership theory focuses on service to others and acknowledged that the purpose of organizations is to produce individuals who can transcend the future, which “resonates with scholars and practitioners who are responding to the growing perceptions that corporate leaders have become selfish and who are seeking a viable leadership theory to help resolve the challenges of the twenty-first century” (p. 378).

Notwithstanding its nobility, servant leadership is not without criticism. Andersen (2009) conducted research regarding the concept of servant leadership from a business administration and management perspective. The research offered criticality on the conceptual and empirically usefulness of servant leadership when applied to business enterprises and public agencies. The relationship between servant leadership and organizational goal attainment (effectiveness) were highlighted and the results concluded that the writings on servant leadership revealed that no generally accepted definition of servant leadership is available and no generally accepted instrument for measuring servant leadership is known. Further, it is uncertain whether servant leadership is predicated on personality or conceived on a set of behaviors; it is also unknown

whether there exists an acute contrast between servant leaders and those who are not, or whether one can be a servant leader to varying degrees (Andersen, 2009).

Andersen (2009) purported that the positive effects of servant leadership on organizational outcomes have not been empirically established and, in order to advance the theory, a definition is needed that clarifies both the concept of servant leadership as either a behavioral pattern or personality trait that defines the concept as a matter of kind or degree; for example, is servant leadership a philosophy, practice, or both? With a generally accepted definition of servant leadership, an instrument can be developed and tested scientifically. Moreover, the instrument will aid in investigating the effects of servant leadership on organizational outcomes in which consideration highly relevant to management becomes possible. Andersen suggested that the processes of leadership involve achieving results with and through others, and because servant leaders do not concentrate their efforts on attaining the goals set by the owners, they can hardly achieve them.

However, Van Dierendonck (2011) suggested that faulty and/or subjective interpretations regarding servant leadership measurements were noted due to a lack of operationalization. Laub (1999) developed an initial measurement through a comprehensive review of the literature and through the use of a Delphi survey—given the high correlations between the means on the cluster measures (Laub, 1999), questions arose regarding six dimensions (e.g., Develops People, Shares Leadership, Displays Authenticity, Values People, Providing leadership, and Builds Community) and the overall score was recommended for further research. Page and Wong (2000) included the Servant Leadership Profile, of which the biggest concern was factorial validity (Dirk, 2011). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) produced a measurement instrument that focused on the 10 characteristics noted by Spears (2010), which added an 11th servant leadership

trait to prove the reliability of various traits but concerns regarding its dimensions and replicability in South Africa demonstrated the instrument was one-dimensional. Sendjaya et al. (2008) developed an instrument which identified 35 items that represented 22 traits over six measurements, and the researchers tested single measurements of each of the breakdowns of the noted characteristics of servant leadership and measurement dimensions. Table 1 shows characteristics of servant leadership, measurement dimensions, and the relevant authors who have contributed to the servant leadership theory within a particular timeframe.

Table 1*Key Characteristics of Servant Leadership Related to Measurement Dimensions*

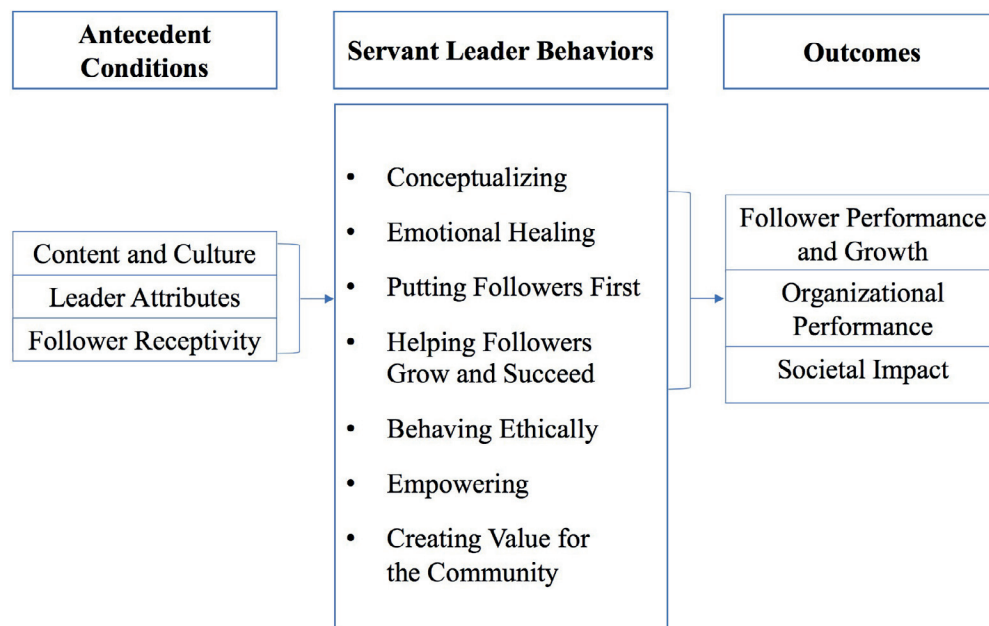
Key characteristics	Laub (1999)	Wong & Davey (2007)	Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)	Dennis & Bocarnea (2005)	Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson (2008)	Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora (2008)	Van Dierendonck & Nuijten (in press)
Empowering and developing people	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develops people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Serving and developing others • Consulting and involving others 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empowerment • Trust 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empowering • Helping subordinates grow and succeed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transforming influence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empowerment
Humility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shares leadership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Humility and selflessness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Altruistic calling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Humility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Putting subordinates first 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voluntary subordination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Humility • Standing back
Authenticity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Displays authenticity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modeling integrity and authenticity 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authentic self • Transcendental spirituality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authenticity
Interpersonal acceptance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Values people 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional healing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agapao love 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional healing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Covenantal relationship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Forgiveness
Providing direction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing leadership 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inspiring and influencing others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive mapping 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conceptual skills 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Courage • Accountability
Stewardship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Builds community 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational stewardship • Wisdom 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creating value for the community • Behaving ethically 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsible morality 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stewardship

Note. Adapted from "Servant Leadership: A Review and Synthesis," by D. Van Dierendonck, 2011, *Journal of Management*, 37(4), pp. 1228–1261.

Parris and Peachey (2013; as cited in Washington et al., 2014) noted that “14 different instruments have been developed to examine servant leadership” (p. 12). As noted in the theoretical framework of Chapter 1, Liden et al. (2008, 2014; as cited in Northouse, 2016) developed a servant leadership model (see Figure 2) to clarify the leadership phenomenon by furnishing a framework to understand its intricacies, including conditions of antecedents, servant leader behaviors, and outcomes. Most servant leadership instruments “focus on the unit level of analysis, while only a few instruments (e.g., Liden et al., 2008) focus on the individual level of analysis” (Washington et al., 2014, p. 12).

Figure 2

Servant Leadership Framework



Note. Adapted from “Servant Leadership: Antecedents, Processes, And Outcomes,” by Liden et al., 2014, pp. 357–379. Copyright 2014 by Oxford University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199755615.013.018>

Charismatic Leadership

Charismatic leadership involves “a constellation of behaviors” (Hickman, 2010, p. 64) for those deemed visionaries. The Greek word for charisma means gift or grace, which suggests that individuals have been blessed with the ability to not only to create a vision but inspire others and facilitate the process by producing results. Bass (1960) and Etzioni (1961; as cited in Stone et al., 2004) “identified charisma as a form of personal power” (p. 356). Charismatic leaders have a “special power to attract and inspire followers through a compelling vision and perceptions of extraordinary capabilities” (p. 96). Stone et al. (2004) intimated that transformational leaders rely heavily upon charisma—as opposed to servant leaders—due to the risk of manipulation. Graham (1991) compared “Weberian charismatic authority, personal celebrity charisma, transformational leadership, and servant leadership and argued that charismatic leadership is the theoretical underpinning for each of these leadership models” (p. 25).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership, as posited by Burns (1978), involves an exchange of “valued things” (as cited in Hickman, 2010, p. 64) between two individuals. Thus, transactional leadership is a social exchange process between the follower and the leader, which “involves a number of reward-based transactions” (Bass et al., 1996; Burns, 1978; Graen & Scandura, 1987).

Hickman (2010) suggested that this exchange can be “between the leaders themselves or leaders and members with the organization” (p. 64), which promotes compliance and takes corrective action when needed. Burns theorized that leaders are either transformational or transactional, while other scholars “view leadership as a continuum with transactional leadership at one end and transformational at the other” (as cited in Stone et al., 2003, p. 350).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership, as opposed to transactional leadership, “occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (Hickman, 2010, p. 64). Transformational leadership inspires individuals to go beyond normal boundaries to achieve impossibilities that have not been realized. Smith et al. (2004) suggested that servant leadership leads to a development of a spiritual culture, but transformational leadership leads to a culture that is dynamic and empowered. The authors posited that environments prone to a higher level of change require the dynamic culture of a transformational leader, and a static environment could be served by the servant leader (Smith et al., 2004). Stone et al. (2003) believed that similarities between transformational leadership and servant leadership exist, but the differences in “practice may be a function of both the organizational context in which the leaders operate and the personal values of the leaders” (p. 356).

Leadership and Satisfaction

Michelle Ray (2018), leadership expert, keynote speaker, and key contributor to *Globe and Mail*: Globe Careers’ new Leadership Lab series, where executives and leadership experts posit advice regarding leadership and management issues, stated, “If you were to ask most managers about the importance of high morale to the bottom line, most would agree that happy individuals are more apt to make significant contributions to overall productivity” (Ray, 2018, para. 1). Ray intimated that individuals are drawn to an organization for its pay, benefits, and opportunities, but, ultimately, they remain because of the intangibles such as trust, respect, camaraderie, and appreciation. Although everyone contributes to a positive workplace atmosphere, it is “the leader who sets the tone and is ultimately accountable” (Ray, 2018, para.

3). The consequences of low morale in the workplace cannot be overstated, including job satisfaction, employee turnover and financial loss; therefore, “if it’s true that low morale results in higher costs, surely high morale can bolster the bottom line” (Ray, 2018, para. 3).

