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A Study of Collaborative Leadership in South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams

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Walden University
2016

Abstract

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MJPS, Auburn University at Montgomery, 1991

BA, Birmingham-Southern College, 1980

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

In 2007 South Carolina funded 15 regional coordinators to work with local law enforcement agencies and alcohol and drug commissions to create 16 community alcohol enforcement teams to improve enforcement of underage drinking laws. Previous researchers have suggested that collaborative leadership is needed for effective teams, yet little is known about the factors that serve as barriers to and facilitators of, collaborative leadership in alcohol enforcement teams. The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore the lived experiences of coordinators involved in leading the alcohol enforcement teams in South Carolina. The theoretical framework used was Cameron, Quinn, DeGraff, and Thankor's conceptualization of the competing values framework. Data were collected through in-depth interviews with a purposive sample of 12 alcohol team coordinators. These data were inductively coded and then subjected to a modified Van Manen and Vagle analysis. Key findings indicate strong support for the idea that existence of positive community relationships and supportive champions from community partners were crucial to building and maintaining successful teams. These findings were consistent with the theoretical framework. Recommendations include implementing leadership and collaboration training for the coordinators and team members. These findings have implications for positive social change by increasing awareness among policy makers about collaborative leadership factors, which in turn could lead to policies that generate more effectual teams, improve enforcement of underage drinking laws, and consequently, result in safer communities.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my mother, Bettye N. George, my maternal grandmother, Elizabeth H. Nation, and my wife, Martha T. George. All three women have had a tremendous impact on my life, and I have learned much through their patience, love, and care for others.

This dissertation is also dedicated to AET coordinators, who were the participant pool for this research. They work in South Carolina communities building and maintaining collaborative efforts. Overall, these women and men are faithful to making their communities safe by designing and implementing enforcement and education strategies meant to deny alcohol to individuals under 21 years old.

Acknowledgments

First, I thank my family, especially my wife, Marty, for unwavering support for me as this educational journey continued. Without their love and encouragement, it would have been much more difficult. My mother, Bettye N. George, and my maternal grandmother, Elizabeth H. Nation, encouraged me from the time I was a child to seek knowledge always as I traveled through life. I am sure they would have been proud that I completed this particular journey.

I thank Dr. William Benet, my dissertation committee chair. He stuck with me through my challenges as well as triumphs, provided valuable feedback on multiple revisions, and encouraged me to continue even when I was not quite sure I would complete my dissertation. I also want to thank my other committee member and methodology expert, Dr. Mark Stallo, for standing with me through this process. Dr. Tanya Settles served as my University Research Reviewer and I appreciate the feedback she provided.

I also thank Dr. Harold Holder, Senior Scientist Emeritus, Prevention Research Center in Oakland, California. Over the last year, Dr. Holder served as a mentor to me to learn more about evaluation involving community efforts against underage alcohol use and impaired driving. He has continuously encouraged me to complete my dissertation work.

I acknowledge the AET coordinators who participated in my research interviews. I also acknowledge Director Bob Toomey and Prevention Manager Michelle Nienhius with SC DAODAS as well as multiple Executive Directors with the local alcohol and

drug abuse authorities that comprise the 301 substance abuse treatment and prevention system in South Carolina. Without them allowing me access to the coordinators, I would not have been able to complete my dissertation research about the AETs.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Law enforcement agencies today are charged with some of the greatest challenges affecting society that call for collaboration, such as increasing crime rates (Walsh, 2001), threats of international and domestic terrorist attacks (Alexander, 2002), moral lapses of sworn and nonsworn personnel (Caldero & Crank, 2004), and dwindling resources because of low recruitment and budget cuts (Dempsey & Forst, 2008). One study used examples of New England police agencies possibly teaming with social service organizations in a community-policing environment to address youth violence within local communities (Peaslee, 2009). M. B. Williams (2013) discussed a collaborative effort between a university and the community that included law enforcement meant to address student binge drinking. S. Martin and Guarneros-Meza (2013) examined local service boards that involved members of the local police, health departments, governing councils, and other community organizations prioritizing local problems, such as domestic abuse, crime, or antisocial behavior, then planning and addressing the priorities together.

However, U.S. law enforcement agencies face a number of challenges in fostering more collaboration. Some agencies are resistant, even though, as Peaslee (2009) noted, governmental departments expect law enforcement agencies to collaborate. Yet, "bureaucratic conditioning and cumbersome chains of command" discourage collaboration (Wheatley, 2006, p. 174), as does a lack of trust between potential partners (Brewer, 2013). Organizational dysfunction and rigidity and the lack of shared decision making deter collaboration and also increase employee stress and turnover (Edelman,

2007; O'Hara, 2005; Stinchcomb, 2004). Simply stated, challenges to collaborative efforts are interrelated.

Leadership is widely recognized as important to the success of the group efforts (Boal, 2000; B. Crosby & Bryson, 2005; Jen-Te, 2007; Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Printy, 2010) however, not just any leadership roles, styles, or behaviors encourage collaboration (Lavine & Cameron, 2012; Zu, Robbins, & Fredendall, 2010). Ibarra and Hansen (2011) stated that the leadership needed to establish and maintain collaboration is "the capacity to engage people and groups outside of one's formal control and inspire them to work toward common goals—despite differences in convictions, cultural values, and operating norms" (p. 73). In other words, coalition and team leaders depend on influence rather than position to persuade positive community direction.

Chapter 1 illuminates the importance of leadership and collaborations as well as some of the challenges to building a collaborative environment. In the following sections, I discuss the background of the study and present the problem statement, research questions, and purpose of the study. In addition, I provide an overview of the theoretical framework informing this study and a rationale for my qualitative phenomenological research design. Some of the terms may have varying meanings to readers or may be unique to this particular study; therefore, I offer conceptual definitions. Next, I outline the key assumptions, scope, and delimitations of the study. I conclude the chapter by discussing the significance of the study and implications for potential social change and summarizing key points.

Background of the Study

One reason law enforcement agencies and others collaborate is to deny access to alcohol to individuals under 21 years old in local communities (Barry, Edwards, & Pelletier, 2004; Nargiso et al., 2013). In 2007, the South Carolina General Assembly passed Senate Bill 213 (S.C. Burritt & M.M. Nienhius, personal communication, August 17, 2007). Governor Mark Sanford signed the bill, and most of the act became law on July 1, 2007 ("The Prevention of Underage Drinking and Access to Alcohol Act," 2007).

This particular act upgraded South Carolina underage drinking laws as well as required that a local team strategy be used for underage drinking enforcement and education within South Carolina communities (M. Nienhius, personal communication, August 18, 2007). As a part of the strategy, state and federal funds were budgeted to support implementation of alcohol enforcement teams (AET). The South Carolina General Assembly provided the AET funds to the South Carolina Department of Alcohol and Other Drug Abuse Services (DAODAS). In turn, DAODAS distributed the funds to local alcohol and drug commissions and law enforcement agencies in South Carolina.

The leadership experiences of South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Team (SCAET) coordinators are the focus of my research. The SCAET is unique in the country because no other state has implemented a similar strategy statewide with emphasis on local law enforcement and community partners working toward a common goal of reducing alcohol access to citizens who are less than 21 years old. Some states employ state officers to enforce underage drinking laws at the local level (Imm, Chinman, &

Wandersman, 2007). Several states have AETs at the local level within certain urban jurisdictions, but South Carolina is unique in the development of this team approach.

Sixteen judicial circuits extend throughout the 46 South Carolina counties. Many circuits cover only two counties, but some circuits cover up to five counties. Each circuit has an elected solicitor that prosecutes criminal charges within the circuit. The solicitor hires assistant solicitors to prosecute certain criminal cases within the circuit. Within the state, there are approximately 265 municipal, county, college, and university police agencies. Additionally, 33 alcohol and drug commissions cover the 46 counties in South Carolina. In many cases, the alcohol drug commission covers one county, but, in others, the commission may cover up to three counties. These alcohol and drug commissions offer substance abuse treatment to county residents and focus prevention efforts in the areas of possible alcohol and drug abuse.

For the purposes of the AETs, one alcohol and drug commission volunteered to be the lead agency for the AET within each judicial circuit. As the lead agency, it received the funding from DAODAS and hired a local AET coordinator. The lead agency provided funding to local law enforcement agencies to enforce the underage drinking laws. Within each circuit, there may be multiple alcohol drug commissions, law enforcement agencies, and others involved in underage drinking efforts. The collaboration can be challenging because of the sheer number of partners involved in the coalition, but there is continuity of leadership, communication, and coordination through the assignment of an AET coordinator in each circuit.

Even though there are 16 judicial circuit teams, there are 15 AET coordinators because one AET coordinator leads two teams. In some cases, the AET coordinator has current or previous law enforcement experience. In other cases, the AET coordinator has a background in substance abuse prevention. Some AET coordinators have varied experiences in formal leadership positions while others do not have any experience. As with the general population, personal and professional experiences likely inform current leadership and management actions within the local AET. Because the AETs are grant funded, DAODAS received an annual application for continued funding. Since teams have been in existence statewide since August 2007, there have been continuous personnel changes including AET coordinators on the teams and at times, this change has challenged local AET efforts as a new coordinator gained insight into collaborative leadership.

At times, AET partners have been confounded by the AET structure. The structure of the SCAET is complex because of the many partners, teams, and coalitions in South Carolina. To support local AET efforts, DAODAS staff members provide technical assistance and AET training for local law enforcement as well as federal grant and state funding for AET operations through the host alcohol and drug commission. Continued two-way communication between coordinators and DAODAS staff is accomplished through e-mail with phone calls almost weekly. In addition, face-to-face Coordinator meetings occur every two months. If the AET coordinator believes that his or her team requires training, he or she requests training from DAODAS. In some cases, other AET coordinators provide advice on solving common problems.

Based on my review of the literature, researchers have not conducted and published scholarly studies focused on collaborative leadership in alcohol teams involving officers enforcing underage drinking laws in South Carolina. Boal and Hooijberg (2000) encouraged "researchers to gain a better understanding of the processes that lead to effective strategic leadership by focusing on the essence of leadership" (p. 539). Consequently, I used phenomenological methods to research the experiences of team leaders of the AETs and gain insight on the factors that serve as barriers to, and facilitators of, collaborative leadership within those teams.

My research focused on the lived experiences of coordinators of alcohol enforcement teams as they implemented and maintained leadership within the teams. The competing values framework (CVF) offers a means of interpreting and describing the components of leadership (Zafft, Adams, & Matkin, 2009). Originally developed from research concerning effective organizational performance, CVF provides a framework to assess leadership toward competing priorities, values, and preferences within organizations and teams (Cameron, Quinn, DeGraff, & Thankor, 2006). I used the CVF to interpret and describe experiences of the AET coordinators for what collaborative leadership meant to them.

Problem Statement

Previous researchers have suggested that flexible and emerging leadership is crucial to influencing collaborative efforts between various organizations (Cameron, 2008, 2013; Wise, 2002). In my study, I examined the factors that serve as barriers to, and facilitators of, collaborative leadership in the SCAET. Although some law

enforcement agencies exhibit command and control management structures that discourage collaboration (Nichols, 1995; Perez & Barkhurst, 2012), collaboration teams formed among officers, organizations, and citizens in other locations with horizontal organization structures (Berman & West, 1995; Pearce, Manz, & Sims Jr, 2009; Yero, Othman, Samah, D'Silva, & Sulaiman, 2012). While police officers are asked to work in partnership to solve community crime and disorder problems (Fielding, 2005; Puonti, 2003), the lack of familiarity with collaborative work environments sometimes create challenges to establishing collaboration. Although past studies have focused on collaboration within public, private, and nonprofit sector organizations, little empirical research has focused on collaboration attempts within law enforcement teams. In addition, there were no studies of collaborative leadership within alcohol enforcement teams. In this study, I described and interpreted AET coordinators' lived experiences toward collaborative effort in law enforcement teams.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to describe and interpret the lived experiences of AET coordinators toward collaborative efforts in alcohol enforcement teams working in South Carolina. I conducted in-depth qualitative interviews to understand coordinators' experiences in developing collaborative efforts within law enforcement teams. The information I learned through this study offered insight and applicability to implementing effective alcohol enforcement teams involving law enforcement officers working with officers from adjacent or concurrent jurisdictions as well as community partners in those jurisdictions. It may also lend to a better

understanding of a collaborative leadership organizational structure within law enforcement agencies that typically exhibit command and control organizational structure.

Research Questions

This phenomenological study was designed to explore leadership styles and roles within collaborative work teams. The following questions guided the inquiry:

RQ1. What factors are barriers to, and facilitators of, collaborative leadership among SCAET coordinators?

RQ2. What leadership factors increase the ability of SCAET coordinators to establish collaborative relationships?

Theoretical Framework for the Study

One purpose of the theoretical framework is to serve as a lens for a researcher to understand a phenomenon better (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The theoretical framework for this research involved the CVF, a multidimensional focused leadership model developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999, 2006, 2011). Peaslee (2009) and E. J. Williams (2003) argued that law enforcement leaders should implement organizational structures and cultures that enhance collaboration; thus, CVF offered a view for establishing collaborative organizations and work teams through leadership efforts (Brumback, 2008; Huping & Wenxuan, 2013; Lavine & Cameron, 2012; Parolini & Parolini, 2012; Yang & Shao, 1996). Collaboration requires extensive flexibility while affecting control to maintain stability, which may appear paradoxical and contradictory to traditional command and control managers (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003). The mainstay of the

CVF is that it offered indicators to evaluate multiple leaders' experiences toward effective collaboration efforts (Lippert & Gaáil, 2014; Shine & Bartley, 2011; Talbot, 2008).

Nature of the Study

My study used a phenomenological qualitative research method to determine factors serving as barriers of or facilitators to collaborative leadership in alcohol enforcement teams. Researchers use phenomenological methods to understand the experiences of study participants involved in a shared phenomenon (Chenail, 2011; Creswell, 2007, 2009). Based on the methodological approach, I gathered data from participants on perceptions about experiences with collaborative leadership. Fifteen Alcohol Enforcement Team coordinators cover the 16 law enforcement teams in South Carolina. I interviewed 12 coordinators that accepted my voluntary invitation to participate in open-ended interviews. I recorded, transcribed, and analyzed the interviews for thematic categories.

Definitions

The following are conceptual definitions for key terms used in this study:

Collaboration: A phenomenon in which cross-sector organizations and/or internal stakeholders' collaboration toward common goals with the outcome owned by parties involved in the joint effort (Connelly, Zhang, & Faerman, 2008; Crim, Grabowski, Neher, & Mathiassen, 2011; Crosby & Bryson, 2010; Linden, 2002). Other names for this phenomeno18n include "alliances, coalitions, community-based collaborative, networks, and partnerships" (Connelly et al., 2008, p. 18).

Collaborative effort: Faerman, McCaffrey, and Van Slyke (2001) described a collaborative effort as an endeavor meant to transcend possible conflict to work collectively on an issue or issues. Faerman et al. (2001) stated four factors designate success or failure with the efforts, namely, (a) attitude toward the cooperation, (b) existing matters and motivations, (c) leadership, and (d) quantity and type of organizations involved (p. 373). The leadership Faerman et al. (2001) advocated for involved participatory, shared, or cooperative patterns.

Command and control: Wilson (2013) argued that command and control leadership finds a basis in hierarchical restrictions and a coercive approach to attempting organizational missions. Traditional managed law enforcement agencies exhibit command and control structures (Cropp, 2012).

Leadership: Disagreements through the years have pitted individuals who believe leadership is a position against those who believe leadership is more a process. Hogg (2001) stated that leadership is "a process of influence that enlists and mobilizes the movement of others in the attainment of collective goals; it is not a coercive process which power is exercised over others" (p. 194). Thus, this dissertation research adopted leadership as a process rather than necessarily involving a position within an organization.

Assumptions

Assumptions are what researchers hold true for they believe they will able to draw conclusions (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). For instance, I assumed that the AET coordinators were honest and responded truthfully to the interview questions. It would be

difficult for me to determine conclusions about their experiences without having this belief. To ensure that the chances are greater the AET coordinators answered honestly, I emphasized that their answers were anonymous and confidential. I also emphasized that there were no right or wrong answers. Second, I assumed AET coordinators wanted to do what was best for their local jurisdiction in regards to the alcohol enforcement teams. In this regard toward collaboration, individual AET coordinators were in a better position to understand political and economic issues as well as community needs and desires toward establishing his or her team efforts than others either not local or not involved in the underage drinking enforcement effort.

The coordinator's experiences with collaborative efforts were important to my research. Third, Van Manen (2014) stated the phenomenological research method focus on lived experiences of those involved in the studied phenomenon. I assumed that the participants' lived experiences allowed them to express their perceptions of coordinating the AETs. Finally, I assumed that leadership played a role in attempts to build collaborative efforts. Therefore, I described and interpreted the coordinators' perceptions of lived experiences with a focus on the collaborative leadership they may or may not have provided in the AET.

Scope and Delimitations

Delimitations are the bounds or scope of the study (Creswell, 2007). The scope of the study is that it focused on the lived experiences of coordinators leading underage drinking enforcement teams in South Carolina. I offer every coordinator an opportunity to participate in the research study. Because 12 coordinators volunteered for the study, it

was delimitated to the lived experiences of those coordinators of alcohol enforcement teams in South Carolina.

Van Manen (2014) maintained phenomenological research does not necessarily lead to empirical generalizations; however, Van Manen added information discovered about a phenomenon through a specific phenomenological study could offer universal points about the studied phenomenon. In addition, Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) stated the goal of qualitative research is not generalizability but the goal is transferability for similar phenomenon environments (p. 8). In this line, the information learned through this study offered insight and applicability to implementing effective alcohol enforcement teams involving law enforcement officers working with officers from adjacent or concurrent jurisdictions as well as community partners in those jurisdictions.

Limitations

Limitations exist for all research studies regardless of design. Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) indicated the limitations of a research study are "external conditions that restrict or constrain the study scope or may affect the outcome" (p. 8). One limitation of this study is its participants are AET coordinators involved in alcohol enforcement teams in South Carolina; therefore, the results may not be transferable to all collaborative efforts. Another limitation is that no previous research exists for alcohol enforcement collaboration. I assumed information about other collaborative efforts applied to the teams studied for this research. Even though the study explored the AET coordinators' efforts to implement and maintain a collaborative enforcement team, the team on which they participated may not have been collaborative. This said, it was important to explore

experiences of failed collaboration as well as successful ones (Croker, Trede, & Higgs, 2012) to gain knowledge about factors that serve as barriers to and facilitators of collaborative efforts. Within the context of participant interviews, Patton (2002) stated the emotional state of the interviewee (e.g., anger or disinterest), supplying self-serving information (e.g., enhancing efforts toward collaboration or related to failed collaboration attempt), or recall errors could affect interview data.

It is possible the participants interviewed were biased (positively or negatively) because they are involved in local AET efforts and I am involved with state level AET activities. To counter this issue, I emphasized that my researcher role was separate from my role as state AET liaison. I explained that research study discovery might positively influence future collaborative efforts, and that it is important to be forthcoming as possible in the interviews. I address these limitations in detail in Chapter 3.

To minimize and therefore address the limitation concerning hermeneutic analysis, I utilized CVF indicators to compare to themes derived from participant interviews. Researchers established the CVF indicators in multiple instances of previous research involving various research methods, both qualitative and quantitative, as well as varying methodological paradigms. I discuss this process in more detail in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 as well as in Chapter 5.

Significance of the Study

This study was designed to address an important gap in the literature to understand what is needed to implement and maintain collaborative efforts within alcohol enforcement teams in South Carolina. The information learned through this study offers

insight and applicability to implementing effective alcohol enforcement teams involving law enforcement officers working with officers from adjacent or concurrent jurisdictions as well as community partners in those jurisdictions. It may also lead to a better understanding of a collaborative leadership organizational structure within law enforcement agencies that typically exhibit command and control organizational structure.

In addition, this study is significant in several other ways. The study contributes to a better understanding of how law enforcement officers organize teams when given the opportunity to work in a collaborative environment with other law enforcement officers and community members. The information from this research can help create collaborative community teams whose members can use resources more efficiently and coordinate work more effectively. Whether the teams are focusing on alcohol enforcement, terrorism, or overall public safety within a community, a collaborative team may more readily accomplish its goals and objectives.

Summary

In this chapter, I presented the background, the problem statement, the purpose of the student, research questions, nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study in this chapter. Also discussed was the theoretical framework, competing values framework (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011), which is expanded upon in Chapter 2. Chapter 2 also presents a review of the literature concerning barriers to and facilitators of collaboration, collaboration in a

command and control context, and the historical research on leadership, culminating in a discussion of collaborative leadership.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In many communities in the United States, collaboration among public organizations and community stakeholders is required to solve complex problems. Depending on the circumstances, law enforcement agencies are important stakeholders in collaborative efforts (Bayley, 2008; Joyal, 2012; Stewart, 2011). Researchers have shown that flexible and emerging leadership is crucial to influencing collaborative efforts (Cameron, 2008, 2013; Rost, 1991; Wise, 2002); however, some law enforcement agencies exhibit strict command and control management structures that discourage collaborative leadership (Nichols, 1995; Perez & Barkhurst, 2012). Discussing public sector organizations in general, Gawthrop (2005) maintained that command and control systems are not designed for participatory decision making, collaboration, and responsiveness. In summary, successful collaborative endeavors depend on an understanding and practice of horizontal management structures that embrace values of communication, trust, and sharing.

The purpose of this qualitative study was to gain insight about SCAET coordinators' experiences with collaboration, especially collaborative leadership, in their work. In this chapter, I examine literature related to the research questions presented in Chapter 1. In the first section of this chapter, I discuss the literature search strategy. Next, I present Quinn and Cameron's (1983) CVF model, which is the theoretical framework for the research study. In the next section of Chapter 2, I discuss collaboration facilitators and barriers, followed by research concerning collaboration within a command and control context. To highlight key leadership practices that promote collaborative capacity,

I then consider major leadership research of the past 100 years; I consider “great men” theories of leadership as well as more holistic and integrative leadership theories. The section concludes with a discussion of leadership toward collaborative efforts, where I advocate collaborative leadership from a CVF approach. Finally, I review similar and differing research methodologies concerning collaborative leadership.

Literature Search Strategy

I retrieved print and electronic resources for this study from the Walden University online library. In addition, I located seminal works concerning CVF, leadership, and collaboration cited in multiple articles I reviewed. I accessed the following online research databases as a part of this literature search: Academic Search Complete/Premier, Business Source Complete/Premier, PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, and Management & Organization. The initial searches included the following terms: *competing values framework, competing values leadership, organizational culture, collaboration, organization, management methods, shared leadership, community policing, alcohol enforcement teams, underage drinking enforcement, leadership roles,* and *leadership models.* Those searches yielded 168 articles. I conducted additional searches using a combination of the following terms: *behavioral complexity, competing values approach, cognitive complexity, collaboration, collaborative capacity, leadership competencies, leadership development, organizational effectiveness,* and *leading organizational change.* By using these terms, I found another 156 additional articles. Ultimately, I found 158 references that provided information for this literature review.

Theoretical Foundation

Traditionally, researchers and practitioners evaluated organizational performance based on measuring inputs, processes, and outputs only (Quinn & Cameron, 1983; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). The CVF approach offers researchers and practitioners an additional and more holistic model to assess organizational effectiveness. Originally, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) investigated the association between culture and organizations, and then aligned the effectiveness criteria along a vertical axis and horizontal axis. Figure 1 depicts the grid established by joining of the two axis. Later investigations emphasized the importance of organizational culture influences on the work environment (Goodman, Zammuto, & Gifford, 2001). The framework assists researchers and practitioners alike in better understanding various organizational issues. Consequently, the framework has been named as one of the top 40 important business organization frameworks (ten Have, ten Have, Stevens, & van der Elst, 2003) and has been used to assess hundreds of organizational and leadership studies over the past 3 decades (König, Diehl, Tscherning, & Helming, 2013).

The framework was an integration of classical organizational theories from other researchers who offered analysis frameworks for organizations and work teams (Cameron, 1978; Quinn & McGrath, 1982; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Rohrbaugh, 1980; Rohrbaugh, McClelland, & Quinn, 1980; Thakor, 2010; Whetten & Cameron, 1984). The fundamental premise for the framework centered on “multiple and conflicting criteria assessing organizational performance and multiple constituencies” (Martz, 2013, p. 8) which can vary according to organizational direction and interest. The main point of CVF

is that organizational leaders and stakeholders should make organizational decisions based sometimes competing as well as paradoxical standards and values.

CVF researchers (Cameron, 1978; Quinn & McGrath, 1982; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) drew from four mainstream organizational theories in developing their theory of organizational culture. In one of the seminal studies concerning CVF, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) identified the prominent organizational theories as open-systems model, human relations model, internal process model, and rational goal model. Škerlavaj, Štemberger, Škrinjar, and Dimovski (2007) noted that these organizational theories or models are ideals, and organizations are not necessarily purely one model or the other. Others similarly maintained that while one model may be dominant within an organization, many organizations exhibit characteristics of two or more of the organizational models (Cameron, 1986; Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Cooper & Quinn, 1993; Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). For optimum performance, managers, supervisors, and employees should be cognizant of varied organizational and cultural aspects that exist within organizations (Cameron et al., 2006). Based on these characteristics, achievements and assessments of effectiveness correctly reflect performance.

The CVF functions to distinguish methods to organizational design, stages of life cycle development, organizational quality, theories of effectiveness, leadership roles, roles of human resource managers, and management skills (Cameron & Quinn, 1999, 2006, 2011). The framework has been employed to conduct analysis of individual and dyadic work groups (Zafft et al., 2009), and organizations (Kinghorn, Black, & Oliver,

2011). It has been used in peer-reviewed studies about public agencies (Close & Wainwright, 2010), private companies (Giritli, Öney-Yazıcı, Topçu-Oraz, & Acar, 2013), and nonprofit organizations (Crim, Grabowski, Neher, & Mathiassen, 2011). Later in this literature review, I focus on leadership activities toward developing collaborative efforts using a CVF as a research lens.