In addition to investigating morale, commitment, satisfaction, and perceptions among staff members in the College of Economic and Management Science (CEMS) at the University of South Africa, Ngambi’s (2011) study explored the relationship between leadership and morale. The quantitative study included a web-based survey that collected data from 604 staff members, achieving a 42.1% response rate. The results indicated an overall satisfaction index of 62 and CEMS leadership score of 61, which suggested that there is a relationship between leadership and morale (Ngambi, 2011). Moreover, the study found that “leadership competencies such as communication, fostering trust and team building set a clear direction for the college impact on morale and were important factors” (p. 1), but recommended that morale surveys should be used to acquire “requisite” information germane to “employee morale, retention, and performance” (Ngambi, 2011, p. 1). Ngambi’s study also revealed that “both internal and external factors affect employee morale and that there is a relationship between leadership and employee morale” (p. 773).

Whorton (2014) conducted a descriptive case study to explore how servant leadership influenced employee engagement within the United States offices of an international engineering consulting firm. The results revealed partial support for servant leadership’s effect on employee engagement in which there was not a statistically significant relationship between positive or negative leadership traits—as self-perceived by leaders and/or perceived by employees—as well as an overall servant leadership perception by employees and employee engagement. However, the correlation between leaders aggregated self-perceived leadership traits and employees’

engagement was close to significance level, which indicated that the way leaders feel and project as servant leaders in general may affect employees' engagement, although employees were not aware of this impact (Whorton, 2014). As noted, Britt and Dickinson (2006) argued that morale is best predicted by work conditions and leadership behaviors that provide the individual with purpose, meaningfulness, confidence, and/or optimism. The researchers examined two general classes of variables that should be related to purpose, meaningfulness, confidence, and optimism: engagement in meaningful work and confidence in unit functioning and leadership (Britt & Dickinson, 2006).

Servant Leadership and Satisfaction in the Military

In a military context, Earnhardt (2008) pioneered the first servant leadership study using Patterson's (2003) servant leadership construct and concluded that "alternate servant leadership models should be tested to unify the understanding of servant leadership" (p. 11). Craig (2013) conducted a quantitative study on leadership and job satisfaction in the military communities using two surveys: The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and an employee job satisfaction survey. The participants included military (i.e., U.S. Army garrisons in Europe) as well as Morale, Welfare and Recreation civilian leaders and employees that consisted of 381 participants, who completed the survey (out of a population of 1,800). With more integration of the civilian workforce in the Department of Defense, leaders are finding that leadership is not one-dimensional in terms of military members and that nonmilitary members play a significant role in organizational effectiveness. Core elements in the research included transactional leadership, passive/avoidance behavior, and transformational leadership, as no research existed during the time of exploration and query.

The results of the study indicated a statistically significant correlation between each element and employee job satisfaction. Additionally, the regression analysis noted different degrees of job satisfaction predictors, depending on the element or range of applicable leadership. Moreover, the study suggests that effective leadership plays a strong role in predicting employee satisfaction, particularly as an important component of organizational performance on military communities, and that the relationship between leaders and employees must be nurtured and emphasized to achieve job satisfaction and performance effectiveness (Craig, 2013). The study did not investigate employee demographics germane to the perception of leadership styles; thus, further research was recommended involving the comparisons of leaders and employees by the military to examine leadership styles at the installation level.

Jordan (2015) conducted a quantitative case study on servant leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Navy, which included an evaluative look and analyses at the principles of servant leadership and level of job satisfaction within a U.S. Navy reserve organization of 220 active duty and reserve members. The Organizational Leadership Assessment and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire surveys were used to collect the data. Analysis of Covariance was used to isolate the effect of rank from the correlation. Due to the fact that this was an evaluative study—which found that studies have a positive correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction—the researcher’s rationale for such a study was to demonstrate a positive correlation between overall job satisfaction, intrinsic job satisfaction, and extrinsic job satisfaction in a military organization.

The results indicated that a strong, positive correlation existed between servant leadership and job satisfaction in the organization. The author noted, “with a service-oriented mindset, servant leaders are able to not only improve morale but also build consensus and create

efficiencies, by improving teamwork, ownership, and employee skill sets” (Jordan, 2015, p. 118). Additional research is recommended, however, as Jordan (2015) suggested “analyzing the applicability of servant leadership in different types of military organizations” (p.118).

Employee Morale

Morale is a complex construct viewed through diverse perspectives. Research has suggested that employee morale is well known in the civilian populace; however, Britt et al. (2007) observed that “conceptualizations and operationalizations of morale in the civilian literature parallel the diversity found in the military literature” (p. 35). As a latent variable (not directly observed but inferred), Vandenberg et al. (1999) operationalized morale mirroring organizational commitment, job fulfillment, and employees’ intentions to leave. McKnight et al. (2001) defined employee morale as “the degree to which an employee feels good about his or her work environment” (p. 467), assessing morale by the level of pride in one’s work and commitment to the organization. In their study of U.S. Army personnel, Britt and Dickinson (2006) concluded that morale is “a service member’s level of motivation and enthusiasm for accomplishing mission objectives” (p. 162). Later, this conceptualization extended to a nonoperational work environment (Britt et al., 2013), which broadened the view of morale as a “positive construct that combines feeling of energy with feelings of enthusiasm for accomplishing salient tasks” (Britt et al., 2013, p. 95).

Morale is an important concept because it deals with an employee’s state of mind or “attitude toward his or her job, employer, and colleagues” (Tiwari, 2014, p. 8). Further, Tiwari (2014) stated:

Employee morale as the psychological state with respect to satisfaction, confidence and

resolve; the attitude of an individual or group of employees, resulting in courage, devotion and discipline; level of fulfillment one has with intrinsic work aspects, such as variety and challenge, feedback and learning, and space to grow and extrinsic circumstances of employment such as fair and adequate pay, job security, and health and safety. (p. 8)

Ngambi (2011) found that there is a nexus between leadership and those with leadership competencies such as communication, engendering trust, and teambuilding. However, it was recommended that morale surveys obtain specific information in terms of strategy development that is germane to “employee morale, retention, and performance” (p. 765). Moreover, Tiwari (2014) suggested that morale is directly related to productivity. In fact, research conducted by Siegel (1962) focused on understanding the factors responsible for high and low morale and its implications for various criteria in terms of industrial efficiency. The concept was based on the operational definition of morale: a combination of attitudes held by the employee toward his job, company, and immediate supervisor (Siegel, 1962). This predisposed temperament can be favorable or unfavorable; thus, Siegel suggested that a typical approach to the assessment of morale involved a kind of “averaging” of employee attitudes in several critical areas. Intuitively, an employee who is unfavorably disposed toward their job, their company, or their supervisor will lack a sense of company identification that is associated with high morale.

Siegel (1962) purported that the definition of morale as a composite of employee attitudes appears to miss two essential components of the concept. The development of high morale requires that employees hold favorable attitudes toward the job, the company, and the supervisor. And, members must share a feeling of communality, purpose, and group participation. Low morale makes employees susceptible to undesirable behaviors such as

absenteeism, turnover, and diminished productivity. And, although morale is not the sole factor underlying this criterion of industrial efficiency, Siegel (1962) posited that frequent problems presented to the psychologist as symptomatic of low morale prove to stem from deficiencies in other elements of the industrial configuration.

Arunchand and Ramanathan (2013) conducted a study on the relationship between organization culture and employee morale within the public-sector undertakings in Kerala, which is an entity that is generally divided between manufacturing and nonmanufacturing in the government of Kerala. The research objectives included: (a) evaluate the impact of organizational culture on the morale of employees of public sector undertakings, (b) examine the relationship between cultural level and morale of the employees, and (c) analyze the variance in morale among employee groups. The study found that there was no relationship between the culture of the organization and the morale of the employees but revealed that the culture that existed within public-sector undertakings is bureaucratic and that employees working in such a culture have lower morale. Moreover, it was hypothesized that low morale was related to the bureaucratic structure, but no relationship was found. Morale was also found within the same among all divisions, and males had higher morale than females (Arunchand & Ramanathan, 2013).

Matsaung (2015) conducted an empirical study to explore factors that may affect the morale of employees at the Greater Tzaneen Municipality in the public sector. The aim of the research was to conceptualize employee morale, determine the factors that affect morale, and investigate the level of morale. Overall, results of the study indicated a positive relationship between rewards, performance, commitment, compensation, and training and development and morale, with monetary rewards (salary) exerting a greater influence on morale than nonmonetary

rewards. Additionally, the author established that there is a strong correlation between performance management, communication, leadership, training and development, employee morale, and positive work attitudes (Matsaung, 2015). However, Matsaung acknowledged that demographic characteristics were shown not to have a discernable influence on morale in the workplace.

Arunachalamurthy (2015) conducted a descriptive research study to assess the level of employee morale at a manufacturing company based in Coimbatore. A 20-question survey was given to 255 employees, which included a combination of open- and closed-ended questions. Three objectives of the study included: (a) identify the employee morale level in the manufacturing company, (b) identify the attributes that impact employee morale, and (c) determine the satisfaction level of the employees in the attributes, such as wages and incentives, trust level, training and development programs, and social and working environment. Employees were classified into three groups: Grade 1 (top level), Grade 2 (middle level), and Grade 3 (low level). Basic percentages from statistical tools were used, including chi-square. Responses were codified based on the groups and findings, and the researcher concluded that “there is a direct and in-direct association between the employee morale and employee performance, which has a major impact on the production of the organization” (Arunachalamurthy, 2015, p. 1). Arunachalamurthy also found that “employee morale is an attitude of emotional readiness, which has an impact on the employee productivity” (p. 3) and “there is a need for continuous monitoring and improvement of employee morale in an organization to improve the organization’s productivity” (p. 3). Recommendations included various enhancement techniques, compensation, and appreciation for quality work and training methods for self-development.