Three organizational dimensions comprise the CVF model. Organizational focus lies on the horizontal (X) axis. This dimension emphasizes actions that are internal and people oriented or external and organizational oriented (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). The organizational structure facet lies on a vertical (Y) axis. This dimension involves flexibility and change against stability and controlled orientation (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). The third dimension involves a means-ends continuum reflected through process or outcome effectiveness (McCartt & Rohrbaugh, 1995). By assessing current dimensions and then deciding a new course for the organization, leaders and followers visualize a path for organizational change to tackle current organizational challenges better.

Several measures are used to appraise organizational effectiveness established by previous organizational theorists. Requesting input from established organizational theorists and researchers, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) identified 17 criteria that measured organizational effectiveness: cohesion, morale, human resource development, flexibility, readiness, growth, resource acquisition, external support, planning, goal setting, productivity, efficiency, information management, communication, stability, and control. By finding consensus on these points, decisions made about organizational

effectiveness would be more objective because the criterion points match the required organizational direction.

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) placed the criterion points on a three-dimensional space, and four organizational models emerged. The four main organizational cultural types identified in organizational research form the foundation for the CVF. Originally, the CVF researchers titled the four quadrants as the human relations model, the open systems model, the internal process model, and the rational goal model (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983) to reflect the main organizational theories current at the time. Later, Denison and Spreitzer (1991) identified the respective quadrants were labeled as group, developmental, hierarchical, and rational cultures. Cameron and Quinn (2006) labeled the quadrants as clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market. For clarity of better description through labeling, Cameron et al. (2006) changed the quadrants to Collaborate, Create, Control, and Compete, respectively. These labels more directly reflected the focus of the quadrants, permitting better ease of understanding for the organizational model.

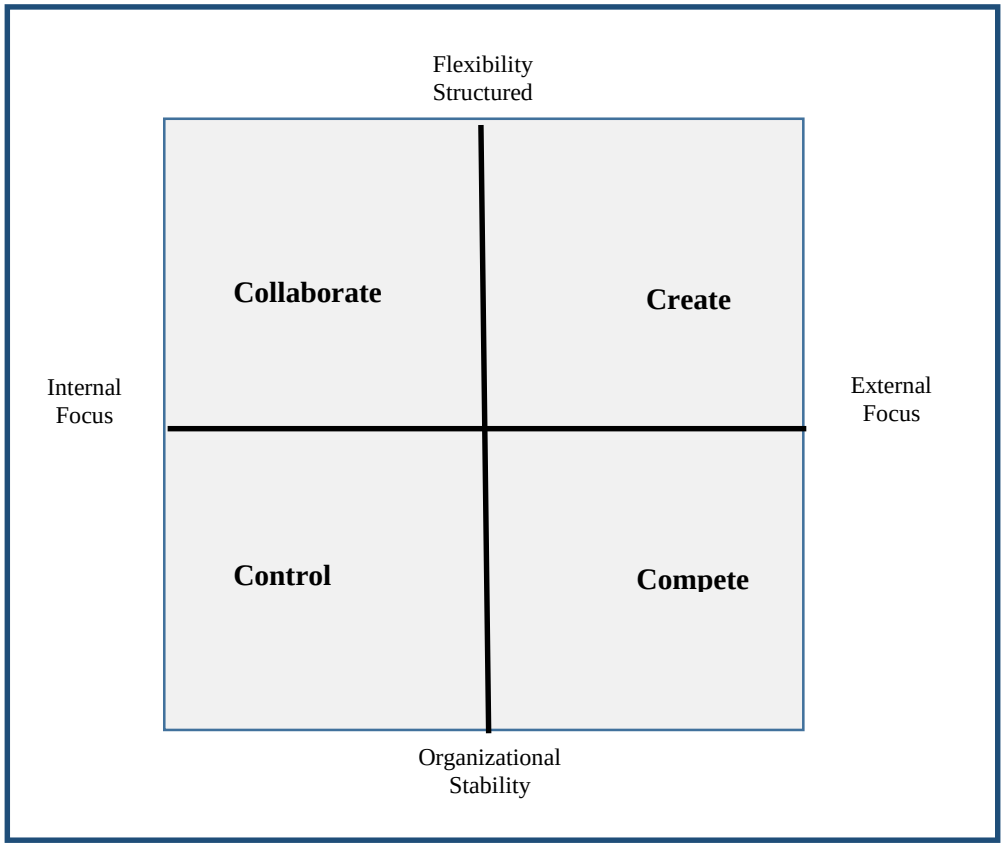

Figure 1. Competing values framework. (CVF)

The Create quadrant foci are external and flexibly structured. Situated on the top-right side of the quadrant grid, the leadership roles that are present within this quadrant are innovator and broker. Leaders are effective when they are pioneering, imaginative, and transformational and value drivers are innovative outputs, transformation, and agility (Cameron et al., 2006). The broker role entails competencies of building and maintaining a power base, negotiating agreement and commitment, negotiating and selling ideas. The innovator role entails competencies of living with change, creative thinking, and managing change. The innovator role resides in the Create quadrant within the CVF. Leaders that exhibit the characteristics of this quadrant are visionary.

The Collaborate quadrant foci are internal and flexibly structured. As the label indicates, this organizational culture is almost family oriented and teamwork is respected. The value drivers are commitment, communication, and development (Cameron et al., 2006). Leadership roles are described as facilitator and mentor. The facilitator role entails competencies of team building, participative decision-making, and conflict management. The mentor role entails competencies of understanding oneself and others, interpersonal communication, and developing subordinates. These leaders are team builders.

Positioned directly below Collaborate, the Control quadrant foci are internal and places emphasis on organizational stability (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Value drivers are efficiency, timeliness, consistency, and uniformity. The Control quadrant is rule based and firm in order to achieve steadiness. Leader role choices are labeled as coordinator and monitor. The coordinator role entails competencies of planning, organizing, and controlling. The monitor role entails competencies of receiving and organizing, evaluating routine information, and responding to routine information. Cameron et al. (2006) stated that leaders are effective when they "control resources efficiently through capable processes" (p. 32).

The Compete quadrant exists directly horizontal to the Control quadrant. The foci for the Compete quadrant are external while emphasizing control. Leadership roles available within this quadrant are competitor and producer. The producer role entails competencies of personal productivity and motivation, motivating others, and time and stress management. The director role entails competencies of taking initiative, goal setting, and delegating effectively. Subordinates and peers usually view these leaders as a

hard-driven supervisor or manager. Leaders are effective when they aggressively compete and focus externally on the mission exclusively. Value drivers are market share, goal achievement, and profitability.

When viewed as a two-by-two grid, the quadrants horizontal to another quadrant are complementary while vertical quadrants are contrasting (Hunt, 1996). Quinn (1988) found that organizational research concerning effectiveness stemmed from these dimensions even though some individuals viewed these dimension as contradictory. As such, managers push organizational structure one direction with control and stability only to overcompensate with change and flexibility. This is analogous to adding too much weight to balance scales. The additional weight tips the scale the opposite direction when actually optimum weight measurement requires equilibrium. The goal is for opposing leadership actions to achieve organizational balance.

The foundation for the CVF contributes to an understanding of organizational culture, which, in turn, can assist leaders in developing change strategies (Cameron et al, 2006). Consequently, Cameron et al. (2006) called this type of leadership "competing values leadership." Because the CVF highlights apparent paradoxical temperament of work environments, it offers views concerning the "convolution of choices faced by managers when responding to competing tensions" (Belasen & Frank, 2010, p. 280). Leaders utilize strategies to move organizations and work teams toward more effectiveness (Quinn & McGrath, 1982).

To assist managers and others within organizations to discern organizational culture, Cameron and Quinn (1999) developed a measurement instrument called

Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). The instrument covered six domains with four items assessed within each domain. Respondents weight each item with a maximum of 100 points in each domain. The assessed point system plots on a 2 x 2 quadrant grid, which reveals the boundary aspects of the organizational culture. The boundary aspects plotted on a quadrant chart correspond to the four culture-type quadrants within the CVF. To affect cultural change within an organization, leader-managers plot the desired boundary aspects, and then develop a plan toward organizational culture change (Quinn & Cameron, 1988). The plan should contain strategies meant to focus efforts on the differing value drivers in the desired organizational culture.

Therefore, the competing value approach concentrates on leadership activity to affect organizational performance. Identified combinations of leadership competencies, leadership roles, and value orientations assist in determining organizational activities (Quinn, 1988; Quinn, Faerman, Thompson, McGrath, & St. Clair, 1996). For instance, motivator, the identified leadership role in the Collaborate quadrant matches to specific core competencies of understanding self and others, communicating effectively, and developing subordinates. The motivator role purpose is to build teams, enact participating decision making, and manage conflict (Quinn et al., 1996). Quinn et al. (1996) classified three other leadership roles: Vision Setter, within the adhocracy quadrant; Taskmaster, within the market quadrant; and Analyzer, within the hierarchy quadrant.

Although conceiving balance for competing and often contradictory leadership roles is daunting, the framework offers methods to achieve that goal. Balanced between

roles, traits, and behaviors, leaders and managers utilize appropriate leadership activities to navigate organizational efforts without depending on any one model or leadership theory (Quinn, 1988; Quinn et al., 1996). To assist in finding leadership activities, Cameron and Quinn (1999) developed the Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI), which measures leadership activity based on the preceding leadership and value combinations. MSAI users employ the information to develop leadership competencies in other quadrants where their skills are lacking or weak.

The MSAI utilizes a series of questions to gauge managers or leaders' self-assessment of management skills. The Collaborate quadrant yields measurement on managing teams, managing interpersonal relationships, and managing the development of others. The Create quadrant requires skills in managing innovation, managing the future, and managing continuous improvements. Likewise, the Compete quadrant involves managing competiveness, energizing employees, and managing customer service. Finally, the Control quadrant comprises managing acculturation, managing the control system, and managing coordination.

Other researchers worked with Quinn to develop another leadership instrument based on the CVF quadrants. Lawrence, Lenk, and Quinn (2009) validated the instrument that measured behavioral complexity in leadership. Behavioral complexity is based on the idea that effective managers or leaders encourage an integration of competing or paradoxical organizational roles (Quinn, 1988; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). Managers and leaders who exhibit high levels of behavioral complexity integrate more organizational roles than do managers and leaders who do not exhibit lower levels (Boal,

2000). Consequently, leaders with higher levels of behavioral complexity manage organizations more effectively than leaders with lower levels of behavioral complexity (Hooijberg & Petrock, 1993).

Previous Research on Competing Values Framework

The CVF has provided practitioners a holistic model of organizational effectiveness (Lee & Brower, 2006), and researchers have used the CVF in quantitative and qualitative studies since the early 1980s (Büschgens, Bausch, & Balkin, 2013; Helfrich, Li, Mohr, Meterko, & Sales, 2007; Rojas, 2000). Denison and Spreitzer (1991) stated that quantitative studies tend to concentrate on variables of interest to researchers rather than include "concepts that the actors in the system use of describe themselves and their organizations" (p. 7). Denison and Spreitzer added that qualitative methods tend to lend understanding of social systems through the eyes of the participant. Since I proposed the use of qualitative methods in this research utilizing the CVF, I concentrated on previous research involving this approach.

A diagnostic tool developed from themes concerning organizational culture and leadership direction that informs researchers and practitioners about organizational aspects is intriguing. The CVF dimensions of organizational focus (internal/external), structural preference (flexible/control), and managerial concern (means/ends) presented a "diagnostic tool in understanding and developing organizational effectiveness" (Crim, Grabowski, Neher, & Mathiassen, 2011, p. 8). Over the last decade, in multiple incidents of research opportunities concerning the CVF, researchers applied versions of the CVF instrument to survey thoughts and opinions concerning organizational as well as

leadership issues (Bosch et al., 2011; Jingjit & Fotaki, 2011; Lippert & Gaáil, 2014; Riggs & Hughey, 2011; Scott-Cawiezell, Jones, Moore, & Vojir, 2005). These researchers used the CVF instrument to triangulate their observations and data derived from interviews (Bosch et al., 2011; Riggs & Hughey, 2011; Scott-Cawiezell, Jones, & Moore, 2005) and apply thematic analysis of the CVF survey data (Jingjit & Fotaki, 2010). Lippert and Gaáil (2014) used qualitative interviews to enhance a version of the CVF questionnaire. In general, the research results described and interpreted leadership influences over organizational culture.

The CVF informs organizational culture and other related organizational aspects. For instance, Scheltinga, Rietjens, De Boer, and Wilderom (2005) reported a qualitative case study on an alliance between the military and aid workers in Bosnia. Participants from the military as well as the humanitarian aid group working the same area of Bosnia were administered a version of the CVF questionnaire. Scheltinga et al. used the CVF and questionnaire assessment to access organizational cultures between the military and humanitarian aid participants (p. 61). Once the participants completed the questionnaires, the research team conducted semistructured interviews of both groups of participants for more in-depth details of the collaboration.

Diverse organizational cultures challenge collaborative effort attempts (Brewer, 2013). This was evident to Scheltinga et al. (2005) in the alliance in Bosnia they investigated. Scheltinga et al. discovered the military organization was structured hierarchically. According to Cameron and Quinn (1999), hierarchical organizations are controlled by rules and regulations. Although rules and regulations are necessary, overly

adherence to rules and regulations can create an organizational environment where work decisions are slow and deliberate. Communication was more formal and personal relationships outside the internal work team were not necessarily valued or pursued.

Conversely, Scheltinga et al. (2005) determined the competencies prevalent in the humanitarian groups were organizational commitment, flexibility, teamwork, and communication skills. Cameron and Quinn (1999) labeled this organizational culture as Collaborate. Cameron and Quinn positioned Control and Collaborate organizational cultures in opposing internal quadrants. Once organizational cultures in opposition were revealed, it did not surprise Scheltinga et al. that collaboration conflicts existed from time to time. The lack of understanding of each culture between stakeholder groups appeared to be the culprit of the problems. Similar to Scheltinga, et al., Lapidus-Graham (2012) identified lack of communication as contributing to conflict between team members. Also, Lapidus-Graham maintained the negative issues related to communication created challenges to even resolving the conflict. Without maintenance and attempt at understanding of the others involved in the collaborative effort as well as communication problems, the collaboration may fail.

Scheltinga et al. (2005) obtained information on the experiences of participants to establish positive and particular activities to maintain collaborative efforts in the future. The main activities suggested for the collaboration involved extensive training about cultural differences between stakeholder organizations, deliberate selection of personnel, and opportunities for joint culture-based events between stakeholders. Scheltinga et al. maintained the activities were meant to “promote cultural awareness and respect, and to

reconcile any perceived differences" (p. 67) and offered opportunities for relationship building (Strier, 2014). Morse (2010) as well as Chenoweth and Clarke (2010) maintained capacity building or training afforded opportunities for social interaction needed when teams are in the building phase.

Wilkinson (2010) conducted quantitative research using the CVF and investigated leadership roles prevalent within the restaurant profession. Managers of fast-casual, casual, and quick-service restaurants were surveyed for differences in leadership roles, as defined by the CVF and related to leadership competencies in maintaining or changing an organizational culture (Cameron et al., 2006). Wilkinson (2010) pointed out that previous research had focused on the relationship between manager leadership style and job satisfaction and on subordinates but not on managers. Through concentration on manager job satisfaction and leadership roles displayed by those managers, the study examined differences between the types of restaurants, gender differences, and use of leadership roles and seniority with the particular employer as well as overall time in management. Wilkinson discovered that there was no significant relationship between the use of leadership roles and manager job satisfaction. However, the strongest relationship existed between the facilitator role and job satisfaction for the manager. Under Cameron and Quinn's (1999) leadership roles, the facilitator role is one of two roles contained in the Collaborate quadrant. The other role in the Collaborate quadrant is the mentor role. Wilkinson discovered quick-service managers had the strongest relationship to job satisfaction utilizing that leadership role. Facilitator and mentor roles, Wilkinson concluded, are indicative of teamwork, communication, and human development.

Quinn (1999) contended leaders should balance contrasting and paradoxical roles to enhance organizational efforts effectively. Wilkinson (2010) did not specifically address organizational effectiveness; however, the results suggested managers undertook multiple leadership roles regardless of the type of restaurant. Wilkinson determined over-reliance by some managers on roles existing in the stability quadrants (coordinator, director, producer, and monitor) rather the flexibility quadrant (mentor, facilitator, broker, and innovator); however, some managers used a balance of roles, as theorized by Quinn. While Wilkerson concentrated on the possible relationship between leadership style and leader job satisfaction, the study did not reveal the reasons for leadership behavior.

In another study using the CVF, Crim et al. (2011) conducted action research into a voluntary organization in Georgia. Crim et al. used qualitative methods formed as a case study to understand a voluntary organization better and adapt the CVF to address organizational development within voluntary organizations. By adopting a four-step iterative research process of appreciation, diagnosis, debate, and intervention, Crim et al. conducted workshops, semistructured interviews, reviewed organizational documents, and attended staff and board meetings. The results of the research were impressive in several areas. Crim et al. assisted the voluntary agency staff and board members in developing a strategic 3-year plan based on information discovered gathered from the investigation. The analysis found “management being mainly concerned with means, more focused on processes than outcomes, with a day-to-day emphasis on getting the job done” (p. 7). Consequently, planned outcomes did not always materialize. Because this

suggested organizational change direction was needed, CVF recommended an increase in adaptive and innovative functions - Create quadrant while increasing standardized procedures and accountability processes - Control quadrant. The board of directors and staff added these recommendations to the strategic planning process.

Zammuto and O'Connor (1992) argued that unless organizations manage to balance organizational culture and organizational structure, processes (means) lead to different outcomes (ends) than planned. The applicability of CVF as a standard for approaches to organizational effectiveness with a high degree of confidence across all sectors has been documented (Rojas, 2000). Advancing Rojas, Crim et al. (2011) asserted there was value for the framework without using a version of the CVF questionnaire; however, the research involving the voluntary organization was only a single case study. While the voluntary organization study afforded an opportunity to develop the use of the CVF further as a tool, additional research utilizing the CVF as an analysis tool to compare to data derived from participant interviews could strengthen the value of the framework.

As covered earlier in this section, researchers have used a version of the CVF survey instrument to ascertain thoughts and opinions concerning organizational culture and leadership. The researchers in those studies used the survey data to inform additional research processes or confirm the foci of the studies. Crim (2011) applied the verbal data (interviews and workshops) to describe, record, and conduct thematic analysis utilizing a coding scheme based on the CVF (p. 3). Crim et al. patterned the research after earlier studies by Marshall, Mannion, Nelson, and Davies (2003), who qualitatively explored

leadership styles and the effect on collaboration between primary care partners to improve the organizational response to health care delivery. Marshall, et al. conducted stakeholder interviews, and then compared the data derived from the interviews to CVF foci (internal/external) and processes (relational/mechanistic) (Cameron & Freeman, 1991). Marshall et al. used these CVF indicators to explore and thereby understand the organizational actions of the people involved in the collaborations.

Pursuing research involving collaboration coordination in higher education in Australia, Boud et al. (2014) applied a version of CVF developed by Vilkinas and Cartan (2006) and derived from Quinn (1988) and others (Denison & Spreitzer, 1991; Hooijberg & Petrock, 1993; Quinn, Hildebrandt, Rogers, & Thompson, 1990). First, Boud et al. employed interview data previously collected at four universities from 18 research coordinators, and then used NVivo software to conduct comparative analysis between the interview data and CVF leadership roles. The analysis revealed two consistent dimensions of scope of the coordinator role and organizational focus that led to recommendations for the future of the research coordinator positions and emergent leadership behaviors those positions could deliver. The version of the CVF advanced a "tool for analyzing leadership features of any organizational role" (Boud et al., p. 441). Boud et al., along with other studies discussed in this section, supported the applicability of CVF research involving AET coordinators working within alcohol enforcement teams in South Carolina.

Rationale for Using the Competing Values Framework

The rationale was twofold for using the CVF as a lens for the research. First, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) and others (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Quinn et al., 1996) maintained that effective managers and leaders embrace paradoxical attitudes about responses to organizational activities and challenges. In short, CVF offered a view of leadership through the lens of competing and opposing organizational values (Arsenault & Faerman, 2014; Lincoln, 2010). Second, the literature concerning collaborative leadership suggests forming and implementing a collaborative effort requires leaders to apply control structure as well as human development (Alexander, Comfort, Weiner, & Bogue, 2001; Belasen & Frank, 2008; Lawrence et al., 2009; Parolini & Parolini, 2012). The research focused on the lived experiences of coordinators of alcohol enforcement teams. Consequently, CVF offers a viewpoint for interpretation and description of the components of leadership (Cameron, Quinn, DeGraff, & Thankor, 2006; Zafft, Adams, & Matkin, 2009), specifically, to interpret and describe experiences of the AET coordinators for what collaborative leadership meant to them.

Framework Relationship to Study and Research Questions

The CVF can inform development and maintenance of collaborative efforts (Shine & Bartley, 2011). The first research question was: What factors emerged as barriers to or facilitators of collaborative leadership from the lived experiences of the coordinators who served in the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams? Škerlavaj, Song, and Lee (2010) indicated that collaborative leadership values exist predominately within the Collaborate (internal organizational/flexibility focus) and Create (external

organizational/flexibility focus); however, some values indicate Control (internal organizational/stability focus) and Compete (external organizational/stability focus).

The second research question was also important in describing and interpreting the lived experiences of AET coordinators involved in implementing and maintaining alcohol enforcement teams. Based on the lived experiences of the coordinators who led the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams, what are the leadership factors that would increase the ability of the coordinators to establish collaborative relationships in the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams? Considerable evidence suggested that leadership factors influence collaborative environments (Büschgens et al., 2013). Close and Wainwright (2010) argued flexible and open leadership affects collaborative attempts positively. The next section covers the phenomenon of leadership from a historical and research perspective.

Research Approaches to Leadership

The importance of leadership involved in collaborative efforts seems undeniable. Leadership is one of the keys to influencing establishment of collaborations (McGuire, 2006). Bryson, Crosby, and Stone (2006) likewise maintained that building leadership is one of main processes required for viable cross-sector collaboration. In their review of community collaborations, Zakocs and Edwards (2006) determined the most important factor in collaborations is effective leadership. Even though there is a strong empirical evidence for positive leadership in successful collaborations, there is less agreement on roles, competencies, and associated leadership capacities in collaborations (Nowell &

Harrison, 2011). Gaining an understanding of collaborative leadership development requires a review of past and current leadership research.

Comprehensive and diverse discussions concerning leadership theories extend throughout history. Some researchers and practitioners (Burns, 1978; Stogdill, 1975) concentrated on the lack of one all-encompassing leadership theory, yet other researchers focused on limited specific leadership variables (Fairholm, 2004; Oreg & Berson, 2011). In the search for a general leadership theory, Goethals and Sorenson (2006) formed a group of researchers attempting to discover common ground among existing leadership theories. The purpose for the search was to identify a leadership theory that could exist in all leadership contexts. After months of thought and multiple workgroup discussions, the Goethals and Sorenson group decided no single general leadership theory had emerged in previous leadership theories and concepts. More than one researcher involved in the collective effort on leadership issues maintained that a lack of holistic emphasis prevents a better comprehension of leadership (Goethals & Sorenson, 2006). In other words, the evidence suggests researchers and practitioners should explore leadership from multiple variables to obtain a higher-level and more holistic understanding of the phenomenon.

The lack of consensus about the definition of leadership may exist because leadership is a complex and multifaceted subject. Writing more than 45 years ago, Hill (1969) suggested one reason the concept of leadership is so complex is the scope and magnitude of the leadership literature. Browne and Cohn (1958) stated the "leadership literature is a mass of content without any coagulating substance to bring it together or to produce coordination and point out interrelationships" (p. 33). In other words, the

difficulty centers on the enormity of the breadth and depth of leadership writings. No one person could be physically or mentally responsible for the vast knowledge contained in the voluminous literature concerning leaders and leadership.

Another reason the concept of leadership presents difficulties for writers to pin to a common thread is the lack of a common definition for the word. Some claim that leadership is positional and related more to authority and power within the organization. Others believe that leadership comprises the relational influence that occurs between leaders and followers. Fleishman, Mumford, Zaccaro, and Levin (1991) explained there are obstacles for a communal meaning of leadership within the literature by confirming that researchers and authors delineated as many as 65 aspects of leadership. To add further to the confusion about the phenomenon, Rubenstein (2005) stated that there are approximately 80 brands of leadership training marketed each year to public and non-government organizations. It is no wonder that leadership issues create challenges for individuals and organizations when it may be so difficult to settle on leadership practices.

The idea of leadership has been discussed for thousands of years. Both biographical and autobiographical accounts of the lives of heroes and antiheroes have explored the qualities of their actions in an effort to explain leadership. Early writers such as Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Homer, and others all discussed the acts of great leaders (as cited in Bass & Bass, 2008). Aristotle and Plato outlined the traits of leaders through thoughtful consideration and debates about the characteristics rules should possess (as cited in Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). Although these works were not necessarily oriented toward the scientific method, the writings did offer a glimpse into the

act of leadership to many people at the time. On the other hand, it is only over the last century that researchers studied the aspects of leaders and leadership formally (van Wart, 2008), so the earlier works may have only offered one facet or even superficial insight of leadership.