Servant Leadership and Employee Morale

Carroll (2005) conducted a study on servant leadership in nonprofit organizations to determine if a servant as well as a leader could be fused into one person: a nonprofit manager. This qualitative study focused on what defines a servant leader, including the 10 traits of servant leadership and its application. The results concluded that: (a) “Servant-leaders are more centered on people than tasks” (p. 19), (b) “servant-leaders rely on convincing rather than coercing people” (p. 20), and (c) “stewardship should replace leadership” (p. 20). Lastly, Carroll noted that “one of the best ways to persuade others is with your ears” (p. 18).

Organizational Commitment

According to Parveen (2015), “Organizational commitment has been conceptualized and measured in a variety of ways” (p. 97). A tricomponent approach of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1987, as cited in Parveen, 2015, p. 97), includes three general themes—normative commitment, affective commitment, and continuance commitment—which reflect an overall attitudinal commitment. Allen and Meyer (1990) delineated affective and continuance by stating “that affective commitment is employee’s emotional attachment with the organization which compels him to identify himself with the organization whereas on the other hand continuance commitment is perceived costs associated with leaving the organization” (p. 2). Nyhan (1999) added, “Affective commitment implies a strong bond between an individual and the employing organization” (p. 59). However, these were based on the following: (a) “a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values,” (b) “a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization,” and (c) “a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization” (Nyhan, 1999, p. 59). Meyer and Allen (1987) noted that normative commitment presents a perceived obligation to stay in the organization.

Servant Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Joseph and Winston (2005) stated that “leaders shape organizational culture” and that trust is a key component of culture. Joseph and Winston also wrote, “Relationships are built on trust and service and are the basis for the influence of servant leadership” (p. 11). In their correlational study, Joseph and Winston found a “strong relationship between servant leadership and leader and organizational trust” (p. 11). The study used a cross-sectional survey consisting of the Organizational Leadership Assessment and the Organizational Trust Inventory, and the analysis yielded a positive correlation: The higher the employees’ perception of servant leadership, the higher the level of organizational trust.

The findings also provided outcomes for leaders and managers in that servant leaders have the potential to improve job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and other aspects of the organizational culture (Joseph & Winston, 2005). Sokoll’s (2013) quantitative, explorative study on the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment “culminated with a multiple regression analysis and provided strong support for the study’s hypothesis: there is a positive relationship between servant leadership behaviors of a supervisor and employee commitment to the supervisor” (p. 38). The study used a random, cross-sectional sample from a variety of employees from diverse industries, not including the military.

Summary

Chapter 2 provided an overview of the literature germane to leadership, servant leadership, leadership typologies, empirical studies, employee morale, and organizational commitment. Servant leadership is an emergent leadership theory, and while studies have affirmed its positive impact across organizational settings—indicating its plausibility akin to

employee morale and organizational commitment—there is lack of research among the military, particularly the U.S. Marine Corps. Chapter 3 outlines the methodology used to address this gap.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Method

A nonexperimental design was employed with military participants to assess the relationship between servant leadership and employee morale, as well as servant leadership and organizational commitment, in the U.S. Marine Corps. This chapter discusses the study's design and methodology, including the research questions, hypotheses and rationale, appropriateness of design, population and sample, procedures, validity, instrumentation, data processing, assumptions and limitations, and ethical assurances.

Research Questions, Hypotheses, and Rationale

As outlined in Chapter 1, the research questions explore the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and employee morale as well as servant leadership characteristics and organizational commitment within the U.S. Marine Corps. Positive correlations have been shown between servant leadership and employee morale in educational settings; however, this study examined the Marine Corps, which has not been extensively explored. Morris's (2013) study found that there was a positive relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment with junior officers in the U.S. Navy, but scarce literature exists on the U.S. Marine Corps, which acts as a branch working closely with naval forces conducting expeditionary operations. The research questions, hypotheses, and rationale include:

Research Question (RQ) 1: What is the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and employee morale among Marine Corps personnel?

H₀1: There is no relationship between Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics and their subordinate-employees' level of morale.

H_a1: Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics will have a positive relationship with their subordinate-employees' level of morale.

Rationale for H_{a1}: Substantial theory and research indicate that servant leadership has a positive effect on employee morale (e.g., Carroll, 2005; Craig, 2013; Jordan, 2015; Ngambi, 2011; Ray, 2018).

Statistical results needed to reject H_{o1}: Regression coefficient for at least one of the servant leadership characteristics effects on employee morale is significantly different from zero ($p < .05$).

Research Question (RQ) 2: What is the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel?

H_{o2}: There is no relationship between Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics with their subordinate-employees' organizational commitment.

H_{a2}: Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics will have a positive relationship with their subordinate-employees' organizational commitment.

Rationale for H_{a2}: Substantial theory and research indicate that servant leadership has a positive effect on organizational commitment (e.g., Joseph & Winston, 2005; Matsaung, 2015; Sokoll, 2013).

Statistical results needed to reject H_{o2}: Regression coefficient for at least one of the servant leadership characteristics effects on organizational commitment is significantly different from zero ($p < .05$).

Research Design and Appropriateness

Due to the novelty of the research, quantitative methods were used to enhance the lack of empirical data. Quantitative research “relies on the collection and analysis of numerical data to describe, explain, predict, or control variables and phenomena of interest” (Gay et al., 2012, p. 7). Creswell (2014) stated that “quantitative research is a means for testing objective theories by

examining the relationship among variables, which can be measured typically on instruments so that numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures” (p. 247). In particular, a quantitative, nonexperimental, cross-sectional design was used for this study. Cross-sectional designs seek to examine a specific population and capture the greatest number of respondents “at one specific point in time” (Cherry, 2019, para. 1), which saved time due to the expeditious nature of the population and its work commitments.

Cross-sectional data can be used to look at possible correlations that may be present at a particular point (Cherry, 2019). Correlations involve two or more characteristics or variables that are interconnected, which are associated with leadership studies and satisfaction (e.g., Anderson, 2005; Craig, 2013). Leedy and Ormrod (2001) affirmed that “correlation does not necessarily indicate causation” (p. 272), but Cherry (2019) stated that by examining a particular population, “researchers are better able to understand relationships that might exist between certain variables and develop further studies that explore these conditions in greater depth” (para. 7). Lastly, this study posits a pragmatic worldview, as “there is a concern with application—what works—and solutions to problems” (Patton, 1990, as cited in Creswell, 2014, p. 10).

Population and Sample

The participants in this study were active military personnel in the U.S. Marine Corps assigned to Headquarters and Support Battalion, Installation Personnel Administration Center, located at Marine Corps Installations West in Southern California. The organization’s primary mission is to “provide leadership, administrative, training, and disciplinary support for personnel and its affiliating organizations in order to increase operational and functional effectiveness, administrative simplicity, and utility” (U.S. Marine Corps, 2017, para. 2). The organizational characteristics included a combination of Marines, Sailors, and Civilians, with more than half

(out of 400) represented by Marine Corps personnel. Homogenous (purposive) sampling was used for the study: Foley (2018) noted that researchers use this method to access a specific subset. Commonly used in qualitative studies, this technique can be used in both quantitative and qualitative research based on the nature of the study (Etikan et al., 2016). Etikan et al. (2016) noted that “the idea behind purposive sampling is to concentrate on people with particular characteristics who will better be able to assist with the relevant research” (p. 3)—and such expectation of homogeneity suggests that there is no differentiation in results obtained from diverse samples across the population.

When conducting research using survey instruments, Creswell (2014) suggested that researchers should use sample sizes based on past studies or “choose a sample size based on selecting a fraction of the population (say, 10%)” (p. 159). To mitigate ambiguity, a sufficient analysis using *a priori* analysis with G*Power 3.1.9.4. (Faul et al., 2007) was conducted to calculate the sample size/power for the study: Statistical calculation included a f tests-statistical test as well as linear multiple regression, including the effect size (f^2)—or the strength of the relationship between the variables used—which was .15. The probability level was $\alpha = .05$ and the power level was .80. All determined predictors were inputted, and the output calculated; there was a range of sample sizes that were determined from the power analysis, based on the different number of predictors that could occur in the analysis. Based on the maximum allowable predictors (15), the total sample size for this study was $N = 139$ (see Appendix A).

Procedures

I was initially granted a meeting with the organization’s director to discuss the research project, recruitment, and use of the research site. At the conclusion of the meeting, approval was granted followed by an official written notification (see Appendix B). Upon approval of the

Institutional Review Board (IRB), I notified the director and requested that notification to be sent to the prospective/voluntary participants for the study along with the recruitment letter (see Appendix C). After the notification was sent via internal communication as well as confirmation by the leadership, I met with the participants interested in the study at the site of the study to administer the materials.

After they were briefed, the participants completed the consent forms (see Appendix D) as well a paper-based survey, which included a demographic questionnaire, Servant Leadership Questionnaire, Morale Scale, and Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. Participants who became disinterested or changed their minds were politely excused. The process was projected to take 20 to 40 min to complete; however, I allowed the participants to take as much time as they needed to complete the questionnaire and survey. After completion, the participants placed the consent forms as well as the questionnaire and survey in a collection basket that I maintained. Those participants who voluntary took part in the study were entered into a drawing for a \$100 Visa gift card as compensation for their participation in the study. The winner was randomly selected and notified upon completion of the data collection process.

Validity

Internal and external validity are considered as potential threats to the study:

- Internal validity: Due to the noted design of the study, it cannot be stated, “unequivocally, that the independent variable affected any of the dependent variables” (Cone & Foster, 2006, p. 278) because the independent variables were not manipulated. However, demographics were coded and tested as control variables to determine if they made a significant difference on the dependent variables. The purpose of this investigation was to examine the relationship between servant leadership and employee

morale and organizational commitment in a military context. Albeit, correlation does not infer causation, and understanding possible relationships with particular variables in this setting will facilitate further exploration.

- External validity: Due to an integrated population working within the organization, generalizability to the intended population was at risk; therefore, only those individuals with the intended characteristics (i.e., Marine Corps personnel) were allowed to participate in the study. Data were collected in-person, which may have caused trepidation due to the employment setting. To mitigate this, the informed consent stated that the study would not be used in a punitive manner, given to the management and used only to assist the study's investigation akin to morale and commitment among military leaders and subordinate-employees. In accordance with the study's design as well as the expeditious nature of the organization, this proved to be the most advantageous way to facilitate data collection.

Instrumentation

The instruments used for this study included scales to measure the variables of interest:

- Independent variable: The research design included one independent variable, servant leadership characteristics. This is a continuous variable; individuals may possess variable levels of it.
- Dependent variable: The research design included two dependent variables, employee morale and organizational commitment (affective). Both are continuous variables; individual may possess variable levels of it.
- Control variables: The following demographic information believed to affect the relationship between the hypothesized variables was investigated: age, education, gender,

military occupational specialty (MOS), race/ethnicity, rank, time in service, and time on station (see Appendix E).

Servant Leadership Questionnaire (Scale)

Developed by Liden et al. (2008), the Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) consists of 28-items and seven dimensions (subscales). It was used to measure the following servant leadership characteristics: subscale (1) emotional healing, subscale (2) creating value for the community, subscale (3) conceptual skills, subscale (4) empowering, subscale (5) helping followers grow and succeed, subscale (6) putting followers first, and subscale (7) behaving ethically. The use of the instrument was granted without seeking written permission due to noncommercialized research and educational purposes, per PsycTESTS (see Appendix F). To capture the breadth of the measurement, the shorter version—the Servant Leadership Scale (SL-7; Global)—developed by Liden et al. (2015), which consisted of one item selected from each of the seven dimensions, was not used. The instrument was best suited for the study as participants were not asked to self-select; rather, they were responding to statements regarding their perceptions of a supervisor or those in a “leadership capacity” akin to servant leadership behaviors.

The 28-item SLQ is a reliable and valid instrument, which has been used in a variety of studies (e.g., Alfaydi, 2017; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Washington et al., 2014). Van Dierendonck and Nuijten’s (2011) confirmatory factor analysis confirmed this seven-factor model as the best fit with internal consistencies noted as .90, .92, .86, .91, .94, .89, and .90, respectively (p. 51). The reliability scores for this study on the subscales were noted as follows: .90, .89, .90, .81, .87, .86 and, .80, respectively. A 7-point Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) to indicate the level of agreement or disagreement with

the relevant statements. Scoring was calculated based on the total of the seven subscales across the 28 items, indicating the degree to which one exhibits the behavioral characteristics of a servant leader. The overall SLQ reliability (Cronbach's α) for this study was .98.

Morale Scale

Employee morale was measured using the Morale Scale developed by Britt and Dickinson (2006) for this study. Permission to use this instrument was granted via email, by Dr. Thomas W. Britt, on October 23, 2019 (see Appendix G). This original six-item measurement scale has been used in prior research (e.g., Britt et al., 2007, 2013; Britt & Dickinson, 2006; Ivey et al., 2015) to measure the morale of military personnel. The instrument is reliable and valid, but concerns may exist due to its novelty. The instrument was best suited due to the nature of the study in which the authors employ a psychological perspective, noting the “unique components of morale using a prototype analysis adapted from cognitive psychology” (Britt, 1997, p. 35).

Britt (1997; as cited in Britt et al., 2007) sampled Army soldiers and requested that they indicate their belief regarding key traits of morale and found a higher probability of soldiers who noted “attributes of motivation and drive in their conceptualizations of morale rather than emotional attributes such as happiness and contentment” (p. 35). Britt et al. (2007) also noted that although a “single occupational sample was used to justify an emphasis on motivational features of morale, other authors (e.g., Hart, 1994) examining different civilian occupations (e.g., teachers) viewed morale in motivational terms” (p. 35). Britt and Dickinson adopted a positive psychology approach, which concluded that morale is “a service member’s level of motivation and enthusiasm for accomplishing mission objectives” (p. 162). Britt et al. reported a Cronbach’s α of .89 for a similar (modified) version of the measure—for example, the study used a 5-point response ranging from 1 (*very low*) to 5 (*very high*) to assess members level of “personal

morale,” “energy,” “drive,” “enthusiasm,” and “eagerness.” The five items assessed the components of morale representing energy/motivation combined with a positive orientation to the work environment; the adjectives “enthusiasm” and “eagerness” were later added to this version of the scale to better capture the conceptualization of morale as the positive energy an individual possesses in the service of future action (Britt et al., 2007, p. 35). Research conducted by Ivey et al. (2015) entitled “An Assessment of the Overlap Between Morale and Work Engagement in a Nonoperational Military Sample” used the scale and rated participants on their level of *motivation, morale, energy, drive, enthusiasm, and eagerness* on a 5-point scale from 1 (*very low*) to 5 (*very high*).

Similarly, the participants of this study were not deployed on a military operation and were asked to respond in the context of their “motivation and enthusiasm for accomplishing work objectives as opposed to . . . mission objectives” (Ivey et al., 2015, p. 340); thus, the referent was modified to match this study. Ivey et al. (2015) noted that the scale’s Cronbach’s α during their study was .93. A 5-point Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (*very low*) to 5 (*very high*) to indicate the level of agreement. The total score for the measurement scale is calculated based on “the average of the items” (T. Britt, personal communication, April 22, 2020), to capture the participant’s level of morale with no subscales. As stated, “You can just take the average of the six items for a total score for the measure. That way the score remains on the 1 to 5 scale” (T. Britt, personal communication, May 22, 2020). The overall Cronbach’s α for this study was .97.

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Organizational commitment was measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) which first originated with Porter et al. (1974). The use of the instrument was granted without seeking written permission due to noncommercialized research and educational purposes, per PsycTESTS (see Appendix H). The OCQ used in this study was developed by Mowday et al. (1979) and was best suited due to the nature of study. The 15-item OCQ measured employee commitment to work organizations in terms of the “relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Mowday et al., 1979). Allen and Meyer (1990) originally delineated three forms of organizational commitment: affective, normative, and continuance. The measurement for this study focused on affective commitment, which denotes a strong bond between an employee and the employer based on three related factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values (identity levels), (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (activity), and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization (allegiance; Mowday et al., 1979; Nyhan, 1999).

The OCQ is a valid measurement and has been used in a variety of studies (e.g., Commeiras & Fournier, 2001; Nyhan, 1999; Mowday et al., 1979, 1982; Porter et al., 1974). A factor analyses was performed on six samples ($N = 2,563$ employees) and yielded a single-factor solution (Mowday et. al, 1979); the internal consistency of the instrument as measured by the coefficient alpha ranged from .82 to .93. A 7-point Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) to indicate the level of agreement or disagreement with the relevant statements regarding organizational commitment. The scale presents one factor with 15 items and/or statements with no subscales. Scoring is calculated based on the arithmetic mean

(average) or the total of the responses divided by the total (15); six items were reversed-scored. Scores indicate the degree of commitment; higher scores indicate higher perceived commitment. The overall Cronbach's α for this study was .91.

Data Processing

The purpose of this nonexperimental, quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and employee morale as well as organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel. A review of the literature was conducted and analyzed using secondary sources to gain an understanding of its significance germane to the topic. Sources were collected via the institution's website and/or other reliable sources, including scholarly journals, articles, books, and websites, per the literature review. After IRB approval, I scheduled and administered a paper-based questionnaire and survey instrument to validate data germane to the research questions and hypotheses. All questionnaires and surveys were hand collected and inputted into an Excel spreadsheet; after being coded and organized, all data were imported into the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS; Version 24) software for statistical analysis, which included two hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Assumptions and Limitations

The study's assumptions include: (a) the power analysis conducted was presumed to have yielded the appropriate sample size, (b) the chosen method for the study was appropriate, (c) the participants answered the questions honestly, (d) a servant leadership setting will have a positive impact on Marine Corps personnel due to its focus on its followers (subordinate's employees) within the organization, and (e) those who demonstrate servant leadership characteristics will manifest a positive relationship between employee morale and organizational commitment, for

the accomplishment of organizational goals. However, the results of the study may differ regarding the participants' behavior. Most notably, the study is limited to Southern California, as participants are active military members stationed throughout the globe.

Ethical Assurances

To the extent possible, I ensured that ethical standards were adhered to, including safety, consent forms, and anonymity. As noted, I met with the organization's director to attain permission and inspect the condition of the site to conduct the study. Prior to administering the survey, the consent forms were reviewed to ensure understanding of the process. Per the consent form, the participants were informed that they did not have to sign the consent forms or be pressured to do so—if the prospective (s) felt uncomfortable at any time, they were advised that they could withdraw from the study without any consequences. Per the consent form, they were also notified that the sole purpose of the data collection was for the research study and that there would be no organizational use of the data.

Moreover, participants were informed that the study would not be used in a punitive manner for service members; the data are being used to provide insights about leadership styles and its relationship with morale and organizational commitment in a military context. All data were collected via collection basket; to protect anonymity, all surveys were kept confidential, safeguarded, and secured for personal access only. All research materials will be stored at a designated location away from the site of the study in a locked safe for a minimum of 5 years and destroyed by shredding, per APA guidelines. The signed consent forms will not be stored with the completed questionnaires and no names or identifying information will be placed in the safe.

Summary

The study was conducted using a quantitative, nonexperimental, cross-sectional design. This chapter presented the design overview, including the research questions, hypotheses and rationale, research design and appropriateness, population and sample, procedures, validity, instrumentation, data processing, assumptions and limitations, and ethical assurances. The IBM SPSS software package (Version 24) was used to process the data using a multiple regression analysis. And finally, to the extent possible, measures were taken to ensure the research was conducted with ethicality.

Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationship between servant leadership and employee morale, as well as the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment, in a military context. Specifically, the aim was to quantitatively investigate the characteristics of servant leadership to determine if any could help explain the relationship with employee morale and organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel.