Regardless of the differences in definitions and varieties of leadership, much of the studies of the last several decades indicate that leadership is a noncoercive development and does not correlate to an organizational position necessarily. Hogg (2001) maintained that "leadership is a process of influence that enlists and mobilizes the movement of others in the attainment of collective goals; it is not a coercive process which power is exercised over others" (p. 194). To Hogg, leadership involved a course of action between followers and leaders. Similar to Hogg, Rost (1991) stated, "Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes" (p. 102). Adding to both Hogg and Rost, Shondrick, Dinh, and Lord (2010) argued that leadership exists when followers perceive the leader's attempt at influence and accept that influence. Additionally, Yukl (1999) contended that leadership is a collective and leadership effectiveness is not incumbent on one individual. Yukl added that leadership is best shared and that "leadership actions of any individual leader are much less important than the collective leadership provided by members" (p. 293).

Researchers have studied leadership at the individual, dyadic, group, and organizational, and most recently, blended studies using multilevels of leadership. The earliest leadership studies concentrated on the individual leader. Researchers later

decided that the difficulty presented by concentrating just on leaders was that it created challenges to obtaining all of the information needed to assess organizational leadership (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). What this meant was that a leader was not a leader without at least one follower and understanding leadership required clarification of both the leader and the follower.

Therefore, leadership studies expanded. The research focus shifted to the dyadic processes between the leader and a follower (Bass & Bass, 2008). When attempting to apply the two-sided process to group or team interactions, researchers faced challenges due to multiple followers within the group or team (Van Vugt, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2008). Group or team focused studies lead to difficulties for researchers because the group or team level processes did not always apply at the larger organizational leadership processes. Finally, and most recently, researchers have adopted a multilevel approach to assume breadth and depth to leadership studies (Yukl, 2010). This more holistic approach creates views of leadership not only as a process between leaders and followers but within the relationships between employees across the organization.

Utilizing this holistic approach and following other leadership researchers, DuBrin (2010) developed a formula to describe leadership generally. According to the DuBrin, the formula $L = f(l, gm, s)$ "focuses on the major sets of variables that influence leadership effectiveness" (p. 20). Stated simply, leadership *(L)* equals the combined function *(f)* of the leader (l), the group members (*gm*) within the contextual and the situational *(s)* aspects of the relationship. In other words, the process of leadership exists

within the confines of the fluidity of the environment; therefore, for optimum organizational balance, leadership adapts and stretches as situations and contexts change.

Various authors categorize leadership theories and concepts using a range of categories, aspects, and characteristics. Discussions in the literature have been ubiquitous about disconnect between leadership theories and practical applicability of those theories. Nohria and Khurana (2010) advanced the idea that "leadership is an elusive construct, riddled with so much ambiguity that it is hard to even define let alone study systematically" (p. 5). Echoing other researchers' appeal for focus on solutions of leadership challenges, Zaccaro and Horn (2003) stated that "the field of leadership is littered with many examples of theories and models that have failed utterly when put to the test of solving leadership-related problems" (p. 770) in other situations. Perhaps adopting a more global view of the phenomenon, leadership theories and practical use can coexist.

In order to comprehend leaders and all that encompasses the performance of leadership, several researchers found it beneficial to categorize the various concepts and theories. Northouse (2010) presented taxonomies that he labeled the trait approach, the skills approach, the style approach, and the situational approach to describe the historical aspect of leadership studies. He further identified several leadership theories such as contingency theory, path-goal theory, leader-member exchange theory, transformational leadership theory, authentic leadership theory, team leadership theory, and psychodynamic approach to leadership. Additionally, Northouse added discussions about women and leadership, culture and leadership, and leadership ethics. Similarly, though

focusing on gender and culture issues related to leadership, Ayman and Korabik (2010) concentrated on a review through the trait theories approach, behavioral theories approach, and contingency theories approach. In a slightly different as well as expanded version of the categorization, Bass and Bass (2008) categorized research through historical developments in the areas of the personal attributes of leaders, the personal attributes of leadership, the styles of leadership, and the "new" leadership. In addition, the Bass and Bass identified leadership exhibited in management and organizations, diversity, cultural effects of leadership and the development and identification of leaders and leadership. Last, Bass and Bass discussed the future of leadership research and studies.

Concerning leadership within public sector organizations, van Wart (2008) provided an excellent summary concerning public sector leadership of what he called "eras of orthodox leadership theory and research" (p. 15). Van Wart's categories and corresponding research focus years were titled "great man" aspects (pre-1900), trait (1900-1949), contingency (1948-1980), transformational (1978 to present), servant (1979 to present), and multifaceted (1990s to present). Similarly, Yukl (2010) identified the major components of leadership research. Yukl's work revealed that those aspects studied were the characteristics of leaders, the characteristics of followers, and the characteristics of the circumstances. Later, Yukl delineated theories and empirical research reviews in the past and current studies. Yukl stated there are five basic approaches to leadership literature: (a) the trait approach, (b) the behavior approach, (c) the power-influence approach, (d) the situation approach, and (e) the integrative approach. For the purposes of

describing the historical underpinnings of leadership studies, this part of the literature review follows Yukl's pattern.

Trait Approach to Leadership

Researchers considered leadership from an individual leader's characteristics and personality traits. In the early 20th century, development of theories concerning leading organizations and people, the focus was on the leader's traits (Northouse, 2010). These early researchers concentrated on physical characteristics, intelligence and skills, and personality factors in order to understand better the act of leading (Bass & Bass, 2008; Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Zaccaro (2007) identified one such author. Galton conducted the first quantitative investigation in 1869 and his study stressed that a leader possessed extraordinary traits, which distinguished him or her from non-leaders and leaders' traits were genetic (Zaccaro, 2007).

Early leadership authors concluded that leaders were born. Admittedly, while some authors such as Aristotle, Plato, and other writers believed that "great men" were born, others believed that good leadership traits developed by circumstances (Gumpert & Hambleton, 1979; Lowe & Gardner, 2000; Zaccaro & Horn, 2003). Commonly historians and researchers called the earliest studies the "great man" theories of leadership**.** During the early times of leadership theories and concepts development, most of the literature evolved from biographies about leaders of business and government. The authors and researchers focused on the idea that by determining the characteristics of what is decidedly the good qualities of leaders, then encouraging others to emulate those characteristics that good leadership will be the result.

Much of the early research involving the trait approach to leadership, focused on the individual leader. This was one major criticism about early trait studies and research. Consequently, this research did not focus on followers at all and the explanation of leadership was lacking (Vroom & Jago, 2007). In the search for clarifications of leaders, then studies focused on behaviors.

Behavior Approach to Leadership

In the late 1940s, because researchers believed a leader's traits did not effectively explain a leader's influence over followers, the spotlight turned to leader behaviors (Aronson, 2001). The behavior approach to studying leadership interaction style moved from individual studies about specific leadership in the leader's traits to encompass dyadic studies of leader behavior and the leader's effect on followers (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004). The most famous studies involved teams of researchers at Ohio State University and at the University of Michigan and were centered on two-dimensional behaviors, which researchers classified through production-oriented behaviors and personnel oriented behaviors. The studies concerned leadership behavior, which investigated leadership styles upon a group of followers. Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) discovered that the style a leader utilized mattered in convincing followers to conduct actions and activities toward organizational goals and objectives.

Lewin et al. (1939) classified leadership style models based on leadership behaviors as democratic, laissez faire, and autocratic based on multiple leadership behaviors. In the laissez faire style, the leader intervened in the group activity only when there was a need. In the autocratic style, the leader made the decisions about the activity

and directed tasks needed to accomplish the goals and objectives. Lewin et al. (1939) placed the laissez faire and autocratic styles on a continuum as polar opposites. The leader utilizing the democratic style provided many opportunities for follower input into the activities and organizational direction (Lewin et al., 1939). Intervention by the leader would only occur in a dire need.

Researchers in the Ohio State leadership studies in the late 1940s - early 1950s centered on leadership behaviors, too. Schriesheim and Bird (1979) asserted the Ohio State studies shifted leadership focus from the "universal trait theory to more of a situational, behavioral-based view" (p. 135) because a focal point on the leader did very little to explain the relationship between the leader and followers. The classification of the Ohio studies concentrated on two leadership behaviors; consideration and initating structure. The leadership behavior of consideration centered on personnel behaviors or relationship building while the behavior of initiating structure centered on production behaviors or task oriented behaviors. The Ohio State studies were an interdisciplinary approach rather than focused on exclusively one discipline, traditionally in private business. Some earlier studies centered occasionally in the government sector, normally on the military.

Schriesheim and Bird (1979) stated the Ohio State studies did result in a multitude of disciplines being made aware of leadership research; hence, additional research was spawned on the topic. According to the Schriesheim and Bird, the major accomplishments for the Ohio State studies were (a) development of a survey instrument that could be used to measure leader competencies; (b) focus shift from trait based

leadership theory to situational based focus which in turn lead to many situational based research and theories; (c) the development of a study methodology that is still used in current leadership research; and (d) use of an interdisciplinary approach which yielded a broader, more robust view for future leadership studies. Advances in leadership theory gained and focus grew, as others joined the explanation of leadership.

Concurrent with the Ohio State studies, during the early 1950s the University of Michigan researchers focused on the study of leadership behaviors, too. While the Ohio State studies highlighted leader behaviors, the Michigan studies formed descriptions of "task and relationship-oriented leadership styles and added participative leadership as a third style" (Zaccaro & Horn, 2003, p. 771). The task-oriented leaderhip style was similar to the Ohio State study spotlight on initiating structure. Both the Michigan examinations of task related behaviors and the Ohio investigations of initiating structure looked at the processes necessary to accomplish goals and objectives. In addition, the Michigan team researched relationship oriented behavior, which equated to the Ohio researchers consideration theme. Likewise, these variables offered understanding of the humanistic side of the leader-follower equation.

The difference between the Michigan and Ohio studies was that task related and production related processes were viewed on a one-dimensional spectrum in the Michigan studies but a two-dimensional grid in the Ohio studies (Northouse, 2010). To be effective in leadership processes, the Michigan researchers learned that a leader would vary degrees of production related and task related styles. Eventually, researchers found that a leader would choose leadership behaviors based on the context or situation of the

need for leadership. This lead to studies in which leaders acted or reacted based on situational variables.

Situational Approach to Leadership

In the 1960s, situational leadership focuses on both the leader's behavior toward followers and the leadership style exhibited during those certain situations. Leadership theorists realized that leaders utilized different behaviors when dealing with direct reports, subordinates, and superiors given the context of the situation. The leader style investigations changed to the context of the situation that the leader directs followers differently based on the follower's abilities and circumstances (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). The focus moved from the leader to the context in which the leader actions occurred because researcher came to believe that the circumstances that a leader influences followers are important in an understanding of leadership. For instance, as van Wart (2003) maintained, it was difficult to consider that a leader was decisive but also flexible and inclusive without a consideration for the situation of the decision. Theories then centered on more humanistic approaches to leadership, which helped, steer organizations away from the "excessively hierarchical, authoritarian style of leadership" (van Wart, 2008, p. 219). The second part of the positive reception for situational leadership theory was that the theory is straightforward to up-and-coming "managers who appreciated the elegant constructs even though they were descriptively simplistic" (van Wart, 2008, p. 219). In short, situational leadership skills were easier to teach to others.

Several authors described their own version of situational leadership. Fiedler (1967) developed the contingency theory of leadership. The main premise of this theory

is that the leadership style is “contigent on matching a leader’s style to the right setting” (Northouse, 2010, p.109). By examining leaders throughout current time and past history, Fiedler determined the leader’s style and whether leadership efforts of the leader were effective. The examination generated “empirically grounded generalizations about which styles of leadership were best and which were worst given the organizational context” (Northouse, 2010, p.109). Fiedler identified leadership styles as task motivated or relationship motivated. As expected, task oriented is obtaining organizational goals while relationship motivated is concerned with growing familiar interpersonal associations with subordinates. By developing an instrument called the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC), which measures the leader’s style, Fiedler and his associates could fairly accuratedly predict under what organizational situations a leader would be successful. It was advancement that although the focus was still on the leader, followers or subordinates were asked opinions of the leader and others in the group.

Another situational leadership theory focused that evolved about the same time was advanced by R. J.House and others called path-goal theory (Northouse, 2004; van Wart, 2008). House (as cited in Northouse, 2004) advocated that the leader should inform the subordinates of rewards (goal) that would be available should they complete certain obligations (path). House and his colleagues identified four leadership styles: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented. The directive leader informed and provided specific guidance on the work to be completed. The supportive leader assumed more of a friendly role and showed more concern for the subordinate while the participative leader consulted with the subordinates before organizational decisions were

made. Lastly, the achievement-oriented leader showed confidence that the subordinates would meet challenging goals and perform the best to obtain those goals. As cited in van Wart (2008), House advocated that path-goal theory considered two situational variables; subordinate characteristics (personality traits and abilities) and task characteristics (i.e. simple, dangerous, dull, interesting, etc.). The leader is expected to determine the best style for the subordinate that will accomplish the organizational goals.

Other researchers focused on the relational and task behaviors within context of the circumstances. Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory provided a two-dimensional view to have both task and relational aspects of subordinates in mind when leading (van Wart, 2008). Researchers and practitioners promoted this model more than other situational models. Commonly, experts utilized this model in management and leadership training because of its simplicity and instructional ease. Blanchard, Johnson, and Hersey (2000) maintained that leaders should have four leadership styles that will correspond to four different foci of followers or subordinates. Though limited to four styles, leaders were expected to be flexible and adaptable depending on the situation.

Blanchard et al. (2000) stated that the leaders actions are a combination of directive behavior and supportive behavior based on subordinates' organizational commitment and individual competence. Leadership styles are designated as S1 (directing); S2 (coaching); S3 (Supporting) or S4 (Delegating). S1 would be used on new subordinates that have recently started in a position or subordinates that are long time employees in an unfamilar position. Once a subordinate increases in knowledge about the position the leader becomes more supportive yet instructive in nature (Blanchard et al.,

2000). At S3, the leader is supportive and only occasionally directive if there is a need and last in S4, the leader maintains a delegating attitude by yielding low supportive and directive behavior (Blanchard, et al., 2000). Accordingly, subordinates can be assessed into four styles of ability and dedication to the organizational tasks as in the preceding description. Their levels are D1 through D4 depending on their high commitment and low competence (when new to the job) up to high commitment and competence (when they have mastered the positional duties). The ordeal occurs when an autocratic leader does not take into account a subordinate's high competence for the job duties and disregards their mind-set (Caldero & Crank, 2004). This, Blanchard et al. contended, was the way to destroy morale and initiative.

The United States military utilizes situational leadership methods for their combat operations and staff personnel (Yeakey, 2002). Yeakey (2002) contended situational leadership theory allows flexibility for the situations that leaders face when entering into combat zones. What takes effect is the "leader's judgment, intelligence, cultural awareness, and self-control" so that the leader can assess correctly the style required to "motivate people to accomplish the mission" (Yeakey, 2002, p. 72). Yeakey asserted that leaders must communicate appropriately with their subordinates and develop "high unit cohesion before the hostilities" occur (p. 73). Leaders must also be willing to develop leadership qualities in their subordinates (Kotter, 1996). Key to the success of the situational leadership model is the appropriate assessment of the "subordinate's maturity level to relative to the task at hand" (Yeakey, 2002, p. 76). Once the competence and commitment has been determined, the leader must adjust his or her leadership style

relative to the subordinate (Yeakey, 2002). While at one time a leader's style may have not been concern or worth substance, in situational leadership theory, the leader's style is all about substantive interest.

Situational leadership has detractors. Yukl and Mahsud (2010) asserted that many research studies on situation leadership focused on behaviors separately rather than using the patterns of leadership behaviors. Yukl and Mahsud added, "Some types of leadership behavior have facilitative and inhibiting effects when used together in the same situation" (p. 89). This is the point that Cameron and Quinn (2006) expressed when they advocated that leaders gain a better understanding of the choices of leadership behaviors. Research emphasis shifted from situational leadership to attempting to gain an understanding of the relationship between power-influence aspects and leadership practices.

Power-Influence Approach to Leadership

Power-influence research sought to explain influence process between a leader and followers (Yukl, 2010). Simply, some of that research focused on one direction influence, that being from the leader to the follower (Yukl, 1989). Some of the research within the power-influence context involved studies of participative leadership. Perhaps the two best-known power-influence leadership theories are French and Raven's five forms of power and transactional leadership first described by Max Weber (as cited in Bass & Stogdill, 1990), then developed further by Burns (1978).

Burns (2003) stated that there is a strong interplay between power and leadership. Power within an organization relates to leadership in that leaders utilize power to influence movement toward organizational goals. Quoting Weber, Burns (1978) stated

power “is the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance regardless of the basis on which this probability rests” (p. 12). If power is dispersed within the organizational structure so that various members share power and therefore influence to affect direction toward the goals and objectives, leadership is shared (Pearce & Conger, 2003b). Stating it much simpler, shared power is “giving away power” to others within the organization (Singh, 2009, p. 151). Because of numerous reasons, leadership efforts have become collaborative, thus increased shared leadership opportunities (Bennis, 2007). Unfortunately, power-influence leadership research did not originally include discussions about shared power.

As stated earlier, managers and leaders use power to accomplish organizational tasks. Managerial power is positional, yet leadership power is personal. French and Raven (as cited in Denhardt, Denhardt, & Aristigueta, 2002), proposed the five-category classification of sources of power. Personal power derives from trust for the leader by the follower. Positional power is indicative of power resulting from the manager’s organizational rank. According to French and Raven, (as cited in Denhardt et al., 2002), the five sources of power are legitimate power, reward power, coercive power, referent power, and expert power. Legitimate power derives from justifiable sources. People believe these leaders have a justification to exercise authority over them and they have a duty to submit. Reward power is analogous to “positive reinforcement” because it is power that one gives to someone because he or she has done something for the first person. Coercive power derives from the ability to punish subordinates for actions considered inappropriate behavior. Coercive behavior used extensively without other

power influence is not advised mainly because it can create morale challenges within the organization.

Raven and French (as cited in Denhardt et al., 2002) stated referent power derives from whether others perceive the other person in a favorable light or not. In other words, one is “influenced by people we like or admire” (p.232). Lastly, expert power is what the name implies. Those that look to others for “knowledge and expertise” and it is this expertise that gives the person power (Denhardt et al., 2002).

Citing French and Raven’s earlier work, Yukl, George, and Jones (2010) discussed various types of power within an organization. Through personal power, employees may possess either referent power or expert power. According to Yukl et al., expert power designates that an individual possesses authority based on his or her knowledge about a particular item or process. The writers stated that referent power reveals a special grip that another employee has over an individual.

Positional power is dispersed through legitimate power, reward power, and coercive power (French & Raven, as cited in Yukl et al., 2010). Legitimate power usually means that an individual has authentic authority over another individual while coercive power indicates negative reinforcement if an individual does not comply with the wishes of manager or supervisor. Reward power exists because an individual believes that he or she receives compensation or some other reward if the subordinate complies with the superior’s wishes. Yukl, George, and Jones added information power and ecological power to the list by French and Raven. Information power results when managers or supervisors control the amount of information that reaches subordinates. Ecological

power results from a “control over the physical environment, technology, and organization of the work” (Yukl et al., 2010, p. 163).

Many people seem to appreciate expert power best of all. Expert power does not necessarily depend on rank or position because one only endeavors to build expertise and knowledge in the position (French & Raven, 1959). Moreover, those who have built expert power have been looked to solve challenges and problems (French & Raven, as cited in Yukl et al., 2010). That is the upside of this type of power. The downside is that people become dependent on one particular individual and, in some cases, mainly because the particular individual complies, superiors, subordinates and peers alike asked the individual to assist without much consideration for work schedules and duties.

Conversely, many people especially do not appreciate coercive power (Bruder, Carson, Carson, & Pence, 2002). It seems that most of the people that have tried to influence others in this manner appear to be unwilling to work at influencing anyone with positive reinforcement. There is really no benefit for this type of power in the workplace although it does appear that on the surface, employees do the work (Raven, 1993). Nevertheless, they are not motivated only manipulated in this type of environment.

There are those who found French and Raven lacking. Harvey (2006) took issue with French and Raven’s model because “it does not provide an especially clear analytic framework” for the leadership studies (p. 84). Harvey goes on to argue that the power bases are not really power bases because the bases relate more to either “resources and outcomes or are attributes of the agent as well as perceptions by the target” (p. 85). Nye (as cited in Harvey, 2006) provided a better description of the power bases. Harvey stated

that Nye designated power bases either as soft or hard. Soft power indicates an actual influence and hard power designates power that is more coercive. For managers working within the organizations or for personnel working at the line level, the better form of power results when soft power exists. It is the appeal for employees or citizens to "make others want what you want" by "appealing either to their values and goals" (Harvey, 2006, p. 87).

Conversely, hard power denotes coercive demands by superiors toward subordinates (Harvey, 2006). The use of hard power through threats and coercion can create decreases in trust toward the manager or leader (Goethals & Sorenson, 2006). Later, trust could return but often bitterness remains on the part of the individual. If a supervisor believes he or she must exert constant negative force against subordinate employees, the supervisor can find low morale among subordinates.

Drawing upon a literature review, Aronson (2001) elaborated about the three major methods that leaders influence followers through directive, transactional, or transformational leadership behaviors. According to Aronson, James M. Burns first made the distinction between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership finds base on a quid pro quo relationship between the leader and subordinate. Bass, cited in Aronson, elaborated on that relationship and classified it as contingent reward, management-by-exception, or laissez-faire leadership. The subordinate receives reward if the subordinate accomplishes pre-agreed goals in contingent reward transactional leadership. Management by exception (MBE) leadership occurs only when the subordinate deviates from the organizational plan. Further, there are

two types of MBE, active and passive. Active mode indicates close supervision for deviation and passive signifies leader lack of supervision unless a deviation occurs. Finally, laissez-faire leadership reveals “non-leadership, where the leader avoids or declines to exhibit any leadership behavior whatsoever” (Aronson, 2001, p. 246).

However, Aronson (2001) pointed to Burns for a definition of charismatic and transformational leadership, Aronson stated that Conger (cited in Aronson) actually pointed out that the research on this type of leadership involved leader behaviors and the effects. Aronson also pointed out that a majority of the studies involved three groups of researchers and writers. Charismatic-transformational leaders appear to depend much less on their authority and more on their influence over subordinates to encourage accomplishment of goals and objectives. House and Howell (as cited in Aronson, 2001), maintained that charismatic leaders appear to either encourage subordinates for personalized self-interest or for socialized reasons benefitting the community.

The leadership role is crucial for continued communication, development of shared values, ethical modeling, and encouraging positive change. Being a leader is not always about positional power, it can be about influencing people toward a common goal (Pfeffer, 1992). Some people are able to influence co-workers because of personal power, because either the supervisor or leader has delegated the power or co-workers, because of other reasons, follow them.

Researchers have designated differences between management and leadership. Reynolds and Warfield (2010) defined the difference as “managers have subordinates and leaders have followers” (p. 62). Managers are more concerned with organizational

structure while leaders relate to people. There are differences between the work of the manager and the work of the leader. Both roles are critical to the success or failure of the organization. Slowly, researchers began to combine leadership theories in an effort to explain multiple variables better in organizations.

Integrative Approach to Leadership

The integrative approach to studying leadership encompasses attention on multiple leadership variables (Yukl, 2006). Integrative leadership requires an understanding of the complexity involved in a leader's decisions. Along those lines, Quinn (1988) stated that leaders must remain aware of situations that involve compromises between competing values, such as completing tasks versus sensitivity toward people's needs and desires. In addition and related to collaborative efforts, a leader may find his or her belief in organizational control must balance against empowering subordinates and outside stakeholders to work together without his or her close supervision (Bidjerano, 2009).

In the process of implementing an integrative approach, researchers designated differences between management and leadership. There are differences between the work of the manager and the work of the leader. Reynolds and Warfield (2010) defined the main difference as "managers have subordinates and leaders have followers" (p. 62). Managers are more concerned with organizational structure while leaders relate to people. Whether in organizations, groups, or teams, management and leadership roles are critical to the success or failure of the organization. Yukl (2010) stated that these multi-level and multi-variable studies more accurately describe leadership aspects because in

the real world very seldom does just one or even two variables explain effective leadership.

With more than variables involved in leadership research, Zaccaro (2007) stated trait research reemerged in the 1980s. Researchers integrated other variables affecting leadership processes such as follower reaction to the leader's actions or situational based affecters upon leader traits. Hackman and Wageman (2007) believed a dual focus on context and leadership traits as well as the dyadic interaction better addressed a global understanding of leadership.

Complexity leadership theory evolved from the hard sciences experiences with complex adaptive systems and complexity systems. Uhl-Bien, Marion, and McKelvey (2007) described complexity leadership theory defined it as "leadership that is not only seen from position and authority but also as an emergent, interactive dynamic: a complex interplay from which collective impetus for action and change emerges when heterogeneous agents interact in ways that advance "(p. 299) into adaptive means toward solving new challenges. The three key components of complex leadership theory are (a) administrative leadership (bureaucratic function with understanding of organizational need to be flexible, creative, and adaptable); (b) adaptive leadership (emergent, interactive dynamic with flexibility and nonlinearity actions); (c) enabling leadership (assists in finding median between adaptive and administrative leadership). There are close similarities between these two types of leadership but as Uhl-Bien et al. (2007) advocated complexity leadership focus on the group, not the leaders.

Another integrative leadership research focus involved shared leadership. Pearce and Conger (2003a) defined shared leadership "as a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both" (p. 1). Carson, Tesluk, and Marrone (2007) offered that shared leadership encompassed "multiple sources of influence refers to widespread influence within teams rather than to specific leadership behaviors, formal positions, specific types of influence, or the effectiveness of the leadership exhibited by these sources" (p. 1220). Yammarino, Mumford, Connelly, and Dionne (2010) stated that "shared leadership is an approach to leadership where no one member of a team stands out always and everywhere as a leader; rather leadership roles and responsibilities are shared and distributed throughout the team" (p. 526). Bass and Bass (2008) added that in shared leadership structures a team member sees that a problem needs addressing. He or she "calls attention to the problem and attempts to enact the leadership role or encourages other members with more knowledge and expertise to do so" (p. 783).

The purpose of shared leadership is to bring greater innovation and problem solving synergy to the organization (several heads are better than one) that inherently does not exist in a strict, authoritarian and hierarchical organizational management structure. Waugh and Streib (2006) maintained that shared and collaborative leadership requires innovation and imagination toward accomplishing shared goals. Devos and Bouckenooghe (2009) discovered leaders who view innovativeness as crucial to appropriate leader behavior, generally seem to encourage collaborative work

environments. A strong point of shared leadership is employee interdependence (Graham, 2007) and a better use of diversity of thought based on experience, training, and knowledge (E. E. Small & Rentsch, 2010).

Shared leadership evolved from team and group leadership studies that conducted for over eight decades (Northouse, 2010). Shared leadership finds pedigree in Mayo's Hawthorne studies of the Western Electric Plant during the 1920s and 1930s in which employee input and empowerment was an important aspect" (Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006b, p. 37). While originally those studies focused on dyadic relationships between individual team members and the leader, the interrelationship between team members became apparent and some researchers accepted that the interrelationships were important to leadership effectiveness. Teams require a shared mission, members that are interdependent, and are willing to work together toward that mutual goal. Subsequently, the research advanced to embrace studies of the relationships between members in a manner in which no one member was responsible for leadership.

Past research has focused on shared leadership within public sector and in the private sector organizations. This study centered on collaborative efforts within teams, with the influence-powered definition of leadership: "leaders influencing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations--the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations--of both leaders and followers" (Burns, 1978, p. 19). Work teams have grown exponentially in not only the private sector but the nonprofit and public sector as well. Work teams can lead to effective solutions together with stakeholders, sharing of organizational resources, assurances that stakeholder

organizations from multiple jurisdictions are included in work plan designed to address those problems, affecting community change through partnerships with key stakeholders.

Because people should work together for common issues, one of the preeminent settings for this collaborative work was in the organization. Follett (as cited in Tompkins, 2005) held that reducing barriers to group communication and conducting collective problem solving advanced optimal organizational performance. Follett believed that if the motivation for individuals to work together was based on common interests (i.e., finding solutions to work challenges) rather than power and authority, both supervisors and subordinates would benefit (Tompkins, 2005).

Benet (2006, 2012, 2013) theorizes that collaborative leadership requires the effective management of ten elements that make up his polarities of democracy model. Benet draws on Johnson's (1996) concepts of polarity management. Johnson argues that sometimes there are dilemmas that cannot be solved because they consist of polarities in which each element has both positive and negative aspects. The objective of Johnson's polarity management is to leverage the polarities to get the maximum positive aspects of each element while minimizing the negative elements. Benet uses Johnson's polarity management as a conceptual framework to develop a ten element theory consisting of five polarity pairs (freedom and authority, justice and due process, diversity and equality, human rights and communal obligations, participation and representation). Benet suggests that effectively leveraging these ten elements is required to attain collaborative leadership.

Leadership is a complex and difficult topic, supported by no general theory. As a result, definitions of leadership are abundant and seem to depend on research foci. Over the last few decades, researchers studied leadership with a focus on leaders, followers, and organizational context. Current research involving leadership issues reveal that it is the outcome of a process rather than just a position of power and authority. Many researchers and practitioners now believe that leadership encompasses influence and indicates relational interchanges between people (Getha-Taylor & Morse, 2013; Kapucu & Demiroz, 2013; Lavine, 2014). The next section discusses collaboration.

Collaboration Phenomenon

Complex issues and challenges in society today propel the need for collaboration. For many reasons, it is essential that organizations work together to solve common problems and community challenges (Getha-Taylor & Morse, 2013; König et al., 2013; Sullivan, Williams, & Jeffares, 2012) and successful collaboration efforts require a core culture toward working together (Kim, Gerber, Beto, & Lambert, 2013). For instance, if managers and leaders emphasize teamwork values, there is a greater likelihood internal as well as external collaboration will occur (Goodman et al., 2001). Consequently, not stressing teamwork or cooperative values can be a barrier to collaboration.

A definition of collaboration for an individual depends on his or her view of the collaboration. It concerns a coming together of potential partners whose missions have intersections (Walker & Elberson, 2005). Implied in the statement is that those partners will coordinate actions toward accomplishing the shared purpose. Schrage (1995) defined collaboration as a shared creation. In other words, when people and organizations have in

common, things that draw them together to work toward a mutual goal, opportunities for collaboration exist.

Collaboration can be a difficult task because of potential obstacles to the effort. Wilson (2013) maintained that "collaborative leadership is fraught with challenges, organizational politics, governance, finance, and resource allocation" (p. 336) between organizations attempting to work together. El Ansari and Phillips (2001) maintained that collaboration barriers exist in personnel and organizational arenas. Linden (2010b) further delineated obstacles as rigidity and reticence with organizational structures and systems. Newton, Davidson, Halcomb, and Dennis (2007) pointed to under-resourced efforts as presenting a barrier to collaboration. Likewise, Marek, Brock, and Savla (2015) determined a relationship between personnel-resources and activities conducted by coalitions. Similarly, Wuestewald and Steinheider (2006a) concurred that the leaders, followers, and organizational culture could stifle collaborative efforts.

Lack of communication or miscommunication could create challenges to collaborative efforts (Sloper, 2004). Consequently, Sloper contends leaders and members should implement a communication and information sharing system that encourages and enhances openness. Boydell and Volpe (2004) maintained the written contracts and memorandums of understanding delineate partner efforts. Walker and Elberson (2005) stated advances in communication technology expand opportunities for collaboration partner interaction. Others advocated for logic models as methods of communicating strategic plans between collaboration partners (Kaplan & Garrett, 2005). Regardless of

the communication methods utilized, activities such as these are meant to enhance collaborative efforts.

Foster-Fishman, Berkowitz, Lounsbury, Jacobson, and Allen (2001) analyzed 80 articles, chapters, and practitioners' guides to identify enablers of collaborative capacity. The authors classified four critical levels; namely, member capacity, relational capacity, organizational capacity, and programmatic capacity. According to Foster-Fishman et al., capacity building should be ongoing and continuous. Also, Foster-Fishman et al. maintained open communication was a key aspect of collaborative capacity. Building member capacity toward collaboration is continuous (Foster-Fishman et al., 2001). To support collaborative efforts throughout the team, Foster-Fishman, et al., advocated for collaborative leadership for all members, so there is an understanding every stakeholder should participate in influencing team efforts. This suggests that collaborative frameworks should be flexible, adaptive, favorable to change, emerging, and involve team members in collaboration integrally.

Foster-Fishman et al. (2001) discovered member capacity building could involve training necessary for the skills to complete the shared mission. Researchers discovered community coalitions hosted training in an effort to increase member understanding of prevention strategies necessary to affect community change (Feinberg, Chilenski, Greenberg, Spoth, & Redmond, 2007). Wells, Ward, Feinberg, and Alexander (2008) determined coalitions offered training toward community assessment and planning strategies prior to becoming too involved in collaborative work. Training also related to increasing collaborative capacity.

For instance, Morse and Stephens (2012) advocated a four-point training curriculum. The training points involved assessment, initiation, deliberation, and implementation of collaborative leadership governance. Morse and Stephens maintained that the training should utilize case studies to build competencies in strategic areas involving collaboration. To Morse and Stephens, the key to successful collaboration is to build collaborative capacity by developing skills, knowledge, and abilities to work with others for shared purpose.

Potential partners should see the reasons for working together outweigh not working together before attempting collaboration. The necessity for collaboration begs for clear, shared purpose to more clearly see reasons to work together to solve common problems (Wilson, 2013). Accordingly, establishing a collaborative environment between organizations seeking a similar purpose might seem simple to some individuals. On the other hand, there is difficulty in finding agreement on the definition of collaboration among researchers and practitioners (Bingham & O'Leary, 2008; Linden, 2002). An obstacle to collaboration occurs when stakeholders do not develop consensus on the points of collaboration.

Argyris (2010) maintained that a major collaboration barrier is lack of trust among potential partners. In contrast to Argyris, in part, Vangen and Huxham (2003) observed that lack of trust does not necessarily initially challenge collaboration attempts; however, Vangen and Huxham argued trust builds if the parties are willing. If there was, no effort to gain trust within the collaborative effort Vangen and Huxham also believed it would challenge the collaboration potential. Expanding on the idea of building trust, Bass

and Bass (2008) stated that collaboration "requires time, trust, and interpersonal competence with attentive listening and the probing of underlying assumptions in the search for creative solutions. Each side must be flexible and open about what it wants to see in the solution" (p.336). Joyal (2012) agreed building relationships needed for collaboration required trust and pointed to social interaction as possible opportunities to enhance trust among potential partners. Therefore, even if lack of trust is a barrier initially, positive nurturing through social interaction can affect change to trust as a facilitator.

In conversations with participants involved in boundary spanning training research, Linden (2010) discovered their challenges to collaborative efforts involved perceived jurisdictional competition issues, perceived attacks on the status quo, and perceived concern of losing charge. The problem is that perception may not always match actual truth. Organizations seek diversity aggressively in some cases; however, stakeholders with differing backgrounds, viewpoints, or agendas can create barriers to collaboration. While it is important to recognize differences, focusing on those differences only exaggerates what the stakeholders do not have in common (El Ansari & Phillips, 2001). As with issues of trust, stakeholders build relationships with time and time increases an understanding of differences. In short, familiarization with one another can lead to improved and profounder relationships (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Ospina & Foldy, 2010). Then, diversity of viewpoint can become a facilitator for collaboration and ensure partners determine solutions to shared problems.

In regards to relational capacity, Linden (2010c) contended relationship development is one of the essential aspects to building collaborative efforts. Furthermore, Foster-Fishman et al. (2001) argued relation building is needed to complete team objectives. Also, Allen, Watt, and Hess (2008) stated collaboration coordinators depended on existing and new relationships to increase opportunities for successful collaboration endeavors. Allen et al. (2008) discovered direct contact with team members and partners nurtured existing and new relationships alike. The social interaction accelerated trust, agreement, and camaraderie among stakeholders (Allen et al., 2008). Likewise, Morse (2010) maintained positive leadership qualities and boundary spanners require an "ability to cultivate trusting relationships" (p. 243).

Therefore, relational aspects concerning collaboration are important for several reasons. Lack of social relationships among stakeholders is a barrier to collaboration (J. A. Martin & Eisenhardt, 2010). Conversely, social relationships may provide solution to lack of trust and finding common ground (Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffler, 2012). In other words, relationship building and developing trust go hand in hand.

Regarding resources within collaborative efforts, Zakocs and Guckenburg (2007) stated that resources existed as funding, personnel, equipment, or any item meant to increase organizational capacity to respond to shared efforts. Burns (1978) stated a draw to collaborative efforts are shared resources offered by the collaboration. Sharing resources are common in successful collaborations (Meek, DeLadurantey, & Newell,

2007), so, resources are considered a collaboration facilitator. Wilson (2013) maintained maximization of available resources affects collaborative leadership positively.

One shortcoming to building collaborative capacity is that the leader/manager is not actually competent to conduct collaborative leadership. Simo and Bies (2007) contended that poor leadership is often the blame for collaboration failures. Extending Simo and Bies, Behn (2010) argued collaborative organizational environments require flexible leadership. Wise (2002) maintained leadership is essential to building collaborative capacity, and such collaborative efforts require leadership structures that model openness and flexibility. Greenleaf and Spears (2002) considered the informal and formal structures of an organization. To Greenleaf and Spears, the formal structures provide the administrative order to the organization while the informal structures offer the leadership to mitigate the negative aspects of administration but there must be a sense of balance between these forces. Greenleaf and Spears further stated that the effectiveness of the leader in finding the proper balance between the formal and informal structures within the organization supplies greater assurances for "team effort and a network of constructive interpersonal relationships that support the total effort" (p. 73). The CVF suggests that leaders handle balance within the organization (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

Collaboration Within Command and Control Contexts

Although law enforcement agencies may exhibit command and control management structures, other organizations utilize similar linear, hierarchical restrictive organization structures. Certainly, the military exhibits command and control

management structures and leaders determine the structures required change to address current organizational missions, goals, and objectives (Yammarino et al., 2010). Lurie (2009) investigated health care and mental health care organizations and found command and control structures within those organizations restricted collaborative environments. In addition, Wilson (2013) argued command and control structures could exist in any organization that exhibits a linear hierarchy with a coercive approach. Consequently, enhanced collaboration efforts require modifying traditional command and control structure to flexible and adaptive leadership structures.

Characteristics of command and control organizations are threatened coercive sanctions if employees are non-compliant with directives (Crawford, 2006), lack of input from lower-level staff (MacBeath, 2005), challenges to solving complex problems (Wilson, 2013), hierarchical management structures (Paparone, Anderson, & McDaniel Jr, 2008), tiered teams and solo players (Ibarra & Hansen, 2011), and less flexibility and less innovative organizational environments (Murray, 2002). Reflecting on the CVF, control functions are necessary but overly pursued collaborative attempts and efforts may suffer and fall short.

Over the last two decades, law enforcement agencies have experienced difficulties fostering collaboration. Jones (2008) discussed law enforcement agencies in the Western Hemisphere in the context of organizational change moving from traditional policing to a more proactive stance involving community stakeholders. Jones stated that technological advances and ethical missteps in the late 1800s induced police organizations to adopt stricter rules and regulations for accountability purposes. Law enforcement historians and

others now identify this as the reform era of policing (Schmalleger, 2012; Worrall & Schmalleger, 2013). Police executives and government officials believe that the challenges of corruption and graft within the police ranks directly related to line officers and supervisors close contact with the community they served (Caldero & Crank, 2011). Unfortunately, police managers have focused on opportunities for corruption and not the culture that cultivated unethical behavior.

The invention of the motor vehicle coincided with ethical difficulties. In an effort to increase efficiency in years past, law enforcement agencies focused on response time to service calls (Bayley, 2008; Gau & Gaines, 2012). Shielded in their new vehicles from continued contact from the community they served, officers arrived at service calls and then quickly left the call with little or no interaction with the community members. Almost immediately, other governmental agencies and community members in some communities in the United States considered the police experts in crime and disorder (Worrall & Schmalleger, 2013). The police neither needed nor wanted input from any other jurisdictional stakeholder to solve community problems (Dempsey & Forst, 2012). This also led to occasions where they did not believe they even required partnerships with other law enforcement agencies. Accordingly, law enforcement agencies handled problems with a clear connection to crime in their own jurisdictions. Those same agencies ignored non-crime community challenges and saw no need in working with anyone other than other agency employees. Even if officers saw a need, senior leadership did not encourage or support it. Newton, Halcomb, Davidson, and Denniss (2007)

maintained lack of senior leadership toward collaboration created barriers to working together.

Worrall and Schmalleger (2013) stated the law enforcement profession witnessed attempted change in community response through the implementation of community policing. The concept of community policing is the antithesis of a command and control style of policing. Community policing requires stakeholder empowerment to solve crime and disorder challenges as shared leadership within an organization engages external stakeholders working jointly on community problems (Deukmedjian, 2006). Kingshott (2006) stated that the main emphasis of community policing involves line officers being empowered by management to make decisions. A law enforcement agency that embraces the true philosophy of community policing, focus moves from "leadership at the top to leadership at the bottom" of the organization (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008b, p. 145). It requires collaborative efforts by the police officers with the public they serve and it is through these partnerships that police achieve community consensus for enforcement work (Bayley & Shearing, 1996). However, continuing to move forward with the command and control style of management and leadership is to the determinant of other community stakeholders.

Law enforcement officers' opinions about community policing are changing. Wang (2006) asserted that the surge of community policing philosophy revealed popularity of the viewpoint among law enforcement agencies. According to Wang, a key concept that is crucial to successful implementation of this philosophy is shared leadership between the internal stakeholders (officers and supervisors) and external

stakeholders (law enforcement personnel and community residents). Wang's review of the literature revealed that since customer focus is important to community policing, citizens must perceive their input is accepted. Line officers or those closest to the community, must believe their input is valued and necessary for positive solutions to community problems. In other words, collaboration requires mutual respect and trust.

To assess organizational challenges moving to community policing from a traditional, reactive policing, Wang (2006) evaluated community policing efforts and officers' motivation. Wang found that reforming "organizational management actions can be as effective as redesigning work duties" (p. 67). The author surveyed officers within the Taipei County Police Department in Taiwan. The questionnaire asked officers about five indexes of police role orientation, strength of individual need regarding personal and professional growth on the job, attitudes toward management, motivation potential of the work, and job satisfaction. In brief, the researchers learned that while non-community policing officers are satisfied with their job, they took issue with their supervisors' strict management style. Community policing officers perceive their job managers as more democratic than the non-community policing officers are. Consequently, the community police officers seemed to be more motivated and satisfied with their managers and supervisors. With this analysis of reality, law enforcement agencies would be hard-pressed to continue to move forward with traditional, hierarchal leadership and management structures.

The actual concept of community policing involves shared leadership and Wang's research provides good information that might better encourage public police agencies to

adopt a more democratic form of management. Community policing requires a "democratic management style which in turns assures the increase of officer job satisfaction" (Wang, 2006, p. 75). Officers gaining an understanding of community policing might be the springboard by which law enforcement agencies can better interagency collaborative efforts. Defining it correctly requires flexibility while maintaining control (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003). In addition, collaboration operates better when officers understand the reason to work together, both with internal and external stakeholders.

Collaboration barriers exist even if organizations have a clear need to work together. For example, after the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in the United States, then-President George W. Bush and Congress jointly formed the 9-11 Commission to investigate and identify successes and potential problems with the tragic events preceding, during, and after the response. The Commission concluded the main problems were lack of communication, coordination, and collaboration among agencies reacting to the terrorist attacks, especially where it concerned law enforcement and intelligence agencies (National Commission on Terrorist Attacks, 2004). The key assertion of the 9-11 Commission report was a need for increased collaboration among agencies and organizations to protect the nation from and respond to acts of terrorism.

The National Commission on Terrorist Attacks (2004) called for increased "unity of effort" (p. 309) and discounted old methods of agencies working independently and, in some cases, in competition with each other. The Commission report stated, "Americans should not settle for incremental ad hoc adjustments to a system designed generations ago

for a world that no longer exists" (p. 309). The report specifically advocated "teamwork, collaboration, and cooperation" as being "critical to a successful response" (p. 396) to emergency management response and recovery as well as problems created by terrorist attacks and the proactive investigation to thwart future terrorist attacks.

The events of September 11, 2001, are but one example where lack of collaborative efforts resulted in shortcomings in investigations of the terrorists and the disaster responses. According to Austin (2000), disasters point to the need for collaborative efforts to respond more effectively. Austin also declared that collaborations should involve all stakeholders--namely, the government, business sectors, community groups, and nonprofit organizations--because these groups offer more together than what they accomplish singularly. Certain solutions to societal problems, such as disasters where residents' lives and property are threatened, involve collective responses (Comfort, 2007). In some instances, the failure of organizations to work together is a major roadblock to finding solutions to common problems.

Another collaborative effort between law enforcement agencies occurs in state - level fusion centers meant to create opportunities for multi-agency terrorism investigations (Joyal, 2012). Concerning fusion centers, K. Small and Taylor (2006) argued barriers to collaboration involved cooperation, coordination, and information sharing. K. Small and Taylor used surveys and recent research commissioned by the National Institute of Justice to review recent historical efforts. Traditionally, federal law enforcement agencies have been involved in international crime interests but recent increases of terrorism and organized crime within the United States have included state

and local agencies because crime occurs on in state and local jurisdictions. Joyal discovered the need for positive personality characteristics within the fusion centers. K. Small and Taylor (2006) as well as Weinberg (2009) also cited personality conflicts as challenging collaborative teams. Weinberg did caution that some instances of what appears to be personality conflict, may actually occur because communication problems within the collaborative effort.

Another barrier to effective collaboration between organizations is the organizational structure. Schlegel (2000) suggested law enforcement agencies must "dedicate the time and resources necessary to develop an organizational structure that facilitates, rather than impedes, interorganizational relationships" (p. 381). Organizational structure of one or more agencies hinders cooperation, coordination, and information sharing within state, local, and federal agencies attempting multi-agency partnerships (K. Small & Taylor, 2006). While individuals and organizations seeking collaborations should avoid barriers, they should pursue facilitators of collaborations.

Researchers have examined facilitators for collaborative capacity. Shared leadership issues can and do affect collaborations across organizational boundaries (K. Small & Taylor, 2006). Currie, Grubnic, and Hodges (2011) strongly advocated for "shifting leadership patterns across partners" (p. 258) as a method to enhance collaborative capacity. If the management structure does not advocate for shared leadership internally, it is less likely that those same management personnel will quickly embrace shared leadership outside the organization. Issues of mistrust, misconceptions about the other organizations, and the resulting tensions are challenges to organizational

collaboration. Conversely, a level of trust, collaboration, and social cohesion possibly influences positive methods toward handling challenges (Feinberg et al., 2007). Distributing leadership throughout the collaborative eases potential power struggles; thereby increasing accountability and transparency.

Researchers have also discussed training for all concerned stakeholders about collaboration ensure the highest level of effectiveness and efficiency (Cropp, 2012; Giblin, Haynes, Burruss, & Schafer, 2013). Bayley and Shearing (1996) examined the emergence of private police as an answer to public police shortcomings and discovered that "police are also beginning to recognize that the traditional quasi-military management model, based on ranks and a hierarchical chain of command, may not accommodate the requirements of modern policing" (Bayley & Shearing, 1996, p. 591). Bayley and Shearing indicated that many of the agencies that have recognized a paramilitary organizational structure is not suited for modern policing have opted for a more participative management style. Accordingly, the management in those agencies understands that higher levels of employee input results in greater employee satisfaction and thereby increases the likelihood of superior community approval for the organizational direction (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008a).

Bayley and Shearing (1996) offered good discussion topics for what they perceive would be the future of public police departments in a democratic society. The article reviewed challenges such as transparency, accountability, human rights observance, and pertinent democratic values. A point that is crucial to understanding the emergence of private police organizations is that the lack of public police effectiveness in some areas or

the low response to requests for greater level of services than the public police can provide created an environment for citizen disillusionment of the public police. This dissertation may give the public police a basis for evaluation of the private policing to pattern their organization in a better manner to respond to citizens.

VanYperen, van den Berg, and Willering (1999) tested two models that revealed the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and participation in decision making. Participation in organizational decision making increased the employees' perceived supervisory support and that support linked to organizational commitment. The study used multilevel analysis and reviewed indexes of participation, support, commitment, altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. For the purposes of the study, the authors surveyed 142 people within one organization. VanYperen et al. (1999) questioned the validity of some aspects of the study because of high correlations among variables. Organizational commitment did not necessarily increase organizational involvement but supervisory attitudes toward the employee enhanced their involvement and commitment. While attempting to show the relationship between greater organizational commitment and organizational involvement, VanYperen et al. ascertained that supervisors' actions do influence commitment. Employees that believed their opinion within the workplace was important were more likely to have greater involvement in the workplace.

Even though the research focused on a private business, the findings emphasized employee satisfaction appeared to be greater in organizations that endorsed employee input. As with other research reviewed in this chapter, supervisors must communicate

that the employee is valued and that the supervisor appreciates employee input about job direction. This would hold true regardless of whether the focus organization was a public agency or private business.

Wuestewald and Steinheider (2006a) discussed the transition from a paramilitary style of management to a shared leadership organizational structure within Broken Arrow Police Department in Oklahoma. The authors argued for structural change and conducted a qualitative analysis of employees, supervisors, and managers' perception of change to the law enforcement agency. Wuestewald and Steinheider embraced the idea that leaders responsible for change within public sector agencies should look to other incentives than leaders in the public sector. Private businesses may be able to offer higher incentive pay and fringe benefits; however, public organizations have little latitude to offer such incentives (Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006a). The public manager should rely on organizational aspects to increase and maintain organizational commitment.

One challenge for public organizations to hire qualified employees is competition with private sector organizations. Wuestewald and Steinheider (2006a) argued that an answer to the challenge is implementation of shared leadership as an incentive for increased commitment and job satisfaction. Public managers are required to set aside traditional management practices and adopt problem-solving techniques that involve line officers (Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006b). While monetary incentives might not be as good in public organizations as in private businesses, flattening the organization to involve everyone in the organizational decisions might supply inducements for those employees to stay with the organization.

Wuestewald and Steinheider (2006a) centered on a pointed and dedicated transition from a paramilitary type organization to a team policing organizational environment. Wuestewald and Steinheider revealed the design of a shared leadership team, the roles of the stakeholders, required training, critical success factors, and barriers to shared leadership implementation. In that structure, the chief of police encouraged the work team to make the final decisions about work efforts, organizational goals, and objectives. Ciulla (2004) argued that bogus empowerment occurs when those at the top of the organization only give subordinates the appearances that lower level stakeholders are responsible for work directions and then yanks the decision authority back, refusing to allow proper job input. Broken Arrow Police Department employees were truly empowered (Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006b).

Wuestewald and Steinheider (2006a) provided capable information on the concept of shared leadership within law enforcement. Wuestewald and Steinheider reasoned that training in group dynamics, communications, problem solving, creative thinking-decision making, and conflict resolution was crucial to success of the implementation of a shared leadership organizational structure. While the example of conversion to shared leadership within the Broken Arrow Police Department offers interesting points, it only described movement within one police department. Wuestewald and Steinheider cautioned the results of the study might not translate easily to other law enforcement organizations.