Preparation for Data Analysis

In total, data were collected from 158 participants in-person and analyzed for missing data. Dong and Peng (2013) suggested that missing data can occur at the unit or item level; the former collects no information and the latter may miss one or two questions and complete the rest. Mitigation of missing data at the item level is necessary, which may include the “proportion of missing data, the missing data mechanisms, and patterns of missing data” (Dong & Peng, 2013, p. 2). Tabachnick and Fidell (2012) argued that the mechanism for missing data and/or the patterns have more of an impact on the results of the study than the proportion. Dong and Peng purported that the acceptable percentage of missing data is not conclusive and that “the amount of missing data is not the sole criterion by which a researcher assesses the missing data problem” (p. 2). Schafer (1999) suggested that a missing value rate of “5% or less is inconsequential” (as cited by Dong & Peng, 2013, p. 3); however, Bennett (2001) believed that the statistical analysis may be skewed if 10% or more of the data are absent. Various methods are used to mitigate missing data, including imputation: The “aim of the imputation step is to fill in missing values multiple times using the information contained in the observed data” (Dong & Peng, 2013, p. 4).

The missing values for this study were at the item level; after calculating the average (mean) for the variables of the item-rating across the participants, the average of the missing item

on the variables were entered for the missing value. However, four cases were completely excluded as a result of the missing data criteria; for example, Case 147 and Case 80 were removed from the data set due to the missing value items exceeding 50%. Case 109 was removed from the data set due to the participant responding “oddly” or outside of the range on a particular scale. Also, the threshold for missing values in this study included any missing items equal to or greater than 1% of the 158 participants, multiplied by 49 (or the total items on the surveys), which equaled 7,742 or 77.42. There was a total of 25 missing value items; 25 divided by 7,742, multiplied by 100, equaled .32. So, in total, the missing value items were less than one third of 1% of the total number of items.

To evaluate influential cases—which may significantly change the regression coefficient values (Allen, 1997)—Cook’s Distance and Standardized DFBeta analysis was performed: Cases that exceeded a positive or negative value of greater than 1.0 unduly influenced model estimation and were removed. So, in an effort to interpret the cleanest data, 154 cases were analyzed. Cone and Foster (2006) stated that “all parametric statistical tests have certain conditions, which, if you fail to meet them can cause problems” (p. 210). Prior to hypothesis testing, linearity, homogeneity of variances (homoscedasticity), independence, and normality were conducted to test assumptions. Multicollinearity was found among Subscale 5 (helping following grow and succeed) and Subscale 6 (putting followers first). In cases of collinearity, it is recommended to select the “most important predictors from among the correlated variables or explore whether you can legitimately continue the correlated variables into a single score” (Cone & Foster, 2006, p. 210). Subscale 5 was removed; thus, six subscales were used in the predictor model (independent variable) for the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Setting

Per the procedures in Chapter 3, permission was granted to conduct the research study by the director of the organization. Data were collected in-person from Marine Corps personnel working on a military installation in Southern California. Using a paper-based questionnaire and survey, it is possible that data collection was affected due to the dynamics/workflow of the organization, which may have contributed to missing data (see Preparation for Data Analysis). As noted, voluntary participants were entered into a drawing for a \$100 Visa gift card as compensation for their participation in the study.

Descriptive Statistics

In total, 154 participants were examined for this study. Among the participants, 23 identified as African American or Black (14.9%), one identified as American Indian or Alaska Native (.6%), eight identified as Asian (5.2%), 50 identified as Hispanic or Latino (32%), six identified as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (3.9%), 52 identified as White or Caucasian (33.7%), seven identified as Multi-Racial (two or more races) (4.5%), and seven provided no response (4.5%). Albeit, all control variables were considered, Table 2 shows the specific sociodemographic characteristics employed as control variables (covariates) due to their exploration in studies associated with servant leadership (e.g., Guerrero, 2019; Jordan, 2015). One-hundred and two identified as men (66.2%) and 52 identified as women (33.8%) with an average of 23.5 years ($SD = 5.957$, 17-46). The highest educational level attained was between high school (85.4%) and master's degree (1.3%). Pay Grade/Rank were between E-2/Private First Class (6.5%) to W-3/Chief Warrant Officer 3 (1.3%). Time on station (days) were between 8 days (.7%) and 2,555 days (.7%; $M = 633.08$, $SD = 371.807$).

Table 2*Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants at Baseline*

Characteristic	N	%
Gender		
Men	102	66.2
Women	52	33.8
Education Level		
High School	129	85.4
Associate degree	15	9.9
Bachelor's Degree	5	3.3
Master's Degree	2	1.3
No response	3	1.9
Pay Grade/Rank		
E-2/Private First Class	10	6.5
E-3/Lance Corporal	73	47.4
E-4/Corporal	41	26.6
E-5/Sergeant	8	5.2
E-6/Staff Sergeant	4	2.6
E-7/Gunnery Sergeant	5	3.2
E-8/Master Sergeant	3	1.9
E-9/Master Gunnery Sergeant	2	1.3
W-1/Warrant Officer	2	1.3
W-2/Chief Warrant Officer 2	4	2.6
W-3/Chief Warrant Officer 3	2	1.3
Time on Station (days)		
8	1	0.7
14	1	0.7
30	2	1.3
39	1	0.7
60	1	0.7
167	1	0.7
182	6	4
213	2	1.3
243	2	1.3
273	1	0.7
274	1	0.7
304	6	4
335	2	1.3
365	28	18.5
395	3	2
425	2	1.3
456	3	2
486	1	0.7
487	1	0.7
517	5	3.3
547	8	5.3
577	1	0.7
608	4	2.6
654	2	1.3
669	2	1.3
699	3	2
730	19	12.6
882	1	0.7
912	6	4
913	1	0.7
916	1	0.7
1095	25	16.6
1125	1	0.7
1247	2	1.3
1277	3	2
1460	1	0.7
2555	1	0.7
No response	3	1.9

Note. N = 154.

Results

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and employee morale among U.S. Marine Corps personnel? Null Hypothesis 1 (H_01) states that there is no relationship between Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics and their subordinate-employees' level of morale. Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H_a1) states that Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics will have a positive relationship with their subordinate-employees' level of morale. Prior to hypothesis testing, assumptions were tested to ensure valid results: Cook's Distance and Standardized DFBeta analysis was performed and found that Case 89 was an influential case which unduly influenced model estimation, and the case was removed. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted: Table 3 shows the results on employee morale.

In Step/Model 1: $R = .202$; the reported R^2 of .041 revealed that the control variables (covariates) accounted for and/or explained 4.1% of the variance in employee morale, $F(4,143) = 1.52, p = .200$. However, the covariates were not statistically significant, including: Gender $\beta = .003, p = .965$; Time on Station (days) $\beta = -.124, p = .160$; Pay Grade/Rank $\beta = .085, p = .435$; Education Level $\beta = .117, p = .218$.

In Step/Model 2: $R = .496$; the reported R^2 of .246 revealed that the covariates combined with the servant leadership characteristics accounted for and/or explained 24.6 % of the variance in employee morale, $F(10, 137) = 4.46, p < .001$., which was statistically significant. However, the covariates were not statistically significant, including: Gender $\beta = .041, p = .579$; Time on Station (days) $\beta = -.069, p = .321$; Pay Grade/Rank $\beta = -.003, p = .980$; Education Level $\beta = .177, p = .067$. Also, the SLQ Subscales were not statistically significant, including: SLQ Subscale 1 of Emotional Healing ($\beta = -.021, p = .882$); SLQ Subscale 2 of Creating Value for the

Community ($\beta = -.021, p = .694$); SLQ Subscale 3 of Conceptual Skills ($\beta = -.195, p = .116$); SLQ Subscale 4 of Empowering ($\beta = -.159, p = .138$); SLQ Subscale 6 of Putting Followers First ($\beta = -.036, p = .777$); and SLQ Subscale 7 of Behaving Ethically ($\beta = .121, p = .297$). The ΔR^2 value revealed 20.5 % change in the variance of Model 1 and Model 2 with $\Delta F (4, 137) = 6.20, p < .001$.

Table 3*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results for Employee Morale*

Variable	B	Bootstrap (5,000 Samples) 95.0% CI for B		SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Model 1						.041	.041
Constant	3.863	3.568	4.178	.148			
Gender	.006	-.268	.287	.140	.003		
Time on Station (Days)	.000	-.001	4.984E-5	.000	-.124		
Pay Grade/Rank	.034	-.056	.124	.045	.085		
Education Level	.175	-.125	.502	.146	.118		
Model 2						.246	.205*
Constant	1.224	.384	2.145	.429			
Gender	.074	-.181	.313	.131	.041		
Time on Station (Days)	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.069		
Pay Grade/Rank	.001	-.092	.097	.044	-.003		
Education Level	.263	-.024	.544	.146	.177		
SLQ Subscale 1 of Emotional Healing	.004	-.056	.044	.026	-.021		
SLQ Subscale 2 of Creating Value for the Community	.008	-.036	.047	.021	.050		
SLQ Subscale 3 of Conceptual Skills	.044	-.013	.106	.029	.195		
SLQ Subscale 4 of Empowering	.035	-.013	.080	.024	.159		
SLQ Subscale 6 of Putting Followers First	.006	-.037	.053	.023	.036		
SLQ Subscale 7 of Behaving Ethically	.025	-.026	.073	.025	.121		

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; SLQ = Servant Leadership Questionnaire

* $p < .001$.

Statistical results needed to reject Null Hypothesis 1 (H_0): Regression coefficient for at least one of the servant leadership characteristics effects on employee morale is significantly different from zero ($p < .05$). The results show that no regression coefficients were statistically

significant, and the null hypothesis (H_01) failed to be rejected. Although not hypothesized, the results show a statistically significant, strong fitting model for overall servant leadership, accounting for 24.6% of the variance on the dependent variable: employee morale.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and organizational commitment (affective) among U.S. Marine Corps personnel. Null Hypothesis 2 (H_02) states there is no relationship between Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics with their subordinate-employees' organizational commitment. Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H_a2), states that Marine leaders who exhibit servant leadership characteristics will have a positive relationship with their subordinate-employees' organizational commitment. Prior to hypothesis testing, assumptions were tested to ensure valid results: Cook's distance and Standardized DFBeta analysis was performed and found that Case 6 was an influential case which unduly influenced model estimation, and the case was removed. A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted: Table 4 shows the results on organizational commitment.