Meek et al. (2007) presented evidence that interagency collaborative efforts at shared leadership can be successful. The research focused on shared leadership efforts in Los Angeles County, CA, where there are over 4,000 square miles of possible law

enforcement jurisdiction. The two largest local agencies, Los Angeles County Sheriff's Office and the Los Angeles Police Department, have multiple law enforcement precincts. In addition, there are 46 city police departments as well as 21 campus police agencies in Los Angeles County. Additionally, other local agencies such as independent school district police departments as well as state law enforcement such as the California Highway Patrol have consecutive and/or concurrent jurisdiction with other agencies. In 1929, because of the jurisdictional issues that might arise, partners formed the Peace Officers Association of Los Angeles County (POALAC), which epitomized law enforcement collaborative efforts. While networking is an important part of the function of the association, it also enhances planning for multijurisdictional enforcement efforts across jurisdictional lines (Meek et al., 2007). Fleming and Hall (2008) emphasized collaborative leadership within law enforcement environments should engage both internal and external constituencies. Relational aspects of collaboration signify tremendous substance to building collaborative capacity.

Meek et al. (2007) used survey data from key personnel involved in POALAC. The surveys asked policy questions about the perceived effectiveness of the association by the 26 board members. Meek et al, found the key to perceived effectiveness of shared leadership existed and evolved in areas of common problems that spanned multiple jurisdictions. Meek et al. postulated that collaboration was much more than interacting and networking, that it involved finding solutions to common problems and utilizing shared resources to impact those problems. Therefore, the important information reaped

is that successful collaborations among external partners are determined by finding solutions to common problems by using shared resources collectively.

Kingshott (2006) maintained achieving higher police service delivery required changing the management structure of the organization. Using a discussion of leadership literature, the paper suggests all police officers regardless of rank should gain an understanding of leadership concepts and practices. As such, problem solving must become a participative exercise, which includes citizens in the decision-making process (Kingshott, 2006). Kingshott discussed community policing in the context of law enforcement within the United Kingdom. Community policing empowers the lower ranks of a police agency and supervisors delegated decision-making to them in spite of those who might wish to continue decisions from the top of the agency (Ellis & Normore, 2014). The thought is that those involved in engaging collaboration require authority to make decisions affecting that collaboration.

A community policing philosophy embraces strong leadership organizational structures as well as shared leadership (Kingshott, 2006). As discussed in earlier research, communication between concerned stakeholders is crucial to successful endeavors in shared leadership. Therefore, Kingshott maintained that for effective leadership to occur, it must involve “active participation by managers to maximize the skills and abilities of the individuals for their own and the organization’s benefit” (p. 128). As such, everyone within the organization should be aware of their efforts toward the organizational goals and objectives.

The bottom line of positional leaders implementing a shared leadership organizational environment is that proper execution encourages employee input. Better employee job satisfaction usually translates into greater employee innovation, thereby increasing organizational effectiveness and efficiency. If team members perceive that their organizational contribution is not valued or even accepted, most likely, they will not contribute ideas or at most, reach minimum workplace expectations (Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2001). It makes no sense for a supervisor or manager to have access to assistance from multiple subordinates, yet not seek that assistance or encourage it.

An additional benefit of implementing an internal collaborative environment is that it could enhance collaborative spirit. To bolster this thought, Feinberg et al. (2007) discovered prior collaboration experience increased these skill-sets, which in turn increased the quality of collaborative processes. Also, Feinberg et al. discovered a commitment to working together could override challenges due to the lack of collaboration experience.

Leadership Toward Collaborative Efforts

This phenomenological study increased understanding of leadership related to implementing and understanding collaborative efforts. Specifically, the study focused on the lived experiences of AET coordinators as they lead alcohol enforcement teams in possible community collaborations. In Chapter 3, before offering an in-depth discussion of the research methodology for the study, I discuss the broader context of phenomenological research methods.

In a comparison of varying phenomenological methods, Van Manen (2014) maintained individuals "rarely reflect on the living sensibilities of our experiences, since we already experience the meanings immanent in our everyday practices through our bodies, language, habits, things, social interactions, and physical environments" (p. 215). Van Manen indicated that Husserl believed phenomenological researchers should concentrate on participants' descriptions of experiences "prereflective" or prior to the participant even considering what their experience meant. According to Van Manen, Husserl argued that true phenomenological researchers avoid writing about the experience of the experience. In other words, researchers should shun expressing their own point of view when phenomenological means describe the phenomenological experience from the participant's point of view. Further, Van Manen stated that Husserl pointed toward epoché, or bracketing, as a process by which a researcher sets aside his or her own bias of a phenomenon to understand the experiences of participants within the phenomenon. To that end, Vagle (2014) asserted that Husserl advocated phenomenological researchers vigorously oppose "abstractions, representations, and theoretical modeling in favor of approaches that attempt to see phenomena as they are lived" (p. 72), suggesting Husserl this precludes pursuit of literature reviews about the phenomenon in question.

In a description of the hermeneutic phenomenological method, Van Manen (2014) stated Heidegger indicated this setting aside of a researcher's ideas, theories, and frameworks is impossible; Heidegger did not dismiss the idea of epoché, or bracketing, and reduction. Unlike Husserl, Heidegger accepted that a researcher's own experiences

and knowledge could frame an understanding of the phenomenon post interviews. To this end, Vagle (2014) proposed a review of the literature. This is where an awareness of the possible themes within the context of a phenomenological research study is important to obtaining a holistic description of the phenomenon.

Overall, the major themes for emphasis in this study were collaboration and the leadership shown to advance and, thereby, enhance the collaboration. Building collaborative capacity requires difficult work with tremendous patience, and includes leadership activities meant to move toward the collaborative effort. The reason it is difficult is collaboration is fraught with complexities (Vangen & Huxham, 2012; Wise, 2002). Expanding on the complexity, Connelly et al. (2008) stated a basic paradox found within collaboration attempts is that collaboration is appealing to organizations because of the possible benefit, yet unappealing due to cost sometimes extracted due to blended planning among member organizations and decisions made to gain consensus. The difficulty for collaboration increases when potential partners do not believe collaborative efforts are worth the cost (Bardach, 1998). To McCaffrey, Faerman, and Hart (1995), the complexity and difficulty in building collaborative efforts resides in the possibility that the various stakeholders view benefits and costs differently. Collaborative leadership seems to require influences toward gaining an understanding that the benefits of working together overshadow collaboration costs (McCaffrey et al., 1995; Tschirhart, Christensen, & Perry, 2005)

Researchers have discerned in the literature concerns in the following areas. Collaboration requires tremendous patience, planning, and concentration on the

combined effort. It is most importantly, a relational endeavor (O'Leary, Yujin, & Gerard, 2012), not something done alone in a vacuum without interacting with other stakeholders. Collaboration that is more effective occurs when the leadership within the collaboration is more open, transparent, and accountable to their partners.

For some members of an organization, a team represents collaborative efforts--individuals working together toward a common goal. In self-managed teams, or teams without a named leader, Yang and Shao (1996) observed various team members assume the managerial duties such as coordinator, monitor, facilitator, mentor, or other team leadership duties that normally only one leader in authority perform. Because individual team members fulfill the various team leadership roles, the whole (team) is greater than the sum of the parts (individuals). Carte, Chidambaram, and Becker (2006) found that self-managed teams allocated some duties based on skill, such as Producer behavior with other duties allocated to multiple team members because one person, no matter the skill, could feasibly handle the role alone. Carte et al. also discovered that successful team performance required individual leadership (e.g., competent expertise) and collective leadership (e.g., being a good team player).

A team may convey a shared leadership approach. Carson et al. (2007) investigated the required conditions for successful implementation of shared leadership style. Their research included a review of 59 consulting teams within an academic environment. Carson et al. ascertained that complex work groups are best lead by multiple people rather than one exclusive leader, complex work groups often require technical details such that multiple leaders are required, and flatter organizations

structures have become a greater occurrence in private businesses and even in public organizations. As such, shared leadership creates an environment in which group addresses solutions. In some instances, no one individual is always responsible in a shared leadership environment. Those working toward the common goals are accountable for the solutions.

One key factor in a collaborative team is that members of a team involved in shared leadership must offer to lead the team by influencing the direction, motivation, and support of the group and members must accept leadership from multiple members (Carson et al., 2007). Thus, Carson, et al. believed that three dimensions are present when shared leadership is most effective. The team must have shared purpose, social support for all team members from within the team and individual voice from members toward input on work duties, goals, objectives, and mission (Carson et al., 2007).

Carson et al. (2007) as well as other researchers (Angles, 2007; Boon, Raes, Kyndt, & Dochy, 2013; Foster-Fishman et al., 2001) have advocated training, support by internal and external stakeholders, and clear two-way communication as usually defining successful ventures into shared leadership. Supervisors and managers view paradoxical directions of individual efforts toward a collective goal. In other words, it matters what each individual does in order to achieve the team or organizational goals.

Building collaborative capacity requires adaptive leadership skills (Slater, 2005). Cameron et al. (2006) identified leadership competencies among effective leaders and effective organizations through extensive investigations. Leader roles and competencies lend to providing a foundation toward leadership development and effectiveness (Quinn,

Faerman, Thompson, McGrath, & St. Clair, 2011). Attempting to address leadership effectiveness specifically, researchers studied leadership competencies. Hunt (1996) stated that competency is "the knowledge or skill necessary to perform a certain task or role" (p. 162).

Cameron et al. discovered that the "most effective managers have at least average competency on leadership skills in all four quadrants of the Competing Values Framework" (p. 113). Arsenault and Faerman (2014) stated leaders need to learn to integrate competing and opposing activities within the quadrants rather than balance or trade-off those actions. This means leaders should come to know intuitively at what point overemphasis toward a particular leadership action that it becomes a negative aspect (Arsenault & Faerman, 2014). It means leaders have the ability to embrace complexity when deciding leadership roles toward collaborative efforts.

Even though different management skills and leadership competencies are required in collaborative environments, there are commonalities with management skills required in bureaucracies (McGuire, 2006). Problems can result when leaders overemphasize certain competencies over others and fail to recognize balance and optimization leadership roles (Arsenault & Faerman, 2014; Belasen & Frank, 2008). In simplest terms, if the situation requires teamwork, overdependence on organizational controls may torpedo collaborative efforts (Getha-Taylor & Morse, 2013).

Leadership that encourages and enhances shared efforts ensures collaboration between internal and external stakeholders. Devos and Bouckenooghe (2009) argued the essential leadership skills involved support and communication. Perkins (2009) found

that engaged team leaders influenced positive team environment and enhanced opportunities for successful collaboration. In the same line, Slater (2005) argued collaboration requires “leaders to develop a new compendium of skills and adapt new mind-sets and ways of being” (p. 332). Gronn (2002) argued that deliberate forms of distributed leadership afford greater opportunities for collaborative exertion toward discovering solutions for organizational problems. Haberfeld (2006) stated that participative leadership style is preferred over a directive style when attempting collaborative efforts. Further, Haberfeld added that law enforcement managers tend to use a directive leadership style and it may be problematic for the organizations seeking collaborative efforts with the community.

Hansen (2009) asserted that for “highly centralized organizations, the challenge is move to a collaborative effort” (p. 19). In other words, though collaborative efforts can exist in centralized organization, those efforts can be problematic because of the organizational culture and leadership structures. Relying on their many previous research studies and experiences working with a multitude of public and private organizations, Whetten and Cameron (2011) maintained that certain leadership competencies were effective dealing in certain competing value quadrants. Most importantly and pertinent to this research, achieving collaborative leadership requires an understanding of organizational and network culture (Rai, 2011).

Concerning understanding organizational culture, Cameron et al. (2006) asserted that leaders should balance flexibility and control toward engaging competing priorities, values, and preferences within the organization. Hart and Quinn (1993) referred to this

skill as behavioral complexity. Successful leaders are able to maintain competing actions toward steering organizational efforts while ineffective leaders see competing actions as polar opposites. Successful leaders exhibit higher-level behavioral complexity while less effective leaders exhibit lower level behavioral complexity (Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995). In addition, leaders maintained balance within the competing values, edging toward a companion value when necessary, and moving back toward balance when context required it. Ineffective leaders overly apply one action, then in some cases to compensate for their excessiveness, shift to the opposite action. The CVF illuminates leadership competencies required to maintain organizational equilibrium (Zafft et al., 2009), or, as Cameron et al. (2006) wrote, the CVF "serves as a map, an organizing mechanism, a sense-making device, a source for new ideas, and a learning system" (p. 6) for leaders to guide change and ensure organizational effectiveness.

Some people might believe leaders and managers should always use collaborative leadership. This is simply not the case even if the organization exists entirely for a collaborative effort. McGuire (2006) maintained that collaboration "complements rather than supplants single organization management" (p. 40). CVF, or what some authors call a "competing values approach," explains leadership strategies required for a move from a strictly vertical organization to flexible leadership involving collaborative efforts. Kapucu and Demiroz (2013) discovered a statistical relationship between leadership and collaborative capacity within the organizational network. In addition, Kapucu and Demiroz leadership development that taught strategies aimed at increasing organizational and relational skills specifically enhanced collaborative capacity. The results of the study

can “achieve collective action in response to challenging complex problems” (Kapucu & Demiroz, 2013, p. 115).

Researchers and practitioners that embrace a competing values leadership emphasis perceive organizational cultural values as complementary rather than paradoxical and opposing (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Instead of viewing paradoxical leadership actions in terms of “if/or,” their view involves “both/add” thinking. In other words, these individuals understand that the importance of appropriately finding balance of leadership actions. It is in this balance of competing values, organizations thrive. Paradox within organizational work establishes the leader requirement of behavioral complexity to manage influence activities toward building capacity and therefore, organizational change (Hooijberg & Petrock, 1993).

Wilson (2013) advanced the idea that collaborative leadership involved “harnessing collective intelligence, developing trust and safety, maximizing talent and resources, sharing power and influence, and accelerating innovation” (p. 336). This suggests paradoxical and competing actions of managing efforts while encouraging relationships and trust. Wise (2002) asserted, “The actual capacity to work collaboratively effectively must be developed and is by no means assured” (p. 133). Reviewing over 200 articles and books, Linden (2010c) discovered common qualities of collaborative leadership; namely, a collaborative mind-set that visions connections, inclusive using influence to move stakeholders rather than a directive style, confident about possibilities, and focused toward collaborative opportunities. Also, Linden found in successful collaborations that partners have a shared purpose, there is a willingness to

work together for solutions, the effort has champions to pursue common goals, and suitable stakeholders are involved. In addition, Linden maintained that collaboration partners trusted one another and perceived the collaborative effort was credible and open.

The idea about collaborative efforts having champions to support those efforts is found in the literature. Linden (2010a) discovered champions were individuals "with credibility and influence" and enhanced collaborative efforts with their leadership skills (p.22). In other words, these champions supported the collaboration. Teams seem to require both external and internal support for growth and maintenance (Angles, 2007; Boon et al., 2013; Carson et al., 2007; Foster-Fishman et al., 2001). Key support for initial team efforts were found in external champions (Marrone, 2010; Marrone, Tesluk, & Carson, 2007). Also, Linden (2010a) discovered that external champions were important to developing the shared purpose required for the foundation to collaborative efforts. Research supports the idea that the champions as well as team members are recognized for their work toward assistance in building and maintaining the shared mission of the team (Hoch, Pearce, & Welzel, 2010; Witt, Hochwarter, Hilton, & Hillman, 1999).

Sullivan et al. (2012) illuminated within the literature, two circumstances that exist at the intersection between collaboration and leadership research. According to Sullivan et al., the first issue concerns the fact that collaboration attempts have increased and will continue to increase due to perception of the need to work in partnerships. As addressed earlier, circumstances of reduced resources and complex community problems in modern society require stakeholders to work together for shared goals. Second,

collaborative efforts challenge the traditional leadership hierarchy in that within many collaborations, it is difficult to determine who has authority for leading. In other words, collaborative efforts create strain for individuals from command and control organizations because they are unfamiliar with collaborative leadership.

The challenge was identifying the influences in the process to building and maintaining collaborative leadership practice (Sullivan et al., 2012). Sullivan et al. used Q-method research to explain different interpretations about collaboration from participants involved in those collaborations. Structure and agency shaped leadership outcomes, approaches, and behaviors in collaborations (Sullivan et al., 2012). An individual's skills, experience, and expertise defined differences between leaders' ideas concerning collaboration (Sullivan et al., 2012). Consequently, Sullivan et al. found that even individuals from the same agency might view the particulars of collaborative leadership differently.

Sullivan et al. (2012) called for further research concerning collaborative leadership in an effort to understand better the different leadership skills that seem to influence collaboration. Researchers use phenomenological research methods to make sense of participant experiences and affect a deeper understanding of a phenomenon (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009), so phenomenological method was employed to understand collaborative leadership experiences in my research.

How the Study Fills a Gap and Extends Knowledge

This research comprised at least two gaps in the literature. One, no research studies exist in scholarly literature concerning the factors that serve as barriers to and

facilitators of collaborative leadership in alcohol enforcement teams. I used a hermeneutic phenomenological research method that described and interpreted the lived experiences of AET coordinators involved in those alcohol enforcement teams for the purposes of attempting to discover those factors.

Second, I employed the CVF in this research to compare derivations of participant lived experiences to organizational indicators previously identified in CVF studies. The CVF has assisted in similar research concerning collaborations and project management offices (Aubry & Hobbs, 2011), interdisciplinary research teams (König et al., 2013), military/humanitarian aid collaboration (Scheltinga et al., 2005), and voluntary organization (Crim et al., 2011), to name a few. No studies exist using CVF to categorize organizational indicators.

Summary

In Chapter 2 I provided a review of the literature on collaboration, leadership, collaboration within command and control environments and enablers and obstacles to collaborative leadership. Gaps in the literature were explored, and I revealed how this qualitative, phenomenological study addresses unknown knowledge regarding factors that serve as facilitators of and barriers to collaborative leadership within AETs in South Carolina. In Chapter 3, I will connect the gaps in the literature to the use of phenomenological methods.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study was to gain insight about SCAET coordinators' views on collaborative efforts and leadership in their units. I used a hermeneutic phenomenological research approach for the study. Other researchers have used this method to interpret and describe the lived experiences of a phenomenon (Van Manen, 2014). The information learned through this study may offer insight to individuals and groups who attempt to implement a collaborative leadership approach within law enforcement agencies. Law enforcement agencies traditionally have vertical leadership organizational structure (Nichols, 1995) that discourage collaboration (Perez & Barkhurst, 2012).

In Chapter 3, I discuss the research design and the rationale for my use of a qualitative research approach. In addition, I discuss my rationale for using a hermeneutic phenomenological quantitative research method and reasons why I did not use other methods. I explain specific procedures, including participant selection, sampling, data collection, data analysis, and interpretation, and how I provided for ethical protection of the participants. I then summarize key points made in the chapter.

Research Design and Rationale

The benefit of using a phenomenological method to research leadership is that the method assists a focus on the lived experiences of leaders (Heil, 2010). The methodology "explores the meanings of phenomena or events as lived through" by participants in the phenomena (Van Manen, 2014, p. 298). This approach could greatly increase

understanding of what establishing collaborative leadership involves. Two research questions guided this study:

RQ1. What factors are barriers to, and facilitators of, collaborative leadership among SCAET coordinators?

RQ2. What leadership factors increase the ability of SCAET coordinators to establish collaborative relationships?

Three research models are open to researchers: quantitative methods, qualitative methods, and a combination of the two methods, called mixed methods (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). Babbie (2007) explained that both quantitative and qualitative research have unique positions, depending on the research focus and research question. Quantitative research approaches involve descriptive use of numbers, statistical analysis of the relationships between variables, statistical analysis to determine validity and reliability of data collection and analysis, and establishment of probability percentages concerning those statistical tests (McNabb, 2008). According to Creswell (2009), researchers use quantitative approaches in order to statistically examine relationships between variables. Quantitative methods focus on a deductive model with specific expectations of hypotheses based on data collected and converted to a numerical format. A quantitative method model did not fit the research questions for this study.

Researchers conduct qualitative research to understand or explore phenomenon from a participants' point of view. Therefore, these research methods typically occur in the field and involve "text, language, and visually based data" (Kraska & Neuman, 2011, p. 10). Creswell (2007) asserted that qualitative methods are capable of illuminating

"meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (p. 37). Qualitative methods concentrate the study using inductive logic through specific observations generalized to attempt to understand the phenomenon better.

The mixed model method combines both qualitative and quantitative research designs. Researchers used this method gather data from participants about the phenomenon consecutively or concurrently and then analyze data. Creswell (2009) stated that the mixed model method requires tremendous effort and time because a researcher must use two methods. Creswell further added that this method is complicated for the beginning researcher. Since the quantitative method within the mixed model did not fit my proposed research questions, I chose not to use this research design.

In comparing qualitative methods and quantitative methods, Mats (1996) argued that qualitative research offers more robust and clearer images of the study focus than quantitative methods. The qualitative research method also adds tremendous flexibility and freedom necessary to explore the research topic adequately (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This method would be especially important when research is inconclusive, diminutive, scant, or non-existent (Creswell, 2009). Although researchers have studied collaborative leadership (Perkins, 2009; Simo & Bies, 2007; Wise, 2002), no research exists about collaborative leadership within AETs in South Carolina. A quantitative method was not appropriate for the study because the purpose was not to identify causal relationships but to recognize factors that serve as barriers to and facilitators of collaborative leadership in the alcohol enforcement teams.

This study sought to understand the establishment of collaborative leadership. Interviews were conducted with AET coordinators about their lived experiences to possibly comprehend how collaboration was built and maintained. The leadership literature suggests that there is a lack of consensus concerning leadership theories and concepts from the research conducted over the past century (Bennis, 1959; Miner, 1982; Rost, 1991). Bryman, Bresnen, Beardsworth, and Keil (1988) and others (see Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Gronn, 2002) argued that leadership research should be based in qualitative methods. Glynn and Raffaelli (2010) attributed some of the lack of agreement about leadership perspectives among researchers to continued use of quantitative research methods. Although quantitative measures have an important place in validating leadership theories (see Bass & Bass, 2008; Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Schriesheim & Bird, 1979; Zaccaro, 2007), development of concepts and theories requires the rich and robust data methods found in qualitative procedures (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Klein, Ziegert, Knight, & Yan, 2006). Consequently, I used a qualitative research method in this collaborative leadership study of alcohol team coordinators

Qualitative Research

Scientists categorize studies about phenomena as social research. The three most common purposes of social research are descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory (Babbie, 2007). Kraska and Neuman (2011) added that evaluation is a fourth purpose for social research. As the word indicates, evaluation assesses and appraises the "effectiveness of a program, policy, or method," and it is the most common purpose for

research within the criminal justice field (Kraska & Neuman, 2011, p. 23). Research is descriptive if the researcher observes activity, and then reports about that activity by depicting what she or he observes. Individuals conduct explanatory research to illuminate a particular study topic. Exploratory research concerns an attempt by the researcher to gain new knowledge of the research topic. Babbie (2007) stated there are three rationales for exploratory investigations: inquisitiveness, to conduct preliminary studies aimed toward later in-depth studies, or pilot methods for later research.

I considered several qualitative field research paradigms for this research study. I reviewed ethnographic methods as a research paradigm because it focuses the researcher on the social life or culture of a group. Generally, the research is set to a geographic area. In this method, interviews with participants and observations of the team would be interesting but there was not just one alcohol enforcement team in South Carolina. There are 16 teams, each with similarities and differences. The purpose of ethnographic method is to spotlight comprehensive and precise descriptions rather than explanations or interpretations (Babbie, 2007). In addition, ethnographers historically have become participant-observers to understand better a particular culture (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). Key to the success for the researcher is acceptance by the group and requires an outlay of time. Gaining acceptance by and observing all the teams would require a large amount of time. Even though I worked closely with the coordinators, and attending meetings and functions is an accepted activity for my role as state AET liaison, it would take months to gain the required access to each team's inner circle. Ethnography was not a suitable option for this research.

Next, I reviewed the case study research paradigm. Babbie (2007) maintained that the case study method is an "in-depth examination of a single instance of some social phenomenon" (p. 298). Yin (2009b) stated that researchers triangulate data gathered from interviews, documents, and observations. Documents existed for the teams; however, the documents related to the enforcement and education activity of the teams rather than the activities toward building partnerships or the effectiveness of the collaboration. In addition, no real standardization existed among the AETs for meeting notes, discussions, or other such documents that could confirm interview points with the coordinators. I did not select case study research because it did not appear to be the best option for my research.

In addition, I considered a grounded theory approach. Grounded theory method is an "attempt to derive theories from an analysis of the patterns, themes and common categories discovered in observational data" (Babbie, 2007, p. 296). Theory evolves through this saturation and the researcher generalizes the theory to a larger population (Creswell, 2007; Shank, 2006; Silverman, 2010). Quoting Lincoln and Guba, Patton (2002) used the phrase "point of redundancy" instead of saturation (p. 246). The participants contribute to the development of the new theory from their collective experiences and the researcher interviews participants until the resulting themes are saturated. I did not select the grounded theory approach because I was interested in the lived collaborative leadership experiences of the 15 coordinators working in South Carolina. Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) stated the limitation of grounded theory is that sufficient detail of emerging theory depends on data saturation and recognition of

saturation is limited at lower number of possible categories. Even if all 15 coordinators agreed to participate in the interviews, I was not certain saturation would occur because of a low number of participants to interview.