In Step/Model 1: $R = .116$; the reported R^2 of .014, revealed that the control variables (covariates) accounted for and/or explained 1.4% of the variance in organizational commitment (affective) with $F(4,143) = .491, p = .743$. However, the covariates were not statistically significant, including: Gender $\beta = .098, p = .220$; Pay Grade/Rank $\beta = -.825., p = .435$; Time on Station (days) $\beta = -.010., p = .915$; Education Level $\beta = .072, p = .516$.

In Step/Model 2: $R = .450$; the reported R^2 of .202, revealed that the covariates combined with the servant leadership characteristics accounted for and/or explained 20.2% of the variance in organizational commitment (affective) with $F(10, 137) = 5.40, p < .001.$, and was statistically significant. However, the covariates were not statistically significant, including: Gender $\beta = .117,$

$p = .126$.; Pay Grade/Rank $\beta = -.102$, $p = .369$; Time on Station (days) $\beta = .063$, $p = .380$; Education Level $\beta = .153$, $p = .217$). Also, the SLQ Subscales were not statistically significant, including: SLQ Subscale 1 of Emotional Healing ($\beta = .046$, $p = .776$); SLQ Subscale 2 of Creating Value for the Community ($\beta = .010$, $p = .949$); SLQ Subscale 3 of Conceptual Skills ($\beta = .071$, $p = .611$); SLQ Subscale 4 of Empowering ($\beta = .050$, $p = .725$); SLQ Subscale 6 of Putting Followers First ($\beta = .195$, $p = .180$); and SLQ Subscale 7 of Behaving Ethically ($\beta = .123$, $p = .449$). The ΔR^2 value revealed 18.9 % change in the variance of Model 1 and Model 2 with $\Delta F(4, 137) = 5.40$, $p < .001$.

Table 4*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results for Organizational Commitment (Affective)*

Variable	B	Bootstrap (5,000 Samples) 95.0% CI for B		SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2
		LL	UL				
Model 1						.014	.014
Constant	4.855	4.577	5.164	.147			
Gender	.191	-.114	.464	.154	.098		
Pay Grade/Rank	-.011	-.112	.107	.052	-.024		
Time on Station (Days)	2.405E-5	.000	.000	.000	.010		
Education Level	.117	-.269	.447	.185	.072		
Model 2						.202	.189*
Constant	2.626	1.563	3.693	.499			
Gender	.226	-.056	.489	.146	.117		
Pay Grade/Rank	-.045	-.147	.087	.052	-.102		
Time on Station (Days)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.063		
Education Level	.200	-.134	.488	.167	.123		
SLQ Subscale 1 of Emotional Healing	.008	-.051	.078	.031	.046		
SLQ Subscale 2 of Creating Value for the Community	.002	-.052	.049	.028	.010		
SLQ Subscale 3 of Conceptual Skills	.016	-.052	.093	.033	.071		
SLQ Subscale 4 of Empowering	.011	-.050	.078	.031	.050		
SLQ Subscale 6 of Putting Followers First	.035	-.013	.086	.027	.195		
SLQ Subscale 7 of Behaving Ethically	.026	-.042	.080	.035	.123		

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit; SLQ = Servant Leadership Questionnaire

* $p < .001$.

Statistical results needed to reject Null Hypothesis 2 (H₀₂): Regression coefficient for at least one of the servant leadership characteristics effects on organizational commitment (affective) is significantly different from zero ($p < .05$). The results show that no regression coefficients were statistically significant, and the null hypothesis (H₀₂) failed to be rejected. Although not hypothesized, the results show a statistically significant, moderately strong fitting model for overall servant leadership, accounting for 20.2% of the variance on the dependent variable: organizational commitment (affective).

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present the findings of the analysis between servant leadership characteristics and their relationship with employee morale, as well as servant leadership characteristics and their relationship with organizational commitment (affective). No statistical significance was found for the hypothesized variables of interest. However, servant leadership overall was found to significantly predict variance on the dependent variable of employee morale, and servant leadership overall was found to significantly predict variance on the dependent variable of organizational commitment (affective). Chapter 5 seeks to provide an interpretation of the findings, as well as offer recommendations and conclusions.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusions

The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study was to examine the relationship between servant leadership and employee morale, as well as the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment. Specifically, the study sought to investigate the characteristics of servant leadership to determine if any could help explain the relationship between employee morale and organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel. Due to the hypotheses investigated, the following chapter provides a discussion of the findings in combination, as well as its implications for future inquiry and praxis.

Interpretation of Findings

The findings revealed no correlation between servant leadership characteristics and employee morale, as well as no correlation between servant leadership characteristics and organizational commitment (affective). Thus, the proposed hypotheses were not supported. The findings indicate a likely explanation for the absence of significance is explained by its association of the servant leadership characteristics. Albeit not hypothesized, the findings revealed a statistically significant, strong fitting model for servant leadership overall with employee morale, as well as a statistically significant, moderately strong fitting model for servant leadership overall with organizational commitment. Therefore, a positive relationship was achieved between overall servant leadership and employee morale as well as overall servant leadership and organizational commitment, which is consistent with prior research (Alfaydi, 2017; Guerrero, 2019; Jordan, 2014; Joseph & Winston, 2005; Sokoll, 2013). However, this is not due to the uniqueness of any one servant leadership characteristic: The effects demonstrate that the characteristics of servant leadership work in unison and should be taken as a whole. Van Dierendonck (2016) suggested that these “characteristics...when combined, provide a strong

indication of how a servant leader should function” (para. 8). Zuccaro (2007) found that the “combinations of traits and attributes, integrated in conceptually meaningful ways, are more likely to predict leadership than are the independent contributions of multiple traits” (p. 14). Therefore, as indicated by the findings, those Marine leaders who model the collective behaviors of servant leadership, which include emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skills, empowering, putting followers first, and ethical behavior, will be perceived as servant leaders and improve their subordinate-employees’ level of morale and organizational commitment. The higher the perception, the higher the degree of morale and commitment within the organization.

Recommendations

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between perceived servant leadership characteristics and employee morale as well as organizational commitment in the U.S. Marine Corps. Data were collected from the participants to determine if any relationship exists between the characteristics of servant leadership and employee morale, as well as the characteristics of servant leadership and organizational commitment. Although the results were not significant, servant leadership overall was found to be statistically significant and can improve employee morale and organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel. The findings have some limitations:

- The study was investigated quantitatively. Future studies should consider a qualitative component (i.e., mixed method) to provide a descriptive component of the phenomena.
- The population included those working in Headquarters and Services Battalion. Future studies should include elements such as aviation and ground units not deployed.

- Data were collected in-person due to limited access. Future studies should consider online data collection to include multiple installations.
- According to Jordan (2015), servant leadership should be examined in a variety of military settings. This study investigated personnel serving in the U.S. Marine Corps, a component of the U.S. Navy. Future studies should be considered for the newly created Space Force—a component of the U.S. Air Force in which servant leadership has been found to exhibit positive outcomes (e.g., Ferris, 2018).

Implications

Servant leadership theory posits peculiar patterns of behavior which are cultivated in servant leaders and are different from other leadership concepts (Rivkin et al., 2014). Additionally, it is these essential characteristics that make servant leadership dissimilar. Greenleaf (1970/2008) intimated that the servant leader is distinct in terms of selflessness as well as motivational nature, but this starts with the leader who is atypical. Smith et al. (2004) posited that the “models of leadership do not begin with an analysis of leader motivation, and Greenleaf’s concepts in this regard are unique” (p. 82). Notwithstanding, servant leadership places the needs of its followers first to achieve organizational goals through its espoused characteristics.

In addition to augmenting existing literature on servant leadership in the military, the data in this study suggest that servant leadership has the potential to yield positive outcomes regarding employee morale and organizational commitment, as perceived by its subordinate-employees. Albeit, morale has been shown to be a critical component for military personnel. Ali (2015) proffered that “low morale causes employees to lose interests in going the extra mile, especially when they do not feel valued by managers or care about the projects assigned” (para.

5). Moreover, a lack of commitment is often a precursor before members/employees exit the organization, and although some employees will remain with the organization, a lack of effort may be demonstrated because their desire and belief in the organization has diminished in terms of commitment (Nyhan, 1999). Spears (2010) suggested that “we are experiencing a rapid shift...away from the more traditional autocratic and hierarchical models of leadership and toward servant leadership as a way of being in relationship with others” (p. 25). Therefore, inculcating servant leadership will require a paradigm shift by military leaders.

Spears (2004) purported that servant leadership’s impact on leaders has the capacity “to raise their standard practices toward developing servant leadership characteristics” (as cited in Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011, p. 50). Redmond et al. (2015) acknowledged that the “U.S. military workplace is a unique environment” (p. 9) and “loyalty, commitment and honor” (p. 14) is a hallmark. Emphasis is placed on strength and discipline by the leaders, and after this has been inculcated, greater commitment is expected (Redmond et al., 2015). However, if leaders fail to exercise effective leadership practices, subordinate-employees will leave the organization and expedite turnover, which underscores research conducted by Sokoll (2013) and Joseph and Winston (2005), who found positive outcomes with job satisfaction (which is associated with employee morale) and organization commitment by leaders who practice servant leadership.

Finally, this study offers implications as a potential model for organizational improvement, by first focusing on improving morale and organizational commitment of their military personnel. Specifically, through training as well as development and evaluation strategies, the integration of servant leadership training within Marine Corps formal schools (e.g., Professional Military Education) is plausible as an alternative leadership approach with this particular construct by Liden et al. (2008). However, its effectiveness must be understood as a

synergy or combined effect, not its individual supported behaviors. Thus, the focus of the training should be on the collective characteristics of servant leadership, by those organizational leaders in which such behavioral modeling can be used to evaluate training effectiveness as well as transfer of training. Saks and Haccoun (2016) noted that the transfer of training is demonstrated by “the application of the knowledge and skills acquired in a training program on the job and the maintenance of acquired knowledge and skills over time” (p. 298).

Conclusion

Employee morale and organizational commitment are critical aspects of sustaining a successful organization, and research has shown that leadership has a significant impact on such within organizational settings. In fact, leadership is often viewed as the *sine qua non* or indispensable element that influences organizational behavior. Albeit, there are various leadership theories (models) used to facilitate organizational success, and servant leadership as a neoteric theory has shown positive effects within organizations—including the military. Unique from other leadership models, servant leadership places the needs of its followers at the forefront. This study investigated the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and employee morale and organizational commitment in the U.S. Marine Corps. Evidence was found regarding a positive relationship between servant leadership overall and employee morale, as well as organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel which—on a practical level—is salient for accomplishing work objectives. However, if leaders are only concerned with leadership approaches that emphasize organizational outcomes, this could lead to a lack of interest for its member’s needs as well as decrease morale and commitment. Finally, in addition to expanding the servant leadership literature, this study augments the benefits of servant

leadership as a potential measure and should encourage the development of servant leadership training in the uniformed services.

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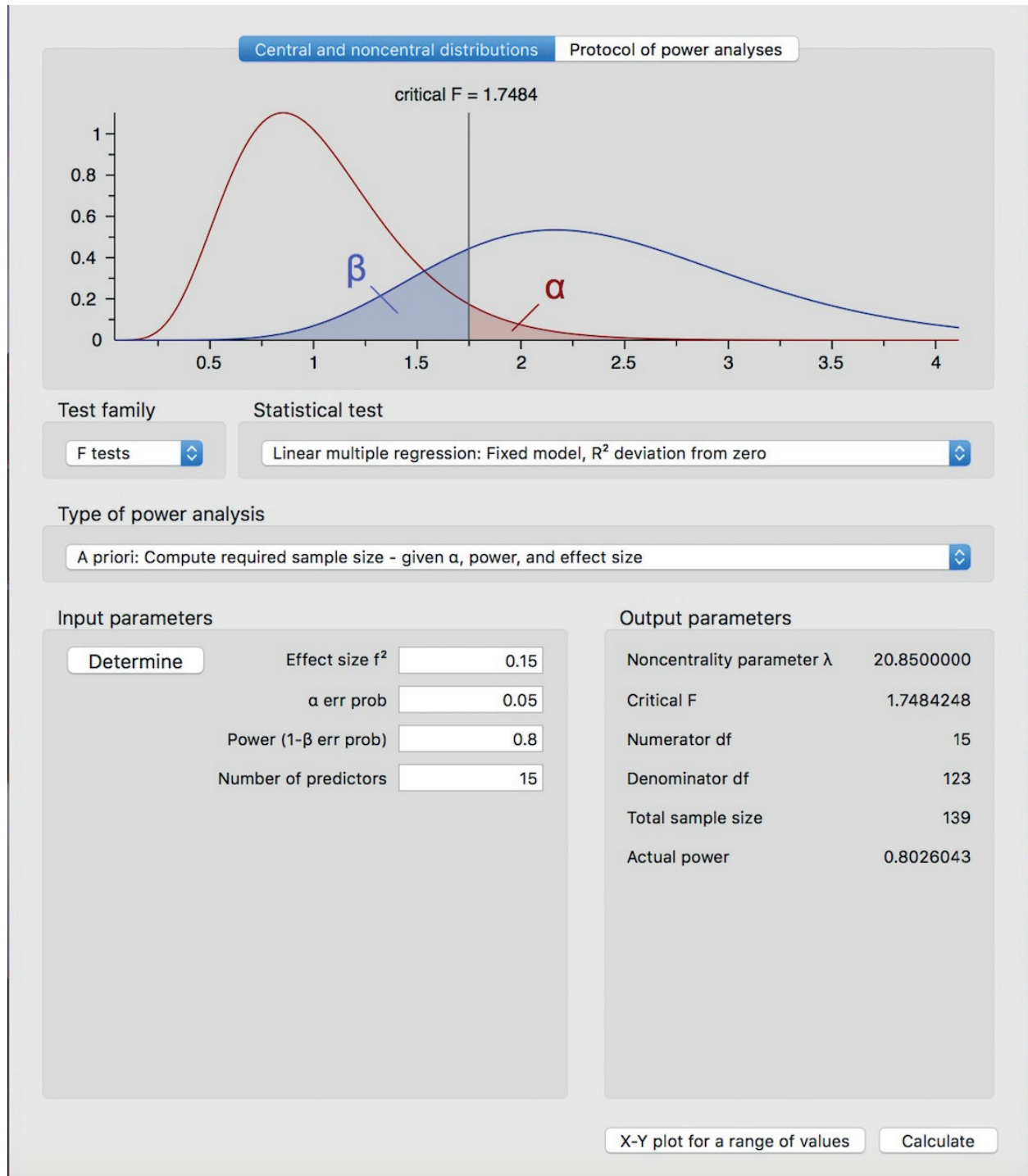
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Appendix A

G*Power 3.1 Analysis for Sample Size



Appendix B

Permission to Conduct Study



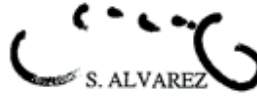
UNITED STATES MARINE CORPS
MARINE CORPS INSTALLATIONS WEST-MARINE CORPS BASE
BOX 555031
CAMP PENDLETON, CALIFORNIA 92055-5031

IN REPLY REFER TO:
1000
IPAC
5 Nov 19

From: Director, Installation Personnel Administration Center
To: Mr. Norris Wise

Subj: REQUEST TO CONDUCT A SURVEY

1. Approval is granted in the use of Installation Personnel Administration Center (IPAC) personnel to assist you in your research study.
2. For further information, the POC in this matter is MGySgt Trower and he can be contacted at (760) 763-2529 or DSN 361-2529 or email michael.trower@usmc.mil.


S. ALVAREZ

Appendix C

Recruitment Flyer

Recruitment Flyer



I am presenting to you an opportunity to be a part of my research study. My name is Norris Wise and I am a doctoral student at The Chicago School of Professional Psychology in the Business Psychology department. I am working on my dissertation study and am looking for participants to help examine servant leadership and its relationship with employee morale and organizational commitment in the Marine Corps.

To participate in this study, you must meet the following requirements:

- Active duty military
- Assigned to Headquarters and Support Battalion
- Age 17 or older

This study involves responding to a questionnaire and survey and is completely anonymous. It should take 20 to 40 minutes to complete.

At the end of the study, participants will be given the opportunity to enter a drawing for a \$100 Visa gift card.

If you are interested, the location of the research will be held at Alpha Company, Headquarters and Support Battalion, Marine Corps Base Camp Pendleton on the first deck of building 13109.

For questions or concerns, please contact me by phone at 760.641.1482, or by email at: nxw4586@ego.thechicagoschool.edu

Appendix D

Informed Consent



Investigators: Norris Wise

Study Title: Assessing Servant Leadership and its Relationship with Employee Morale and Organizational Commitment in the United States Marine Corps

I am a student at The Chicago School of Professional Psychology. This study is being conducted as a part of my dissertation requirement for the Organizational Leadership program.

I am asking you to participate in a research study about servant leadership and its relationship with employee morale and organizational commitment in the Marine Corps. You will be asked to complete a questionnaire and survey. This will take 20 to 40 minutes in duration. This may cause you to feel frustrated due to the subjective nature of some of the questions. Although you may not benefit, it will help to understand how leadership styles such as servant leadership impact employee morale and commitment in the military.

Please take your time and read the entire document and feel free to ask any questions before signing this document.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between servant leadership and employee morale in a military context. The aim of this study seeks to provide a better understanding of how servant leadership characteristics impact employee morale and organizational commitment among Marine Corps personnel.

Procedures: As a participant in this study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire and survey. The servant leadership questionnaire is about perceived servant leadership characteristics and the organizational commitment questionnaire is about your feelings towards the organization you currently work for. The morale survey is about individual morale including your motivation and enthusiasm towards your work objectives. As mentioned, your participation will take 20 to 40 minutes. The questionnaire and survey will include demographics to obtain information about the participants, which will be coded as part of the research study. The coding sheet will not be included along with the demographic's questionnaire. Upon completion you will place the consent form, questionnaire and survey inside the designated basket, which will be collected by the researcher.

Compensation: Participants will be entered into a drawing with the chance of winning a \$100 Visa gift card as compensation for their participation in the study. The winner will be

10.28.2014, Page 1 of 3

randomly selected by the researcher. The winner will be randomly selected by the researcher and be notified by the researcher via email. All participants will be notified via email of when the drawing has taken place.

Risks to Participation: There is risk frustration or emotional discomfort due to the subjective nature of the questions. Measures to mitigate participants risk include withdrawing from participating in the study at any time and/or providing professional help via the military resource center. Data from the research is not used for corrective actions, but to provide insights about leadership styles and its impact on morale and organizational comment in the military.

Benefits to Participants: You will not directly benefit from this study. However, we hope the information learned from this study may benefit society in our understanding of how servant leadership characteristics impacts organizational morale and commitment in the military.

Alternatives to Participation: Participation in this study is voluntary, and you may withdraw from study participation at any time without any penalty.

Confidentiality: During this study, information will be collected about you for the purpose of this research. This includes your age, gender, race, grade/rank, years of service, military occupational specialty, time on station, and highest education.

The researcher will keep all information confidential, safeguarded, and secured in a locked safe away from the research location for the researcher's access only. This includes the questionnaire and consent forms and no names or identifying information will be placed on the safe, which will be kept separately and will be destroyed by shredding. In addition, the researcher will store all research materials in a locked safe for a minimum of five years, per the APA guidelines.

It is possible that your data may be used for future research or distributed to another researcher without your consent. However, information that could identify you will be removed.

It is possible that your data may be used for future research or distributed to another researcher without your consent. However, information that could identify you will be removed. Your research records may be reviewed by federal agencies whose responsibility is to protect human subjects participating in research, including the Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) and by representatives from The Chicago School of Professional Psychology Institutional Review Board, a committee that oversees research.

Questions/Concerns: If you have questions related to the procedures described in this document, please contact the researcher at 760.641.1482, or you may email at: nxw4586@ego.thechicagoschool.edu; you may also contact the researcher's Chair, Dr. Ian Rosen at: irosen@thechicagoschool.edu.