I used a hermeneutic phenomenological method for my research study. Researchers classify phenomenological studies as a qualitative method. This study interpreted and described the collaborative leadership experiences of the AET coordinators in the law enforcement teams. Croker et al. (2012) stated that "complexity of these phenomena [collaboration] precludes an easy grasp" of the issues involved in "understanding the development of complex collaborative practice" (p. 13). O'Brien, Martin, Heyworth, and Meyer (2009) maintained that the objective of phenomenological research is comprehension of "the lived experience from the vantage point of the participants" (p. 447). Phenomenological research can reveal emergent themes and categories of activity from the interview data gathered from participants (Angles, 2007). Consequently, this sort of research method enhanced the understanding of the factors that served as barriers to or facilitators of collaborative leadership because the coordinators experienced and lived through establishing and maintaining collaboration within the alcohol enforcement teams.

Phenomenology Method

In the early 20th century, Husserl (as cited in Van Manen, 1990) envisioned phenomenological methods in order to understand better the focus of the meaning of lived experiences. Van Manen (1990) stated Husserl argued the phenomenological method required a descriptive and analytic process involving human lived experiences

with phenomenon. (Koch, 1995) viewed Husserl's ideas as the evolution from Cartesian "mechanistic view of the person" in developing knowledge to acknowledging life influences on a human being. Patton (2002) stated that Husserl's essential supposition was that "we can only know what we experience by attending to perceptions and meanings that awaken our conscious awareness" (pp. 105-106). Husserl's process was first purely descriptive and utilized reduction techniques so that the researcher literally experiences the essence of a phenomenon (Dahlberg, 2006) by interviewing the participant. The researcher then describes the participant's interpretation of the experience. In other words, phenomenological investigations point the researcher toward the phenomenon by depicting the experience from the human point of view.

Bracketing is a fundamental strategy involved in phenomenological research that assists the researcher in locating a detached analysis. Intentionality is directed awareness of the participants' experience with the phenomenon (Van Manen, 2014). Husserl developed the practice and it allows the researcher to suspend bias and subjectivity temporarily concerning the research topic (Rocha-Pereira, 2012). To Husserl, being a part of one's experiences from the inside of the world, or what he called lifeworld, meant acknowledgement of one's own biased view of that world (Van Manen, 2014). Vagle (2014) added that the researcher utilizes a bracketing strategy during the participant interviews so he or she actually listens to absorb the description of the participant lived experiences. Van Manen (1990) agreed in part with Husserl that it is important for a researcher to suspend his or her experiences and knowledge at least during the interview analysis phase but Van Manen believed researcher's knowledge and experiences assisted

with informing analysis. This process offers a method to the researcher to proceed through the investigation with an openness, yet discerning astonishment toward the phenomenon in question.

Heidegger, a student of Husserl, envisioned the phenomenological method as interpretative. Heidegger (as cited in Kafle, 2011) believed researchers and philosophers should be more concerned with the interpretation of world experiences than the description of those experiences. Based on a long tradition for the method of historical analyses of biblical and legal texts, hermeneutics offered a structure for interpretation (Gadamer, 2006; Patton, 2002). Whitehead (2004) stated Heidegger's practice contributed to understanding better "issues and concerns" involving the phenomenon in question and help "anticipate future events" connecting that phenomenon (p. 514). The ability to expect outcomes allows planning.

Though crafted initially by earlier philosophers, Heidegger further developed the concept of Dasein in his phenomenological method to assist in explaining the focus of the investigation of lived experiences (Hornsby, n.d.; Wojnar & Swanson, 2007). Dasein translates from the German language as "being there." To Heidegger, Dasein represents humans' existence in the world (Gadamer, 2006). In other words, individuals define views of the world based on human experiences and the experiences affect interactions with other humans and events in the world.

Heidegger thought an individual's situation or place in the world (culture, context, and prior experiences) affects current experiences within a phenomenon (Wojnar & Swanson, 2007). Consequently, Heidegger did not believe it was possible for researchers

to suspend beliefs about prior experiences and even encouraged it because Heidegger "believed personal awareness was intrinsic to phenomenological research" (Reiners, 2012, p. 2). Heidegger (as cited in Laverty, 2003) alleged researchers and each participant-interviewee coproduced interpretations of the experience.

Even though Heidegger was a follower and, later, a colleague of Husserl, they had their differences within the overall practice of phenomenology. As discussed in Reiners (2012), although Husserl advocated from a standpoint of lived experiences by description, Heidegger believed researchers investigated from a standpoint of interpretation. Husserl believed in the theory of knowledge or epistemology (study of knowledge) and Heidegger argued phenomenology from the point of ontology (study of being) (Reiners, 2012). Husserl concerned his investigation with the essence of the experience with the phenomenon in question was like (Laverty, 2003) whereas Heidegger asked what was the meaning of the phenomenon (Reiners, 2012).

Van Manen (2006) furthered research practices called hermeneutic phenomenology and adapted strategies from earlier phenomenologists. Dowling (2007) maintained Van Manen's (1990) practice combines some aspects of Husserl's descriptive phenomenology with methods of Heidegger's hermeneutics. Thus, this research strategy seeks to bring to the essence of a lived experience to both describe (reduction) and interpret (reflectivity). As Van Manen (2014) commented that "phenomenology is more a method of questioning than answering, realizing that insights come to us in that mode of missing reflective questioning, and being obsessed with sources and meanings of lived

meaning" (p. 27). Using this method, interviewing becomes more of a conversation between the interviewer and interviewee.

Husserlerian bracketing takes on a different twist with Van Manen. Van Manen (1990) acknowledged the difficulties for the researcher trying to "forget or ignore what we already know, we may find that the presuppositions persistently creep back into our reflections" (p. 47). Further, Van Manen suggested researchers illuminate prior beliefs and then try to challenge those beliefs against the lived experiences of the participants in the phenomenon. Additionally, acknowledging prior beliefs up front offers a method by which researchers possibly understand better the phenomenon of focus (Van Manen, 1990).

Van Manen (1990) outlined six points to hermeneutic phenomenological research. According to Van Manen, the research method "may be seen as a dynamic interplay among the six research activities" (p. 31). Researchers pursuing the research method should (a) investigate a phenomenon of interest, (b) study lived experience instead of conceptualized phenomenon, (c) reflect on essential themes, (d) describe the phenomenon through writing and rewriting, (e) maintain a strong and oriented relation to the phenomenon, and (f) balance the research context by considering the parts and the whole (Van Manen, 1990, pp. 30-31).

Role of the Researcher

Data collection is a significant step within the research study in which researchers play an important role. Silverman (2010) maintained there are two types of data collection methods within qualitative research studies: observations in the field or

interviews conducted with respondents. The researcher performs as a participant-observer to conduct interviews and observe phenomenon within a qualitative methodological framework. Weiss (1994) expressed that the interview method of data collecting "gives us access to the observations of others" (p. 1). Therefore, the goal for the interviewer is ensuring "the participant reconstructs his or her experience within the topic under study" (Seidman, 2006, p. 15). I interviewed participants because the research questions focused on the lived experiences of the AET coordinators establishing collaborative leadership efforts.

I have served as the state alcohol enforcement team liaison since 2007, when the program expanded statewide to cover all 16 judicial circuits that include the 46 counties in South Carolina. In my role as AET liaison, I knew all of the eligible participants on a professional level and interacted with all of them to varying degrees. As the AET liaison, access to the AET coordinators was readily available because of my constant interaction with coordinators by phone, email, and occasional face-to-face meetings.

The role of the AET liaison is not supervisory but advisory. My two main duties were to coordinate statewide and regional AET training as well as provide technical assistance to AET partner agencies. This training is offered free of charge to the teams by their request, and it is meant to build capacity for each AET to conduct enforcement and education activities. The AET coordinators decide the opportunity for training in their jurisdiction, and I coordinate a suitable training session based on the Coordinator's request. Based on the training request, I assess the number of additional instructors needed for the training session. If the request is more for technical assistance specific to a

certain AET and it is beyond my knowledge and experience, I locate the appropriate individual or group to fulfill the technical assistance request.

My role as AET liaison and as a researcher for this study was bifurcated. I have worked in law enforcement either has a sworn officer or in more of a training and technical assistance role as now for more than 33 years. For the last 25 years, I worked to establish and maintain a collaborative environment to varying degrees; first at a local level and for the last 17 years at a state level. I spent time thinking about ways to promote collaboration and sought new or improved strategies for collaborative leadership in literature reviews as well as practical experience. I believed I firmly grasped the elements for a successful collaboration and realized it takes a team effort to create a collaboration, whether that team has a small number of members or many members. All this said I knew from experience that collaborative efforts do not always occur no matter how much partners want the collaboration to work.

I sought to understand the factors that serve as barriers to and facilitators to collaborative leadership from the perspective of the AET coordinator. Rich, robust interviews with the AET coordinators were required for this study. As such, I set aside a "constant inclination to be led by preunderstandings, frameworks, and theories" (Van Manen, 2014, p. 224), or the process of bracketing, to reach openness toward describing their experiences and interpreting their experiences with collaborative leadership from the AET coordinator's point of view. Acknowledging the required commitment of all phenomenologists to the process of bracketing, Vagle (2014) stated that while setting aside theories during interviews and data collection is mandatory, it is equally important

that the phenomenologist depend on pre-research knowledge and experiences with the phenomena under scrutiny to interpret that phenomenon. Finlay (2014) added that a phenomenological researcher must manage subjectivity and find balance between his or her own experiences and knowledge about the phenomenon and that of the participant. Whitehead (2004) agreed that a researcher must know when to provide voice in the interviews and when to listen. In other words, finding equilibrium to one's knowledge and experiences about the phenomenon requires fluctuating levels of balance during various points in the research.

Besides setting aside my knowledge and experiences during participant interviews, other ethical issues related to conducting research in one's own work environment. Even though my AET liaison role was more advisory than supervisory, my employer was a contractor with the Department of Alcohol and Other Drug Abuse Services (DAODAS), the state agency responsible for coordinating and funding the AETs at the state agency. A coordinator could have revealed something in the interviews that was contrary to the contract between the coordinator's employing agency and DAODAS or even a violation of state or federal law.

Seidman (2006) experienced an interviewee disclosing to the research team an ongoing, nonviolent criminal act. Although the crime was not necessarily pertinent to the research study, the research team chose to terminate interviews with the participant and destroy the tapes and notes obtained through the interview. This was not feasible if a coordinator disclosed impropriety or misappropriation of funds. However, the consent form carefully outlined what is appropriate to the research topic in an effort to discourage

nonpertinent discussions of an illegal or inappropriate act. Still, the coordinator may not have heeded the warning and divulge inappropriate or illegal information. Consequently, I would have suggested the coordinator withdraw his or her permission to participate in the interview. Like Seidman, I had planned to terminate the interview with that particular AET coordinator and destroy the recordings and notes as if the interview never began.

Finally, using an incentive to participate in the interview was inappropriate. Enticing someone to participate by offering money or other incentive could mediate his or her responses in the interviews (Grant & Sugarman, 2004) and the participant could have based the response on perceptions of satisfactory responses. Though concerning voluntary participation in medical research, Kuczewski (2001) indicated monetary incentives to participate in research might reduce the voluntariness of the informed consent. As for other incentives besides money, Padilla-Walker, Zamboanga, Thompson, and Schmersal (2005) discovered participants who might benefit most from an incentive might not take advantage of the incentive regardless. In this study, the informed consent form offered stated that participation was voluntary and the research could have provided a more in-depth understanding of collaborative leadership.

Despite my experience in collaborative efforts within a law enforcement and community context, this research offered an opportunity chance to learn. As Finlay (2014) commented, phenomenological interviewing “forces us to slow down, to pause, to re-examine taken-for-granted assumptions and the idea that we already know this phenomenon. In the dwelling we linger and become absorbed in what is being revealed” in the conversation with participants” (p. 125). I was interested in what created

challenges and successes for those attempting to engage in collaboration and what it meant to them as they experienced it.

Methodology

The information contained in this section describes the procedures I followed in my research. The purpose of the discussion in this section informs other researchers of the research procedures I employed, so my study can be replicated.

Participation Selection Logic

This section covers the participation selection process and a justification of the process I chose for selecting the population asked for an interview. The importance of deciding the appropriate number of participant interviews in qualitative research related to arriving at connections among the participant interviews and later, readers finding links to their own experiences to stories about the about the participant experiences (Seidman, 2006). Individuals working in substance abuse prevention and law enforcement know the 16 AETs collectively statewide as the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Team, or SCAET. Within the 16 circuit-level teams, a lead local alcohol and drug commission either employed the coordinator or contracted with a local partner law enforcement agency for the coordinator position. Even though there are 16 enforcement teams, one AET coordinator covers two teams in adjoining judicial circuits.

To ensure an understanding of collaborative leadership from the prospective of the coordinator and the possibility of connections to those experiences, I initially planned to offer all 15 coordinators an opportunity to participate in the research interviews. Prior to seeking Walden University IRB approval, I emailed each of the 15 alcohol and drug

commission directors to seek approval to seek permission from the coordinators for an interview. All but one of the agency directors gave me approval to ask the coordinator to participate in the research.

Since the beginning of SCAET in 2007, the local teams have had turnover in the AET coordinator position. While only three original coordinators still served in that capacity and offer the experience of initially building a team, most of the remaining local coordinators offered a perspective of maintaining collaborative leadership within the team. When Walden University IRB approved my research proposal # 01-29-15-0042326, I asked 14 AET coordinators to read and sign research consent forms. I received voluntary consent from 12 coordinators. Then, I offered the AET coordinators an opportunity for individual and open-ended, semistructured interviews. Chapter 4 describes in more detail this research step.

Sample Size

This section continues the process of participant selection and establishes sampling procedures. As stated above, I offered 14 AET coordinators the opportunity to participate voluntarily in the research interviews and 12 coordinators agreed to participate. I assumed that every coordinator who participated would add to the discussion about experience involving the teams. Because I have participated in meetings with the coordinators since 2007, the coordinators knew I planned research about AET. I was not specific about the research plan or even the topic to any degree; however, I did send an email communication announcing the specific plan when Walden University IRB Review approved my research (# 01-29-15-0042326).

The email contained an attached informed consent form. Seidman (2006) outlined eight major parts of the informed consent form. According to Seidman, the form should cover an invitation to participate in the study, any potential risks of that participation, the participant's rights once he or she agrees, and the possible benefits. In addition, the consent form should outline the confidential nature of the research records, including interview notes and recordings, dissemination reach of the written research document, special conditions for children, and contact information for researcher and IRB. My emailed consent form covered these items.

It was important to maintain confidentiality and anonymity for the research participants involved in the research. I knew participants would likely be more open and honest with answers to questions if they are certain they would remain anonymous in their responses. Media outlets and social media efforts publicized the SCAET enforcement and education activities periodically so local AETs were well known. At the time of writing, South Carolina was the only state that implemented statewide youth enforcement activities at the local level. Individuals searching the internet could find a list of coordinators at a prominent website. At the local level, many citizens probably knew the individual team members, especially given that the teams are part of the law enforcement community within each county. Most all of the AETs publically listed enforcement and education activities on a monthly, if not weekly, basis. Though identification of South Carolina efforts was most likely given the teams were well known locally, anonymity for specific team members and coordinators was achieved by removing any identifiers in Chapter 4 (the findings) and Chapter 5 (an interpretation of

the results and recommendations). I did attempt to interview all of the AET coordinators or entire population for the research study. Because one agency director denied access to the coordinator and two coordinators declined to participate in the interviews, only 12 coordinators ultimately participated. The 12 coordinators that did participate in the interviews represented 80% of the AET coordinators in South Carolina.

Instrumentation

This section covers the discussion about the interview questions that I used during the participant interviews. Options are available to researchers to collect many types of data in empirical studies. Of the five basic methods (surveys/interviews, histories, archival analyses, experiments, and case studies), no one method is better because the research question governs the study method (Krathwohl & Smith, 2005). Some people believe that there is a hierarchy for these main research methods and that certain methods are acceptable for only one purpose. For instance, Yin (2009a) stated that many researchers mistakenly believe case studies are only useful for an exploratory purpose. Yin pointed out that certain conditions dictate the research study method, not the purpose per se. Each main study method can encompass all four common research purposes (Yin, 2009b). My phenomenological study was designed to describe and interpret coordinators experience building and maintaining collaborative leadership teams.

Because coordinators are located throughout South Carolina, I conducted the interviews through electronic means that featured audio and video as well as recording capabilities. I collected data during open-ended interviews with questions developed from the literature concerning collaborative leadership and based on the tenets of the CVF (see

Table 1). No consistent documents from every AET to review to confirm or deny the perceptions of the lived experiences of the AET coordinators working in alcohol enforcement teams. There appeared to be sufficiency within the interview questions to answer the two research questions for this research.

Table 1

Interview Questions

Question category
Collaborative leadership
1. Tell me about your experiences coordinating AET.
2. How was your experience different from your expectation?
3. What were the key activities and/or activities (i.e. training, formal policy, and/or standard operating procedures, etc.) required to implement partnership with other AET members?
4. What have been the facilitators of effective AET partnerships?
5. What have been the barriers to effective AET partnerships?
Personal development
6. What does the word “leader” mean?
7. What does the word “leadership” mean?
8. Do you believe any specific life experiences prepared you in your role as an AET Coordinator?
9. Do you believe working with AET as an AET coordinator requires different skill sets than prevention specialist or law enforcement officer (question depends on the AET Coordinator being interviewed)?

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

This section describes how I recruited research participants and invited each one to share his or her perception about the experience attempting to establish collaborative leadership within the alcohol enforcement teams. In addition, the section outlines the data collection method. Participation in the study was voluntary, and I asked each participant that agreed to contribute to the study to sign a statement acknowledging participation was

voluntary. In addition, the invitation to participate in the research outlined the purpose and focus for the research.

In phenomenological studies, data collection occurs during participant interviews. Interview questions meant to gather "experiential narrative material, stories, or anecdotes that may serve as a resource for phenomenological reflection and thus develop a richer and deeper understanding" of the phenomenon (collaborative leadership) (Van Manen, 2014, p. 314). Van Manen (1990) described the interview as more of a conversation than a question session. The questions elicit conversation points and guide the discussion.

The informed consent form informed the participants of the purpose for the research. Informed consent is central part of the procedures to promote ethical research (Sharpe & Faye, 2009). Biklen and Casella (2007) recognized that the informed consent form also supplies the participants with potential risk factors. In addition, the form outlines the participant's rights (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012), which include the voluntariness of participation in the research as well as the right to withdraw at any point and for any reason. Another aspect of the informed consent form is procedure for a debriefing once the interviews have concluded.

According to Tesch (1977), there are three reasons for participant debriefings: ethical, methodological, and educational. Tesch added that the ethical function covers residual negative emotions from contributing to the research. Toy, Olsen, and Wright (1989) pointed to an ethical need to conduct participant debriefings if the researcher used any level deception during the interviews. The methodological function covered the researcher attempting to detect inadequacy within the interviews (Sharpe & Faye, 2009;

Tesch, 1977). For example, if the interviewed subject was less than honest, he or she might be forthcoming during the debriefing. Lastly, the educational function for the debriefing is to offer a lesson for the participant from the research (Tesch, 1997).

I planned to conduct follow-up (second) interviews to afford participants and me the opportunity to discuss any remaining issues needing clarification. Because coordinators did not ask for a follow-up interview and the fact that I had no additional questions, no second interviews were needed. During the first interview, I did conduct a debriefing with every interview participant at the conclusion of the first interview in anticipation that a second interview would not occur. I did tell every coordinator that participated, they could contact me should any questions or comments about my research arise. At this point, no participant has contacted me in regards to the interviews.

Data Analysis Plan

This section covers the methods for converting the interviews to transcripts as well as a bridge to the data analysis plan. During the interview, I made field notes and record the conversations for accuracy of the interviews. I reduced all conversations to written transcripts and share each transcript to ensure accuracy.

Van Manen (2014) outlined a three-stage process to explore themes and insights. According to Van Manen, the researcher should use the written transcripts of the interview to conduct a holistic reading of the written material. This step affords the researcher an opportunity to reacquaint himself or herself with the interview conversations. Next, the researcher should conduct a selective reading, looking for particular phrases and words that capture the essential characteristics of the phenomenon

in question. Finally, the researcher performs a detailed reading of the transcripts. This step requires the individual to review every sentence or sentence phrase and to analyze it for thematic expressions, phrases, or narrative paragraphs that reveal phenomenological meaning to the phenomenon (p. 320). Vagle (2014) described these steps as a "whole-parts-whole process" (p. 98) and it is common to all phenomenological styled research studies.

As stated above, no coordinator asked for a second interview after reviewing his or her own transcript for accuracy. Only one participant requested I make a minor edit to the transcript. I did amend the transcript because the edit clarified the coordinator's position. I resent the transcript to the participant and it was approved. The other participants approved their transcript once they received it. After their transcript approval, I began rereading the transcripts to discover themes concerning the leadership experiences of the AET coordinators. I used the Van Manen process revealed in the preceding paragraph.

The transcripts were analyzed using NVivo coding software. Charmaz (2008) stated "coding gives a researcher analytic scaffolding on which to build" (p. 217) a deeper understanding of the research topic. NVivo software allowed me to create models for easier viewing. Vagle (2014) advised that the use of computer software could create "mechanistic representations rather than a deeply embodied crafting" (p. 98). This said, Vagle stated that if it assists the researcher in a deeper understanding of the interview, then utilizing the software is certainly acceptable.

Issues of Trustworthiness

This section discusses issues of trustworthiness related to the research. Trustworthiness is important to the research process in many ways. Whitehead (2004) stated, “Researchers have ethical and professional obligations to produce research of a high standard” (p. 512). Whitehead further added that the researcher could guarantee trustworthiness by following the theoretical framework established by the chosen research methodology. The only acceptable digression from the established method is if a researcher provides valid reasons for the deviation.

Qualitative research has different criteria for issues of trustworthiness than quantitative research. Quantitative research must conform to reliability and validity standards (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). Quantitative research meets reliability standards if two different researchers conducting the same research arrive at essentially the same results. The research is valid if it reflects the phenomenon being studied. Similarly, qualitative research must meet credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability standards that confirm trustworthiness of the study.

Creditability

Creditability relates to the internal validity of the research. Creditability within qualitative research compares to validity in quantitative research (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). Credibility assures the reader that the researcher’s perception of the direction of the participant interviews match. It assures the reader the researcher has taken measures to succumb to bias and allow it to influence the results directly or indirectly. To this end, I followed phenomenological procedures of bracketing in order to suspend possible bias.

Bracketing, or what Husserl (as cited in Van Manen, 2014) called epoché, allows a suspension of prior belief about the particular phenomenon in question so that I was listening during the participant interviews. Using my field notes and recordings, I transcribed the interviews and then provided a transcript to each participant to ensure that the transcript correctly reflected the individual interview (Silverman, 2010). I planned to offer second interviews with the participant if either the participant or me required an opportunity to clarify the thoughts about collaborative leadership and the lived experiences of the participant (AET coordinator). As discussed earlier, there was no request for a second interview. I adopted these steps to confirm credibility for the research study.

Transferability

Transferability relates to the external validity of the research. Transferability within qualitative research means that readers should find how well similar strategies might operate in their own situations (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012) and accomplish the same tasks. I conducted participant interviews that featured rich, full descriptions and interpretations of the participants' lived experiences (Silverman, 2010) involving collaborative leadership.

Dependability

Dependability equates to the quantitative research standard of reliability. In qualitative research, Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) stated that researchers and readers do not assess dependability through statistical means as in quantitative studies. I conducted the interviews, reduced the notes and recordings of the interviews to transcripts, and

allowed the participants to review their own transcript for accuracies. Further, I conducted analysis using computer software so themes within the lived experiences are evident.

Confirmability

Confirmability equates to the quantitative research standard of objectivity. Shank (2006) maintained confirmability "deals with the details of the methodologies used" to conduct the research (p. 115). Bloomberg and Volpe (2008) maintained that qualitative researchers acknowledge objectivity pursuit is pointless given they are naturally given to biases and illuminating the methods used so it is apparent the source of the results. In other words, researchers provide audit trails so that readers validate the findings derive from participant interviews rather than from biased and opinionated researchers. To achieve confirmability, I utilized participant interview affirmation that the interview transcripts matched his or her words and meaning as well as reanalysis to achieve objectivity within the data (Van Manen, 2014).

Intercoder and Intracoder Reliability

Intercoder-intracoder reliability relates to the analysis of written text. Bloomberg and Volpe (2008) stated that intercoder reliability refers to two or more researchers independently coding interviews and arriving at essentially the same findings. Bazeley (2007) stated intracoder reliability refers to the consistency of raters' judgments. Bazeley further added that coding consistency has increased vastly with the use of computer software such as NVivo and other programs. To this end, I utilized NVivo software to

code the interview transcripts and analyzed the transcripts for concepts, categories, and themes.

Ethical Procedures

This section covers the ethical procedures that I used in my research. I implemented several measures to ensure the ethical protection of participants. Silverman (2010) outlined research ethics procedures to ensure voluntary participation and the right of study withdrawal, to protect research participants' privacy and anonymity, to assess potential benefits and risks of study participation, to obtain informed consent, and to do no harm. Once Walden University IRB # 01-29-15-0042326 approved the research, I followed the principles provided by Silverman by offering a consent form that outlined these five areas to each possible participant. I supplied an informed consent form outlining the research objective and the opportunity to participate in the study. Participation was voluntary, and the participants did not receive compensation for participating in the study interviews. I protected participants' identities and anonymities.