If you have questions concerning your rights in this research study you may contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB), which is concerned with the protection of subjects in research

10.28.2014, Page 2 of 3

project. You may reach the IRB office Monday-Friday by calling 312.467.2343 or writing: Institutional Review Board, The Chicago School of Professional Psychology, 325 N. Wells, Chicago, Illinois, 60654.

Consent to Participate in Research

Participant:

I have read the above information and have received satisfactory answers to my questions. I understand the research project and the procedures involved have been explained to me. I agree to participate in this study. My participation is voluntary, and I do not have to sign this form if I do not want to be part of this research project. I will receive a copy of this consent form for my records.

_____ Name of Participant (print)

_____ Signature of Participant

Date: _____

_____ Name of the Person Obtaining Consent (print)

_____ Signature of the Person Obtaining Consent

Date: _____

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Appendix E

Demographic Questionnaire

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this important study to help examine servant leadership and its relationship with employee morale and organizational commitment. Please be sure to respond to all the questions as your thoughts and opinions are important.

Demographics questions:

1. Age _____
2. Gender: _____
3. Race/Ethnicity: _____
4. Pay Grade/Rank: _____
5. Total Years in Service: _____
6. Military Occupational Specialty (MOS): _____
7. Time on Station: _____ Camp Pendleton MCB
8. Highest Education Level: ___ High School ___ Associate Degree ___ Bachelor's Degree ___
Master's Degree ___ Doctorate Degree ___ Other

Appendix F

Servant Leadership Scale (Questionnaire)



Servant Leadership Scale

PsycTESTS Citation:

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant Leadership Scale [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t04900-000>

Instrument Type: Rating Scale

Test Format:

Responses are scaled from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Source:

Supplied by author.

Original Publication:

Liden, Robert C., Wayne, Sandy J., Zhao, Hao, & Henderson, David (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol 19(2), 161-177. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.01.006>

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Servant Leadership

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.

***** *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.*

Note. The phraseology use for this study is from the original questionnaire before being modified; e.g., “Others would seek help from him/her if they had a personal problem,” now states, “I would seek help from my manager if I had a personal problem.” The statements “He/She” or “Him/Her” is referring to the individual in the leadership capacity.

Directions: Think about your immediate supervisor or someone in a leadership capacity within your organization. Using the following 7-point scale, indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements pertaining to their leadership. In these statements, “He/She” or “Him/Her” is referring to the individual in the leadership capacity.

Key: 1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Disagree somewhat 4 = Undecided 5 = Agree Somewhat 6 = Agree 7 = Strongly agree

- | | |
|---|---------------|
| 1. Others would seek help from him/her if they had a personal problem. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 2. He/She emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 3. He/She can tell if something work related is going wrong. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 4. He/She gives others the responsibility to make important decisions about their own jobs. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 5. He/She makes others' career development a priority. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 6. He/She cares more about others' success than his/her own. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 7. He/She holds high ethical standards. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 8. He/She cares about others' personal well-being. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 9. He/She is always interested in helping people in the community. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 10. He/She is able to think through complex problems. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 11. He/She encourages others to handle important work decisions on their own. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 12. He/She is interested in making sure others reach their career goals. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 13. He/She puts others' best interests above his/her own. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 14. He/She is always honest. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 15. He/She takes time to talk to others on a personal level. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |

16. He/She is involved in community activities. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. He/She has a thorough understanding of the organization and its goals. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. He/She gives others the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way they feel is best. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. He/She provides others with work experiences that enable them to develop new skills. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. He/She sacrifices his/her own interests to meet others' needs. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. He/She would not compromise ethical principles in order to meet success. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. He/She can recognize when others are feeling down without asking them. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. He/She encourages others to volunteer in the community. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. He/She can solve work problems with new or creative ideas. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. If others need to make important decisions at work, they do not need to consult him/her. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26. He/She wants to know about others' career goals. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27. He/She does what he/she can to make others' jobs easier. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28. He/She values honesty more than profits. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix G

Morale Scale and Permission

The Morale Instruments: Morale Scale (Britt et al., 2007, 2013; Britt & Dickinson, 2006; Ivey et al., 2015). The following items refer to your motivation and enthusiasm for accomplishing your work objectives. Please rate the following items using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High

- _____ 1. Your level of motivation.
- _____ 2. Your level of morale.
- _____ 3. Your level of energy.
- _____ 4. Your level of drive.
- _____ 5. Your level of enthusiasm.
- _____ 6. Your level of eagerness.

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From: Norris Wise - Student <nxw4586@ego.thechicagoschool.edu>

Sent: Wednesday, October 23, 2019 1:12 PM

To: THOMAS BRITT <twbritt@clemson.edu>

Subject: Re: Request Copy of Measurement (6-item Military Morale Scale) for Dissertation research.

Thank you so much, Dr. Britt. I am truly thankful for your reply and the scale. I will.

Have a great balance of your week.

Sincerely,
Norris Wise

From: THOMAS BRITT <twbritt@clermson.edu>
Sent: Wednesday, October 23, 2019 4:31 AM
To: Norris Wise - Student <nxw4586@ego.thechicagoschool.edu>
Subject: RE: Request Copy of Measurement (6-item Military Morale Scale) for Dissertation research.

Sure Norris. Attached is the measure. Please keep me posted on the results. Tom

Thomas W. Britt, Ph.D.
Prisma Health Science Center Clemson Research Director
Professor of Psychology
Clemson University
Web Page: <https://www.clemson.edu/cbshs/faculty-staff/profiles/twbritt>

From: Norris Wise - Student <nxw4586@ego.thechicagoschool.edu>
Sent: Tuesday, October 22, 2019 1:51 AM
To: THOMAS BRITT <twbritt@clermson.edu>
Subject: Request Copy of Measurement (6-item Military Morale Scale) for Dissertation research.

Dear Dr. Britt:

I hope this email finds you doing well. My name is Norris Wise and I am a doctoral student in the Business Psychology Department (Organizational Leadership) at the Chicago School of Professional Psychology. I've read several articles by you and your colleague, Dr. J.M. Dickinson, including "*Morale during Military Operations: A Positive Psychology Approach*," as well as the book: *Military Life: The Psychology of Serving in Peace and Combat Military Performance, Volume 1*. In the book, you note in the section entitled, "Military Performance – Morale as a Motivational Orientation," a 6-item Military Moral Scale (Table 8.1) pertaining to the *level of motivation, morale, energy, drive, enthusiasm, and eagerness*. This scale is also noted in "*An assessment of the overlap between morale and work engagement in a nonoperational military sample*" (Ivey, Blanc, & Mantler, 2015).

I am writing my dissertation on servant leadership and its impact on employee morale and organizational commitment in the military. However, I am having a difficult time trying to locate the scale (outside of the noted book). I would graciously ask if you're able to provide a copy of the Military Morale Scale and request permission to use the scale for my study.

Thank you for your time, and I hope to hear from you soon.

Sincerely,
Norris Wise

Appendix H

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Affective)



Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Version Attached: Full Test

PsycTESTS Citation:

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). Organizational Commitment Questionnaire [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t08840-000>

Instrument Type: Inventory/Questionnaire

Test Format:

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire items are rated on a 7-point Likert scale with the following anchors: Strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree, strongly disagree.

Source:

Mowday, Richard T., Steers, Richard M., & Porter, Lyman W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol 14(2), 224-247. doi: 10.1016/0001-8791(79)90072-1, © 1979 by Elsevier. Reproduced by Permission of Elsevier.

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PsycTESTSTM is a database of the American Psychological Association



doi: 10.1037/t08840-000

Items

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire OCQ

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working (company name) please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by checking one of the seven alternatives below each statement. ^a

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (R)
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.
5. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. (R)
8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (R)
10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. (R)
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees. (R)
13. I really care about the fate of this organization.
14. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.
15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. (R)

^a Responses to each item are measured on a 7-point scale with scale point anchors labeled: (1) strongly disagree ; (2) moderately disagree ; (3) slightly disagree ; (4) neither disagree nor agree ; (5) slightly agree ; (6) moderately agree ; (7) strongly agree . An "R" denotes a negatively phrased and reverse scored item.

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Appendix I

Institutional Review Board Approval



INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD Expedited Approval

06-Mar-2020

IRB # : IRB-19-12-0015
 Study Title : Assessing Servant Leadership and its Relationship with Employee Morale and Organizational Commitment in the United States Marine Corps
 Principal Investigator: Wise, Norris
 Study Team : Wise, Norris~Rosen, Ian~
 Risk Level : Minimal Risk

Dear Investigator,

This notification certifies that the above referenced study has been reviewed by The Chicago School of Professional Psychology IRB. The committee has determined that the study meets the requirements for approval by expedited review under category 7.

Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Documents approved for use include informed consent document(s) and advertising material.

Please note that investigators and study personnel must comply with all applicable Federal, State, and local laws regarding the protection of human subjects in research, as well as all TCSPP policies and procedures. This includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- **Conducting Research:** Ensuring that the research is conducted according to the IRB approved research protocol. Investigators are responsible for the actions of all co-investigators and research staff involved with this research as well as the confidentiality of data. Research may only be conducted using the IRB approved documents included with this approval notice.
- **Modifications:** Proposed changes to this study or related documents must be submitted to the IRB via an *Addendum Application*. All changes must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to implementation. Failure to obtain prior approval could result in suspension of the study and additional action as necessary.

- **Unanticipated Problems and Study Deviations:** Timely and accurate reporting of all study unanticipated problems. An unanticipated problem is any problem or event which was unanticipated, reflects new or increased risk to the subjects and was possibly related to the research procedures. Study Deviation is any change in the study plan that was not previously approved by the IRB Committee.)
- **Recordkeeping:** Accurate record keeping of all study related documents, correspondence, and files.

In addition, all researchers are required to always follow the American Psychological Association's ethical principles and code of conduct, especially in regards to Section 8 of the ethical code ("research and publication"). Failure to conform to the APA ethical code may result in revocation of IRB approval.

Please keep this notification in your study records. You may contact the IRB office with any questions or concerns via the department mailbox IRB@TheChicagoSchool.edu.

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