As stated earlier, even though the names of the AET coordinators are well known, the content of their specific interviews remained anonymous, meaning readers will not be able to trace interview data readily back to a particular research participant. Silverman (2010) commented that even through the point of the research is the sharing of the research findings; researchers should protect the identification (anonymity) of particular participants. Documented IRB approval governs the disclosure of information from participants. Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) stated that IRB approval assures both the researcher and research participants of the credibility of the research. I placed the IRB

approval number # 01-29-15-0042326 on the informed consent form so the potential participant could confirm that Walden University IRB approved the research proposal.

Participants voluntarily consented to participate in the research. Although there was some allowance for interviewees to veer off topic so they were comfortable in the conversation, I encouraged participants to come back to the topic at hand with pointed questions. To ensure confidentiality, while the research continued and after the dissertation is approved, I will store the interview recordings and accompanying data under lock and key at my home for a period of 5 years or as long as deemed necessary by Walden University IRB and research policies. At the end of the time required for locked storage, I will destroy the recordings and data.

As stated earlier, in my professional role, I provide technical assistance and training to the AETs, but I am not in a supervisory role with the AETs. I made clear through the informed consent form that the AET coordinator had the right to refuse to participate in the study and that no repressions would occur if a particular AET coordinator refused. Once coordinators agreed to participate and interview appointments were set, coordinators received a reminder of the right to withdraw from participating in the research. I encoded each participant's name as a pseudonym so only I was certain of the participant interview. At the beginning of the initial interview, the coordinators received another reminder about withdrawing from the study. After the interview concluded and I transcribed the interview, I shared a copy of the transcript with the specified participant. Once I shared the transcripts, I secured the recordings and interview transcripts.

Summary

This chapter afforded details concerning the research method and processes related to this study. The chapter contained a discussion about the potential study participants, my role as the researcher, the research design, and the steps to protect the participants ethically, data collection, and data analysis. Chapter 4 will include an examination of the data collected from the participants' interviews. Chapter 5 includes a discussion of the findings, implication for social change, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study was to gain insight about SCAET coordinators' views on collaborative efforts and leadership in their units. I used a hermeneutic phenomenological research approach for the study. I outlined two specific research questions in an attempt to understand the barriers to, and facilitators of, collaborative leadership in AETs. In Chapter 3, I discussed the research design and my rationale for using a qualitative research approach. I also discussed my rationale for the use of the hermeneutic phenomenological research method and reasons that I did not consider other qualitative research methods. Lastly, I explained my procedures for participant selection, sampling, data collection analysis, and interpretation and protecting participants.

In Chapter 4, I delineate the research questions, discuss the research methodology, and describe the results and findings of my study. Two research questions guided this study. The first research question focused on the factors involving barriers to and facilitators of collaborative leadership from the point of view of AET coordinators. The second question concerned leadership factors that increased AET Coordinators ability to establish collaborative relationships. To answer these questions, I interviewed SCAET coordinators.

Research Setting

After I received IRB approval on January 29, 2015, I contacted each of the 14 coordinators using my Walden University email account to request that each of them voluntarily join me in the research interviews. Fifteen coordinators cover all 46 counties

in South Carolina; however, only 14 AET lead agency directors gave me permission to ask for interviews from their respective coordinators. I had some difficulty arranging voluntary interviews with several potential participants because of their work schedules. While I was collecting data, two coordinators resigned their positions. One of those two coordinators declined the interview before resigning. A replacement was not chosen immediately, so there was no opportunity to include the eventual replacement in my research. The second coordinator resigned without responding to the invitation email at all. After I learned that the second coordinator resigned, I emailed the interim coordinator who had assumed that coordinator's duties. That individual accepted my request for an interview. Two other participants rescheduled their interviews due to conflicts that arose with their schedules. Consequently, it took two months to complete all interviews. I estimated the interviewing process would take approximately one month, so other than increasing the time required for data collection during the interviews, no apparent impact was observed on the data collection from outside conditions.

Demographics

Seven (58%) of the participants who accepted my interview invitation were female and five (42%) were male. Three (25%) of the participants had law enforcement experience. Nine (75%) had substance abuse prevention backgrounds. Mean years of service as an AET coordinator were 3.7 years with a standard deviation of 2.93 years. Three of the coordinators whom I interviewed assumed their positions when AET went statewide in 2007 while the other individuals assumed coordinator duties after their predecessors resigned. Overall, three (25%) of the participants had more than 5 years of

experience as an AET coordinator, five (42%) had between 2-5 years of experience, and three (33%) had less than 2 years of experience as an AET coordinator.

Data Collection

Of 15 possible participants, I received 12 positive confirmations for interviews. I first emailed the director of the organization that employed or contracted for the AET coordinator position within the judicial circuit to obtain written permission to interview the coordinator. All but one of the 15 directors gave me written permission to approach their AET coordinator. The one director who denied my request stated that agency personnel were busy with other duties and time would not allow for participation in my research.

I included the letters of research cooperation (see sample in Appendix A) in the packet of information I submitted to the Walden University Institutional Review Board. When I received IRB approval (# 01-29-15-0042326), I emailed the 14 remaining coordinators with a request to participate in the interviews. I attached a consent form (see Appendix B) to the email. The consent form outlined the purpose of my research, the type of interview questions that I would ask, and explained that participation was voluntary. I maintained that no sort of retaliation would occur if the coordinator decided to not accept my invitation for an interview or withdraw from the research after it commenced. Two coordinator declined participation. One did so by replying to my email while the other did so orally when I followed up by phone two weeks after my initial email because I had not received a written response to my email. Both coordinators stated

that duties did not allow time for them to participate in the research interviews. I thanked both of them for their acknowledgement and pursued the matter.

As coordinators approved my request to participate in the interviews, I used a free online web meeting service to schedule the interview. I sent another email with the link for a free online scheduling service. The scheduling service featured a poll with possible dates and times for interviews. The link in the email was specific to the individual's email address, so I knew no one else but the coordinator could access the poll. In addition, a coordinator could not view any other coordinator responses to the poll. As I received automatic notification that a coordinator selected a particular interview slot, I closed that selection to the other coordinators and then scheduled the interview time through the online web meeting system. The online web meeting system allowed me to send another email notification to the particular coordinator announcing that the interview date and time was scheduled. Again, the meeting system was specific to the interview time and location, and no one could gain access to the web meeting without the invitation to the set date and time for the particular interview.

The online web meeting system also allowed me an opportunity to post the interview questions (see Table 1) ahead of participants' scheduled interviews. The system link to the meeting date and time allowed the coordinator to view the questions prior to or during the interview. An additional feature of the online meeting system allowed me to record the interview, so I recorded every interview. The system also allowed each participant an opportunity to listen to his or her interview recording. I eventually scheduled 12 interviews using the online web meeting system.

The first interview took place on February 13, 2015, and the final interview took place on March 13, 2015. As each interview took place, I noted the time when the actual interview commenced. I did not count the amount of time it took for me to explain the procedures for the interviews, confirming the voluntary nature of the interviews, and asking the participant if they agreed to the interview as well as the recording of the interview. The longest interview took 71 minutes. The shortest interview took 16 minutes. The average time for the 12 interviews was a little over 39 minutes. Four (33.3%) of the interviews took less than 26 minutes, four (33.3%) of the interviews took from 26-51 minutes, and four (33.3%) lasted more than 51 minutes. The longer interviews were due to the verbosity of the participants. Conversely, the shorter interviews were a result of the participant offering succinct answers to my questions.

I took sparse field notes because I was interested in listening to the conversation elicited by the interview questions. The notes provided reminders for potential probe questions during the interview and offered markers for areas of interest as I transcribed the interviews. As I completed each interview, I downloaded the recording of the interview to my computer. After I ensured there were no problems recording, I deleted the recording from the online meeting space. When I completed all 12 interviews, I used the recordings to produce transcripts of the interviews. As I completed a transcript, I emailed it to the appropriate coordinator and asked the coordinator to verify that the transcript represented a true reflection of our conversation.

In addition, I asked each coordinator if he or she required a second interview to clarify the first interview or if they needed me to amend their first interview. Only one

coordinator asked me to amend a transcript, which I did and then emailed the amended copy to the coordinator. The coordinator agreed with the amended transcript. No other coordinators asked me to amend the interview transcript. No coordinators asked for a second interview. I was satisfied that the first rounds of interviews fulfilled the data collection needs of the research so no second interviews took place.

There were no extraordinary incidents faced in the data collection. Because of coordinators' schedules, the length of the time needed to complete the 12 interviews was one month. It took about two months to produce the interview transcripts and obtain participant interview affirmation. No coordinator learned the order of his or her particular interview. I did not tell any coordinators which other coordinator participated in interviews. I did not tell any of the coordinators which coordinators declined my request for an interview. It did not appear to me the length of time or circumstances of the interviews affected data collection negatively.

Data Analysis

This section covers the methods I used to conduct the data analysis plan. As described in Chapter 3, Van Manen (2014) outlined a three-stage process to explore themes and insights. According to Van Manen, the researcher should use the written transcripts of the interview to conduct a holistic reading of the written material. This step affords the researcher an opportunity to reacquaint himself or herself with the interview conversations. Next, the researcher should conduct a selective reading, looking for particular phrases and words that capture the essential characteristics of the phenomenon in question. Finally, the researcher performs a detailed reading of the transcripts. This

step requires the individual to review every sentence or sentence phrase and to analyze it for thematic expressions, phrases, or narrative paragraphs that reveal phenomenological meaning (p. 320). Vagle (2014) described these steps as a “whole-parts-whole process” (p. 98) and it is common to all phenomenological styled research studies. I followed the advice of Van Manen and Vagle as I conducted data analysis.

Data analysis was iterative. Even though I analyzed the transcripts by multiple careful readings, I utilized NVivo 10 coding software to collect the themes and subthemes that evolved from the data. The NVivo software allowed me to query the themes and subthemes easily. This permitted me to catalog and logically arrange the coding, thereby affording me a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of the participant coordinators.

No participants presented contradicting statements or non-conforming data to any other participant in the interviews. I was careful as I asked probing questions so I did not indicate what participants provided in previous conversations. I did this in effort to reduce chances for biased data prompted by the interview questions. I pursued differences and opposing positions among participants’ individual and aggregate responses. In addition, I searched for inconsistencies in individual participant responses. There were responses where only one or two out of 12 participants gave answers that were not suggested by other participants. Those responses are discussed in the results section of this chapter.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Credibility

Creditability relates to the internal validity of the research. Credibility assures the reader that the researcher's perception of the direction of the participant interviews match. It assures the reader the researcher has taken measures to not succumb to bias and allow it to influence the results directly or indirectly. I accepted that I had knowledge about methods to establish collaborative efforts; however, I set that knowledge aside during the interviews in order to understand collaboration efforts from the lived experience of the participants.

Standardization of procedures within data collection (interviews) increase credibility in qualitative research. I asked the same questions of every participant. I gave the same instructions to the participants and followed the same flow during the interview sessions. I used my field notes and recordings to transcribe the interviews and then provided the transcript to each participant for confirmation. Neither the participants nor I required a second interview for clarification or additional information and they each confirmed that the transcript they received was a true and correct reflection of the individual conversations. I adopted the preceding steps to confirm credibility for the research study.

Transferability

Transferability relates to the external validity of the research. Transferability in qualitative research means that readers might find direction in their own collaboration endeavors from the themes found in the interview participants' experiences. In

quantitative research, transferability relates to the ability to generalize the sample population to the entire population. Although the sample of coordinators interviewed represents 80% of all of the South Carolina AET coordinators, I do not generalize the results to every coordinator of law enforcement teams working with underage drinking issues. Some generalizations are possible among AET coordinators in South Carolina and I discuss these possible generalizations in Chapter 5.

Dependability

Dependability equates to the quantitative research standard of reliability. I conducted the interviews, reduced the notes and recordings of the interviews to transcripts, and then allowed the participants to review their own transcript for accuracies. There was no need to conduct follow-up interviews for clarification because all participants but one approved their individual transcripts from the first interview. The one participant that did request amendments to the transcript, did so without a need for a follow-up interview, mainly because the requested change was very minor and did not appear to change the participant's response. I conducted analysis using computer software so themes within the lived experiences were evident. In Chapter 5, I compare the findings with the Chapter 2 literature review.

Confirmability

Confirmability equates to the quantitative research standard of objectivity. To achieve confirmability, I utilized participant interview affirmation that the interview transcripts matched his or her words and meaning as well as the fact that I conducted iterative analysis to achieve objectivity within the data. The interview questions were

standardized so that every participant was asked the same questions. There were occasions where I asked probing questions to understand better the participant's response; however, probing questions were kept at a minimum to achieve uniformity in the participant responses.

Study Results

The purpose of this study was to describe and interpret the lived experiences of AET Coordinators toward collaborative efforts in alcohol enforcement teams working in South Carolina. To learn about their experiences, I conducted open-ended, semi-structured interviews with the coordinators. The first research question asked what factors emerged as barriers to or facilitators of collaborative leadership from the lived experiences of the coordinators who served in the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams. The second research question asked based on the lived experiences of the coordinators who led the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams, what are the leadership factors that would increase the ability of the coordinators to establish collaborative relationships.

Barriers and facilitators themes emerged from the participants' discussions elicited from the interview questions (see Table 1). In this section, I designate interview questions as IQ1 through IQ10. Mainly, I derived barriers and facilitators themes from the participant discussions following IQ4 and IQ5, although some coordinators also discussed barriers and facilitators when asked IQ1, IQ2, and IQ3.

Overall, four themes were revealed as barriers and five themes were revealed as facilitators to collaborative leadership within the Alcohol Enforcement Teams. Table 2

shows which interview participants contributed barriers to the teams. In an effort to protect anonymity, I coded the 12 interview participants as P01, P02, P03, so forth to P12. The letter Y within a cell in a table row indicates that the participant discussed at least one barrier to collaborative teams. Conversely, the letter N indicates that the participant did not indicate that the column heading was a barrier. For instance, under the column titled "*Lack of Communication*", P02 discussed at least one instance of lack of communication as a barrier. Conversely, P01 did not discuss lack of communication as a barrier in the team.

Table 2

Barriers to Collaborative Leadership

Interviewee	Barriers			
	Lack of communication	Lack of leadership	Lack of relationships	Lack of resources
P01	N	Y	Y	Y
P02	Y	Y	Y	Y
P03	N	Y	Y	Y
P04	Y	Y	Y	N
P05	Y	Y	Y	Y
P06	Y	Y	N	Y
P07	N	N	Y	Y
P08	Y	N	Y	N
P09	Y	Y	Y	Y
P10	Y	Y	Y	N
P11	Y	Y	Y	N
P12	N	N	Y	Y
Total Sources	8	9	11	8

Barrier Themes and Subthemes

Table 3 features barrier themes and subthemes to building and maintaining the alcohol enforcement teams. The first column of Table 3 lists four barrier themes. Those

themes are lack of communication (identified by 8 out of 12 participants for 15 total references), lack of leadership (identified by 9 out of 12 participants for 24 total references), lack of relationships (identified by 11 out of 12 participants for 36 total references), and lack of resources (identified by 8 out of 12 participants for 18 total references). The second column of Table 3 lists 14 subthemes to the barriers. The subthemes identified by interview participants are little or no briefing of new AET personnel, no reporting of activity, one-way communication, lack of time, low commitment, other priorities, cultural differences, lack of understanding, not working with outsiders, personality differences, personnel changes, not collaborative, lack of overtime funds, and lack of personnel to work with AET. I explain barrier themes and subthemes as well as give examples from the participants' discussions in the next sections.

Table 3

Barrier Themes and Subthemes to Building and Maintaining AETs

Barrier Theme (parent nodes)	Subtheme (child nodes)	# of Participants	# of Participant References
Lack of communication	Little/no briefing of new AET member	4	5
	No Reporting of activity	4	4
	One-way communication	5	5
Lack of leadership	Lack of time	4	4
	Low commitment	2	3
	Other priorities	6	8
	Not collaborative	1	1
Lack of relationships	Cultural Differences	4	7
	Lack of understanding	9	14
	Not working with outsiders	1	2
	Personality differences	2	2
	Personnel changes	5	7
Lack of resources	Lack of overtime funds	2	2
	Lack of personnel to work with AET	6	9

Lack of communication. Eight (66.7%) out of 12 coordinators discussed lack of communication as a barrier to building and maintaining the alcohol enforcement teams. The participants maintained the concern of lack of communication manifested in three ways (subthemes). P01 complained about little or no briefing about the importance of the work to newly assigned AET personnel by their own agency members. P08 described the barrier by “You are coming in with a new person. Things can get lost in that transition or not passed along in that transition. So, some people do not have a clear understanding of what is going on.” P01 stated, “When you bring in new people having to train them up and get them to see the importance of keeping the operations going” is a barrier. The implication from certain coordinators was that it created challenges when new AET

members replaced former members on the team, yet the new members did not receive any information from former AET members or management within the partner enforcement agency.

At least one participant offered something that seemed to work to counter the barrier created by AET information that was not passed onto new AET members. P07 discussed rewriting the AET contract once it was determined lack of communication about AET created a challenge. P07 stated,

> In the contract, we made sure that it stated the AET officer had to have gone through an AET training in case the coordinator changed and the Chief or Sheriff just threw an officer out that had no clue what AET was or anything. This had become an issue so together we decided I was best if the officer that was assigned to help with AET; they have to go through the training in order to work the AET.

To the participant, this method seemed to counter the problem created when there was a personnel change occurred.

Another manner of lack of communication discussed in the interviews concerned not reporting operations to the coordinator of activity addressing underage drinking as required by the AET work arrangement. P09 found “that the agencies were doing the work, they don't mind doing the work, [and] it is just the reporting part, the paperwork. They don't want to do that at all, so keeping up with them that is a barrier.” P04 also had difficulties with no reporting of operations and added partners “are doing the checkpoints all the time but the lack of the communication or letting AET partner work with them and doing it together [is a challenge]. The partnership is not there, not really getting to the

bottom of it is a barrier." Similarly, P02 conveyed one agency in the AET said, "They were doing them [enforcement operations] but there was no record of it [the operations]". Non-reporting or late reporting of enforcement and education activity related to AET was an issue and a subtheme of lack of communication.

Five participants maintained that lack of communication was manifested in a third manner. Explaining one-way communication from the standpoint of the coordinator, P10 spoke about talking to AET partners and asking that they document regular calls that result in enforcement action concerning underage drinking. P10 stated, "We struggle with some agencies to keep the open line of communication and have them participate at some level." P05 summed up the issue from lack of communication and offered advice for analysis of any communication problem. P5 stated,

> One barrier is communication. We have learned that some people communicate more than others [do] or better than others. We figured out if something ever went wrong or if something ever was not done right that we could backtrack and we learned the issue was lack of communication or miscommunication. Either I expect something of another and I did not communicate it well or something was not communicated to someone and the individual read it wrong.

Consequently, a few participants confirmed there were issues of one-way communication, slowed two-way communication, or miscommunication when the coordinators attempted collaborative efforts. However, a few participants discovered methods to finding solutions to communication issues. At least to P05, the method to uncovering answers to communications challenges was analysis of the communication

itself. When P09 found that partner agency personnel were conducting operations but not filling out the paperwork, P09 actually participated in the operations with them and completed the paperwork for them. P07 claimed that assisting with paperwork helped ensure reporting was completed. The next section covers the barrier theme lack of leadership.

Lack of leadership. Nine (75%) out of 12 coordinators discussed lack of leadership as a barrier to building and maintaining the alcohol enforcement teams. The interview participants gave examples of lack of leadership within some partner agencies as exhibited in four ways (subthemes). One, agency management and AET officers allowed other priorities within the community. P10 identified lack of time (subtheme) devoted to AET challenged community efforts and "whether it is the chief who has not made it a priority for whatever reason, the contact person that is supposed to do the operations just has not taken the time to go do the operations." P09 added, "For whatever reason, they [agency management] are not interested in this thing [AET] or they are not really they cannot find the time or they do not have the resources to do that [AET]".

In addition, participants indicated low commitment (subtheme) toward AET goals and objectives occurred when new personnel from a partner agency joined AET. P10 stated,

> New people were brought on and we tried different things and numerous times tried to reestablish connection and get those folks to go back and do those operations but have just met opposition. They just have not taken the time to go do the operations.

To some coordinators, it did not seem that agency personnel, including possibly those at the top of the agency, were committed enough to AET goals and objectives to ensure continuous enforcement operations.

Six participants advised that low commitment to AET goals and lack of time to complete operations were attributed to agencies having other priorities (another subtheme). Six participants believed that numerous other priorities created a challenge to merging AET goals into everyday law enforcement work. PO1 indicated that it was an issue from the start. PO1 stated, “The other challenge I think I had in the beginning and a little along the way was that AET was kinda put on the back burner and it was not the focus”. Another participant, P04 maintained “law enforcement are very busy so far as getting some of their jobs done so AET is an addition to what their job is and we are in a sense trying to make it a part of their responsibility”. Part of the commitment challenge is the enforcement operations established a part of the daily responsibilities with some officers. P06 inserted that “AET is an extra duty added on.” P06 implied that if law enforcement considers AET an extra duty, they might not participate when traditional duties take precedence.

At times, interview participants pointed directly to agency leadership as absent from AET work. P03 indicated,

> Addressing underage drinking was not a strong part of that agency's mission in the community and so that put up a good bit of walls to have to work through which still here seven or eight years later, we still have not found an answer.

Although no one indicated that, there was a challenge within his or her own agency to have management onboard with the AET focus, when asked if it was important that the lead agency supported AET, PO9 stated, “Definitely. Definitely. Because sometimes with AET, it requires you to do things that a regular prevention specialist would not do and they [agency management] need to be open to that.” P03 indicated,

> To get the commission, the school district, and law enforcement at the table working together, you can make the quickest and biggest change. Those are your two key partners but if you can't get the three of you to sit down and work together and want to do things better, you are just spinning your wheels and not getting anywhere.

P03 meant that lack of leadership among key partners within a community creates barriers to effective AET operations. When I asked a probing question concerning how agency personnel dealt with potential partners, P03 answered that,

> I have always had a strong belief in that a staff member or coordinator is reflective of the management or leadership within their own organization. So a lot of times, how they deal with things and how they interact, whether it be with other collaborative things or with law enforcement, may be a direct reflection of how their leader or leadership or their management style is and what their approach in the community is.

These coordinators were indicating that some AET partners were not collaborative because their agency management did not embrace collaboration.

Lack of relationships. Eleven (91.7%) out of 12 coordinators discussed lack of

relationships as a barrier to building and maintaining the alcohol enforcement teams. Some participants believed they knew the reason for the lack of relationships while other participants did not mention the reason or reasons that relationships did not develop into partnerships or collaboration. I found six subthemes related to the barrier theme lack of relationships.

Some participants perceived the reasons for lack of relationships related to cultural differences between community organizations, lack of understanding about AET, organizations not working with outsiders, personality differences, and key personnel changes. P03 illuminated lack of community relationships as possibly due to no experience of collaboration, stating, “You have no community relationships or you have them but they are poor ones. You have poor community relationships. You don't have any type of traditions of working together, collaborating…. Certainly no working relationships with key partners.” PO1perceived “another barrier to me was that I come from a public health. Coming from a prevention standpoint, I wanted to do more awareness in the community about certain issues and certain things and the officers wanted to ticket.” Later, P01 added, “Basically I realized I needed to adapt to their culture. That is the type of force within law enforcement.” Therefore, organizational cultural differences between law enforcement, BHS agencies and other community partners (subtheme) created challenges toward developing adequate relationships or even relationships at all.

This said, P01 seemed to recognize that organizational cultural differences could possibly be overcome by P01 understanding the differences, accepting the differences,

and then finding a compromise between potential partners so a method by which a working relationship could develop. Specifically, P01 stated,

> I perceived things differently so I had to approach it where I was trying to tell them what to do. I was just trying to enhance what they were already trying to do but just adding from and putting a spin on it sort of speak. By me basically where I was not feeling like a threat to them or like I wasn't giving something to do, it made it easier for them to accept me and to collaborate and want to work with me.

Nine (75%) participants believed the lack of relationships were attributed to lack of understanding about AET efforts (subtheme). P08 stated, “Some people do not have a clear understanding of what is going on. Not a clear understanding of the program, what the program does, or how it can help the community. Things like that can definitely be a barrier.” Another participant, P09 indicated, “For most of the places, there are some people and agencies that do not want to do anything. It does not matter how many times you try to call them, make contact, or build a relationship with them.” P10 indicated lack of understanding about AET contributed to relationship issues by key people not understanding some enforcement operations meant to reduce alcohol access for underage individuals. P10 defined the key people as “their chief, judge, prosecutor, city attorney or whatever” and found that “they would not venture out and do those types of operations if they consider it to be some sort of entrapment.” P10 further added, “We try to clear up those issues and sit down with those key people to try to open up that operation for some folks but it just has not worked out.” Consequently, for a majority of the coordinators,

lack of understanding of AET efforts created challenges for working together on underage drinking issues.

One participant learned that some potential partners avoided work with what they considered outsiders (subtheme). P12 illuminated the challenge to building a partnership with that type of mentality by stating, “One barrier that I see and have seen over the last seven or eight years is that some agencies do not want to work with outsiders.” P12 added that the message was clear. Those individuals told P12 “I don’t need you in my county. I am doing fine. I don't want your trainings. I don't want any of this stuff.” P12 stated “So we tried very hard to go in all of the counties but some of the counties, they don’t have open arms.” When I probed further by asking why there was resistance, P12 answered, “I don't know. I really just know that whenever we see law enforcement officers, we tried to talk to them to see what's happening in their community. [The message from them is clear]. They will handle their own business.”

Another participant believed the challenge to building relationships resided in personality differences (subtheme). P09 maintained, “I think not all of them but some of them, there are just personality differences carried over from other work that we have done with them. Some are more helpful than others [are] and some are not helpful at all.”

Similarly, five participants stated key personnel changes (subtheme) challenge relationship building. As discussed earlier, sometimes those personnel changes are at the line level while other changes occur at the top executive level within the agencies. P01 specified,

> I had four or five sheriffs in the last eight years, which I think is great but still that was having to start building that relationship all over again and getting the collaboration going. I have a couple of chiefs that left the department and I had to build those relationships back over again.

P08 indicated, “The change in personnel creates a barrier or frequent change in individual relationships because you are working with someone, then the next minute that person is gone. You are coming in with a new person.” P10 added,

> One particular agency started out as a strong participate because they had one officer that was fully engaged and made it a priority to make sure those operations got done but then he moved onto another facet of law enforcement.

Another participant added to the experience that personnel changes affected continued relationships. P11 stated,

> I think a lot of it is again the turnover has been a barrier. If you don't have consistently the same folks that you are working with then you got to get to know them and they got to get to know you and establish that relationship.

The implication from five of the coordinators that addressed personnel changes was that continued change in partner officers made maintenance of relationships difficult.

Lack of resources. Eight (66.7%) out of 12 coordinators discussed lack of resources as a barrier to building and maintaining the alcohol enforcement teams. Lack of overtime funds (subtheme) and lack of personnel (subtheme) to work with AET efforts contributed to the overall lack of resources. When AET first started, the funds provided to AETs could be utilized to pay overtime directly to officers. A change in the funding

streams occurred later and those funds could no longer go to officers directly. The funds went to law enforcement agencies instead of officers. I knew this had created challenges for some coordinators so I asked a probing question about possible barriers concerning the change in funding with certain participants. P01 stated,

> This was a significant issue or barrier for me because my departments were used to me being able to provide equipment or extra overtime to pay those officers to be out and enforce those laws we needed enforced for underage drinking. Just me speaking personally, it is still difficult for me and I am still trying to this day to kinda get these officers to see that it would be great if you would keep doing what you do even though the money is not there.

Later in the interview, P01 added, “I think a lot of our barriers were because [some partners] were smaller departments. I mentioned earlier that a few of my departments are one-man departments. A couple of them [the agencies] are three or four men departments.” The implication from P01 was that smaller agencies did not have officers to conduct enforcement operations continuously without the funding. The funding paid the officers to work outside normal duty hours so their agencies would have coverage for calls to service.

P12 stated, “Some of the smaller agencies have told us they don't have the staff to help conduct the compliance checks and sometimes we cannot get the sheriff’s office to go with us because they are short staffed.” P05 indicated an issue with low numbers of law enforcement officers by stating, “Our counties that we cover have a lot of 1 to 3 men departments and so it is hard for them to basically to work together.” P06 stated, “The

main problem is that we have been having is just manpower. With certain agencies, they may not have manpower to go out and be as effective as they can be." Another participant, P07 indicated, "Due to the fact that the circuit counties are rural and most departments are shorthanded, therefore it is hard for them to go out to do the activities." P09 echoed the barrier of lack of resources by asserting,

> A lot of the smaller agencies just do not have the resources is what they tell me. They would love to participate but they do not have the manpower to do it at what we have asked them to do. This has been a barrier.

All of this said, some participants offered methods to augment personnel and equipment deficits. For example, P01 utilized other agencies to complete AET operations where there were personnel deficiencies. P01 stated,

> The good thing about that was it was because I had so many departments within the jurisdiction when one department may have not picked up and do anything at one point in time, I was able to pretty much able to get another department to come in and take up slack for the bigger departments that could not do their normal routine every month.

Other participants found personnel resources to conduct AET operations utilizing the same method as P01. For instance, P12 discussed utilizing SLED to complete compliance checks of retail alcohol outlets. P12 advised,

> [I]f we weren't able to get local law enforcement to help so we go out with SLED. Just let them know and give a customary call to them and tell them we will be in their town with SLED doing compliance checks. We tell local law enforcement

> that we understand you don't have enough staff to help us out but it is okay because we have SLED agents with us.

Likewise, P07 discussed conducting retail alcohol outlet compliance checks for partner agencies by utilizing one officer from the jurisdiction. P07 stated,

> I can notify the officers that I am coming into their city and do ten compliance checks and if he is on duty, he will be around. If I make a buy or whatever, all I have do is call and say that there was a purchase.

This section outlined the participant responses concerning barrier theme of lack of resources. According to the responses from the interview participants, the barrier theme of lack of resources created challenges to collaboration within the circuit. The main two ways this barrier theme was manifested was through two subthemes, namely, lack of overtime funds and lack of personnel to work with AET. This section also covered participant responses that provided methods to moderate lack of resource challenges.

Facilitator Theme and Subthemes

Similar to the discussion concerning barriers, Table 4 depicts facilitators of collaborative leadership in alcohol enforcement teams. As with Table 2, Table 4 designates interview participants as P01, P02, P03 and so forth until P12. Table 4 shows, which interview participants, identified facilitators to the teams. The letter Y designates that the participant identified facilitators and N indicates that the participant did not contribute in the subtheme. Table 4 reveals column headings that serve as facilitator themes identified as capacity building, champions, consistent processes, relationships, resources, and leadership factors. As indicated in the last row of Table 4, nine

participants (or sources) identified capacity building as a theme of facilitators, nine participants identified champions as a facilitator theme, 12 participants identified relationships as a facilitator theme, nine participants identified resources as a facilitator theme, and 12 participants identified leadership factors as a facilitator theme.

Table 4

Facilitators of Collaborative Leadership

Interviewee	Capacity Building	Champions	Relationships	Resources	Leadership Factors
P01	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
P02	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
P03	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
P04	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
P05	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
P06	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
P07	N	N	Y	Y	Y
P08	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
P09	N	N	Y	Y	Y
P10	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
P11	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
P12	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Total Sources	9	9	12	9	12

The participants described what I considered as subthemes. The subthemes are listed in the second column of Table 5. Those subthemes are AET training or information sharing, AET host agency support and community support for AET. Other subthemes were devoting resources, external support and assistance, communicative, community oriented, culturally competent, dependable, engaged, flexible, inclusive, innovative, self-effacement, stable, trusting, visible, building new partnerships, existing partnerships, coordinator assists, equipment, and funds for officer time. The last two columns in Table

5 list the number of participants contributing to the subthemes and the number of references (statements).

Table 5

Facilitator Themes and Subthemes of Building and Maintaining AETs

Facilitator Theme (parent nodes)	Subtheme (child nodes)	# of participants	# of participant references
Capacity building	AET training or Information Sharing	9	42
Champions	AET Host Agency Support	3	3
	Community Support for AET	7	19
	Devoting Resources	6	8
	External Support & Assistance	4	5
Relationships	Building New Partnerships	8	25
	Existing Partnerships	10	29
Resources	Coordinator Assists	4	6
	Equipment	5	8
	Funds for Officer Time	6	7
Leadership Factors	Communicative	12	45
	Community Oriented	7	10
	Culturally Competent	5	8
	Engaged	9	13
	Flexible	6	9
	Inclusive	1	1
	Innovative	5	9
	Self-effacement	1	2
	Stability	5	7
	Trustworthy	5	8
	Visible	2	2

Capacity building. Nine (75%) of 12 coordinators indicated capacity building was a facilitator of collaborative leadership within the alcohol enforcement team in their areas. The subtheme was AET training or information sharing. P01 described capacity building working to develop a shared mission among AET partners by stating, “I

basically wanted all of them to have a common goal to focus on underage drinking and youth access to alcohol." In other words, capacity building to the participant was about gaining a shared mission and developing AET skills (i.e. conducing enforcement operations, educating community members about underage drinking, etc.). P12 added that "learned together through training. Everybody went to a training." Other participants affirmed AET training or information sharing occurred at the same time with the team members. P08 indicated if a group of law enforcement of officers "needs to take a class, the class would be performed in their county so that the BHS agency will work together with us."

Some participants admitted that capacity building was not always quick. P01 added, "It took a lot of meetings. It took a lot of coordinating." Even with the work necessary to attain common purpose, P12 maintained, "They [AET partners] want training. They want to know." Later, P12 added, "What also made it effective is training…. If they don't how to do it, they will ask for it." Participants stated AET training and/or information sharing was critical to implementing and maintaining the teams. According to the participants, it was integral to building the capacity of the AET partners to conduct enforcement and education operations.

Some participants indicated capacity building commenced at the outset of team building. P10 stated, "It was just getting the agencies on board and having initial training." Although other coordinators indicated capacity building was a good first step, some made assumptions at the beginning about capacity. P05 stated, "We thought officers would know the laws but we were mistaken. We learned that it was a lack of

knowledge about the laws and so it was a training need." Training and information sharing was a continuous process. Later, P05 added, "most people do not know about the law changes. We literally went to the LEN meetings, department to department with pamphlets and books and those ticket book law advisories."

Champions. Nine (75%) of 12 coordinators indicated champions were facilitators of collaborative leadership within the alcohol enforcement team in their areas. The subthemes were AET host agency support, community support for AET, devoting resources, external support and assistance. The participants viewed champions as individuals or organizations that assisted in the building, maintaining, or extending the team. Some participants stated champions were sometimes internal and sometimes external to the lead agency or the team. Other interview participants maintained champions existed at the community, county, circuit, and even state level. Three participants also stated AET lead or host agency support (subtheme) was important to sustaining AET efforts. One interview participant, P02, discussed the fact the lead agency director utilized the relationship with law enforcement to revive team efforts when the efforts were challenged. While the relationship contributed to team revitalization, the agency director stepped up to work with key partners. P03 also discussed how the agency director championed efforts having the lead AET agency pay for special meetings with key partners "out of its own pocket, paid law enforcement meeting at a special location four or five times a year." Other organization personnel were advocates to increasing AET efforts. P04 stated, "Having an excellent prevention coordinator in both counties has been very beneficial." PO4 added that the prevention coordinators utilized existing

relationships with law enforcement agencies and encouraged AET efforts in their respective counties.

Seven participants indicated law enforcement agency and other community support for AET (subtheme) amplified group endeavors. P01 explained,

> Our numbers were alarming for underage drinking and so, it did not take long after the meetings with law enforcement officers there was a need in those particular counties. Once I presented that data and then met with these champions that felt the same way. I sold underage drinking enforcement to them this way.

P05 affirmed P01's contention by stating, "The law enforcement and judicial system as far as magistrates have been huge as far as spreading the word and being basically, our foot soldiers." P10 agreed with other participants and added,

> As far as the other side of the BHS folks, they have always stressed the importance of AET. The countywide coalitions in both counties support the enforcement. When the AET officers write a ticket to a lawyer, doctor's kid or someone that will raise a big stink about the ticket, it is great to have the coalitions support. The coalition members voice that the officers are doing an important job to save young people's lives. There have been a number of key participants, who have helped our circuit. These are the facilitators of effective AET partnerships.

One participant, P10 stated, "Definitely the sheriffs and chiefs in the two counties I am responsible for" when I asked about facilitators of effective teams. When asked

about facilitators of effective teams, P06 maintained effective teams depended on individual personnel inspired and dedicated to the AET team. P06 added,

> You have to have someone that takes interest in it to make sure it gets done and that it is not just a piece of paper to them. They understand the importance of it and keeping the alcohol out of the hands of youth. Of course, in law enforcement that is always important but as far as the AET part of it is, it is having those key personnel involved.

P02 also discussed the commitment from one particular individual that worked on the team. Overall, 58 percent of the participants agreed that building and maintaining underage drinking enforcement and education teams required champions or individuals who supported the AET concept.

Fifty percent of the interview participants identified that key partners devoted resources to AET endeavors (subtheme). P12 indicated the chiefs and sheriffs of the agencies represented devoted personnel to the AET operations. P01 stated, “Within some of those departments, the Sheriff or Chief may require them to do some things.” P03 believed priorities for devoting resources occurred in the past. P03 maintained,

> Certainly, those had been established in our County with our key law enforcement agencies and officers here. As I mentioned earlier about it being institutionalized, there are a number of folks working with us now on underage efforts and AET team efforts that started with us in 1991 and 1992.

Finally, 33 percent of participants cited external support and assistance (subtheme) as a facilitator. P02 maintained that support and assistance from other AET

Coordinators when P02 began duties as a coordinator. In addition, P02 stated, “The support from DAODAS [South Carolina Department of Alcohol and Other Drug Abuse Services] staff was huge.” P08 stated that BHS agency personnel in adjoining counties offered support and assistance in building and maintaining the circuit level team. Specifically, P08 indicated those adjoining county agency personnel worked with their local law enforcement to coordinate efforts.

Relationships. All 12 coordinators indicated existing or new relationships were facilitators of collaborative leadership within the alcohol enforcement team in their areas. The subthemes were building new relationships and maintaining existing relationships. Ten (83.3%) of 12 participants utilized existing relationships to begin or maintain the teams. P03 discussed existing relationships that extended over the last 2 decades. P03 stated, “[T]here are a number of folks working with us now on underage efforts and AET team efforts that started with us in 1991 and 1992.” Agreeing with P03, P11, P10 and P01 all indicated existing coalitions within their respective communities that accepted the AET concept and assisted in building the teams. Other participants such as P12, P02, and P09 communicated existing relationships with law enforcement agencies facilitated team building.

Aside from building on existing relationships, eight (66%) of the participants agreed that establishing new relationships (subtheme) was a facilitator to effective teams. P07 built new relationships after meeting a key partner in the circuit. P07 stated, “When I first started out, the best thing I can say that happened was meeting the Coordinator for the circuit LEN [Law Enforcement Network].” P02 also met with the Law Enforcement

Network team in the jurisdiction and began establishing a relationship with that group. P07 added subsequent relationships materialized because of common goals between AET and LEN. P09 agreed,

> The specific relationship building is probably the key as far as I am concerned. I am asking them to do something or asking what they needed for me and how I could help them. That is really the thing that I think as far as I am concerned was the key. It was the relationship building or attempting to build relationships with these different organizations and these different individuals.

P12 utilized meetings with existing law enforcement relationships to learn of other potential community partners and law enforcement agencies. P12 stated, "We talked about other colleges. We talked about community members that need to be at the table as well." P02 maintained, "We also developed relationships with SLED [State Law Enforcement Division] and other law enforcement partners. This lead to completely reinventing the youth volunteer roster." P04 stated it took time to build relationships in the circuit. P04 added,

> Working with SLED has been very rewarding. I was trained very well. I was told the ends, outs, and what was the safest. By assisting SLED, it made it a little easier with the departments whenever we did operations without SLED.

For participants, building new relationships where none or few existed was integral to building and maintaining the teams.

Resources. Nine (75%) of 12 coordinators indicated resources (theme) were facilitators of collaborative leadership within the alcohol enforcement team in their areas.

The subthemes were coordinator assists, equipment, and funds for officer time or equipment. Participants declared they assisted agencies with paperwork, operations, and filled in the gaps when the participants saw there was a need. P09 indicated, “I am asking them to do something or asking what they needed for me and how I could help them. That is really the thing that I think as far as I am concerned was the key.” P01 specified,

> I was a great resource for them as well because if it was something they needed or they weren't sure, they come to me and I was able to get an answer for them or do my own research to get them an answer or use my state department to get those questions answered. I was then able to give it back to them. They used me as a data source because they knew I collected and kept up with data.

P04, P09, and P07 told me that they assisted with operations. Sometimes they did this because of low personnel numbers and at other times, they went on the operations so they would have the paperwork to support the reporting aspect.

Six (50%) of the participants said the AET funding from DAODAS assisted with personnel (subtheme) and equipment (subtheme) costs. P03, P01, P08, P10, P11, and P12 all discussed the use of AET funding. P10 indicated, “We started off with a small stipend for each agency and we have cut that back each year but it is a one-time check to each agency at the beginning of the fiscal year.” P11 specified,

> I think it helped them to be interested when they realized whenever they reached certain milestones that there could be incentives for them be it a breathalyzer or something they could use to continue to enforce underage drinking or if we were able to help them with the incentive for the undercover informant.

P12 added, “We provided orange traffic cones to another college whenever it was homecoming time, they needed some orange cones to help direct traffic. So, whatever they needed we helped them that was our partnership with them.” As discussed earlier in this chapter, in some aspects AET funding became more restrictive as funding renewed in subsequent years. It is apparent from the interviews that some participants evolved the funding to their partner agencies as it changed to what they believed would address AET operations better in their communities.

Leadership Factors. The second research question in this study was based on the lived experiences of the coordinators who led the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams, what are the leadership factors that would increase the ability of the coordinators to establish collaborative relationships in the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams? When I conducted thematic analysis of the participant interviews, I found all 12 coordinators contributed various leadership factors that were facilitators of collaborative leadership within the alcohol enforcement team in their areas. The subthemes were communicative, community oriented, culturally competent, engaged, flexible, inclusive, innovative, self-effacement, stability, trustworthy, and visible.

All 12 of the participants indicated coordinators effective building and maintaining the teams should be communicative with AET partners (subtheme). Participants’ responses indicated that coordinators should utilize all forms of communication with team members (email, face-to-face meetings, phone, etc.). For some participants, patterning the message for the audience was considered important. Some participants believed that communicating the vision about AET often was crucial. As

such, they learned communicating the vision was continuous. P08 stated, “The key actions I would say were having open communication.” Later, P08 added, “Communication is important. I communicate with the other BHS staff in the county to let them know I am handling the AET stuff so I keep them in the rotation with everything.” P12, P08, P05, P04, and P01 utilized periodic face-to-face meetings to share information with partners. P01 explained,

> I wanted all of them to have a common goal to focus on underage drinking and youth access to alcohol. So, the challenges probably lasted a few months but eventually after getting all of the meetings set and getting everyone's buy-in to participate, I would say that I had pretty much 100 percent from every department within my jurisdiction.”

P04 discussed the value of communicating strategies in quarterly meetings that involved law enforcement and behavioral health services agencies in the circuit. P12 stated AET partners met monthly until operations because standardized, and then they shifted to quarterly meetings.

Some participants indicated that whether in face-to-face meetings or using other means to communicate with partners, sharing the vision of the AET efforts was important on many levels. P09’s vision for AET was,

> I gave them a big picture view of why it is important for them to get on board, some of that sometimes works, and sometimes it does not. I think that sharing with other agencies and other people that are participating and helping, why we

> are doing it and this is why it works best as a circuit or as a whole versus their agency by themselves.

The importance of using all forms of communication to relay was offered by P10. P10 believed encouraging partners to share the vision of AET kept them motivated and committed. P10 stated, “Overall the people that are on board are on board because they want to be there and I do not have to pump or prime them all the time. They are involved because they want to be involved.”

Seven (58.3%) of the participants relayed that being oriented toward the community was important to building and maintaining the team. P08 indicated that “being able to go out in that community and being visible person is important.” P08 later expressed, “I want to be involved. I want people to see me in the community. I want to actually go to the communities where I am working. Just seeing the people is definitely important.” The responses specified coordinators should be community oriented and visible not just in the community but with the team.

P05 maintained ownership to AET was related and was indicative of community-oriented behavior,

> Ownership is important because if I know something in my community and I am making a difference in my little town with a very small population, it is more of an impact. So, I believe having your face out there and having a department to buy into the overall goal, not just how many tickets can be written or look at this big party I busted. It is looking at it in a broader sense of saving 30 or 40 lives or I just got a drunk off the street, I had a bigger goal in mind.

Nine (75%) of the 12 participants indicated a coordinator needed to be engaged (subtheme) with the team and the process for team building and maintenance to be successful. P07 provided an example by stating,

> It is not only collaborating with only law enforcement but with the merchants and the behavioral health services, making sure that your community is educated about what the laws are and how to read a drivers' license. It is making sure they check the ID and even involving your media.

Six (50%) participants specified coordinators required flexibility (subtheme). P01 denoted, “It was the aspect where I was able to get pretty much any and everything that I needed to get accomplished because of that partnership and that relationship and flexibility they saw that I had.” Five (41.7%) participants identified stability (subtheme) was important for team maintenance. P05 provided an example by stating, “I believe it all goes back to ownership and consistency because as long as it is consistent, everybody knows what is expected of them.” Five (41.7%) participants indicated innovativeness (subtheme) was a required leadership factor. In a discussion about grant funding application requiring innovative strategies that was supported by the lead AET agency, P03 stated,

> You can make it look really good on paper to show that you have a really strong capacity, you are willing to do cutting edge, be proactive in your community, and be successful in those efforts and make you a much more attractive grant site than if you have not done these or having been doing these things.

Five (41.7%) participants indicated coordinators needed to exhibit cultural competency (subtheme). Participants maintained that understanding community members' culture is important is a given. To those participants, it is just as important to recognize differences in team members when various types of organizations represent the team. Some participants maintained that key partners in AET are law enforcement and behavioral health services agencies. P01 specified,

> Basically, I realized I needed to adapt to their culture. That is the type of force within law enforcement. Me coming in from the outside. I perceived things differently so I had to approach it where I was trying to tell them what to do.

In regards to understanding others from different organizational cultures, one participant seemed to deliver a good response. When asked if any life experiences prepared P09 for the coordinator role, P09 stated,

> I have other areas that I have work in whether it is training or the military or my business on the side; I deal with different people from different backgrounds. I think that helps out a lot when I am dealing with other people, if it is not personality differences but when I am dealing with other people of businesses or whatever, I think that helps out because I know where they are coming from too.

This seems to validate experience in other arenas than one's own work environment could assist in comprehension of those cultures.

Five (41.7%) participants declared trustworthiness was important in team maintenance. P01 told me in the interview that dependability and trustworthiness (subtheme) were important among AET partners. P01 discussed that AET partners

utilized P01 regularly as a data source in the circuit. P03 believed that the law enforcement partners could trust that P03 and the lead agency would continue to respect and appreciate the important part of law enforcement partners in AET. P07 talked about chiefs and sheriffs in the circuit could depend and trust that P07 would be at many of the operations. Some participants advocated that this was important to gaining acceptance and permission for the AET partners to conduct operations in their jurisdictions.

Finally, a small number of participants discussed leadership factors that seemed to me to bear mentioning. Two (16.7%) participants indicated visibility (subtheme) of the AET coordinator with AET was important. P01 stated “Really what I think has made it work well is the partnership and collaboration that I developed with the departments, mainly because I was so visible.” One (8.3%) participant declared self-effacement was important leadership factors. In regards to self-effacement, P03 stated,

> Another part of that relationship is any and every opportunity we get; we provide some type of media awareness or press release or recognition. We get their [law enforcement] pictures in the paper as much we can and we get their names in the paper as much we can.

One participant specified humility drove the coordinator and the lead agency to identify their law enforcement partners as the key instigators of community change. P03 added,

> We don't have to stand up and be at the front of the pack when something like is successful or something good happens, it is better that you stand in the back and put those folks up front and them get appreciated and noticed for making the changes in the community.

Summary

The first research question asked what factors emerged as barriers to or facilitators of collaborative leadership from the lived experiences of the coordinators who served in the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams. The second research question asked based on the lived experiences of the coordinators who led the South Carolina Alcohol Enforcement Teams, what are the leadership factors that would increase the ability of the coordinators to establish collaborative relationships. Data were collected from 12 AET coordinators that voluntarily agreed to participate in open-ended, semi-structured, one and one interviews. In our discussions prompted by the interview questions, the participants spoke candidly about their experiences building and maintaining alcohol enforcement teams in their judicial circuits in South Carolina. All interviews were recorded and transcribed. I then utilized NVivo 10 to explore the transcribed documents and conduct a thematic analysis of those documents.

I identified four barrier themes and five facilitator themes through careful analysis of the interview data in which all of the 12 participants contributed some responses. Participant responses contributed to the four barrier themes (Lack of communication, lack of leadership, lack of relationships, and lack of resources) and their responses contributed to five themes (capacity building, champions, leadership factors, relationships, and resources). From the participant responses, I gleaned multiple ideas concerning barriers and facilitator themes that affected or enhanced team building and maintenance coordination. Those ideas were reduced to 12 subthemes that related to the barrier themes and 21 subthemes that related to the facilitator themes. The barrier themes and facilitator

themes addressed first research question while the facilitator theme concerning leadership factors addressed second research question.

Chapter 5 will reiterate the purpose of this research study. I will discuss the results of the research in light of the theoretical framework of this study and the literature review from Chapter 2. Finally, recommendations for further research along with the influence of this study for positive social change will be depicted.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study was to describe and interpret the lived experiences of AET coordinators toward collaborative efforts in alcohol enforcement teams working in South Carolina. I interviewed twelve coordinators using ten open-ended questions that I based on my two research questions. The first research question asked what factors were barriers to, or facilitators of, collaborative leadership for coordinators in their work. The second question concerned leadership factors that would increase the ability of coordinators to establish collaborative relationships.

After conducting my interviews, I analyzed the interview documents for thematic categories. Four barrier themes and 14 subthemes that related to the first research question emerged from the thematic analysis of interview data. Also, five facilitator themes and 21 subthemes emerged from the thematic analysis. The participants' responses yielded references considered facilitator themes and subthemes to barrier themes and subthemes at over a 3-to-1 ratio. In regards to the second research question concerning leadership factors that could amplify the ability of coordinators to establish collaboration relationships, thematic analysis furnished 144 references to theme leadership factors.

The information discovered through my research involving collaborative leadership efforts affords an understanding of the aspects of collaboration within the context of alcohol enforcement teams in South Carolina, thereby increasing the chances that community partners with common goals will succeed. In this chapter, I discuss the

research results in light of the literature review and the theoretical framework of this study. Finally, I provide recommendations for further research and consider implications of my findings for positive social change. In the next section, I interpret and discuss my research findings in greater detail.

Interpretation of the Findings

In this section, I discuss the ways in which the findings conform to the literature review as described in Chapter 2. The results of the thematic analysis of the data collected from participant interviews comprised four barrier themes and five facilitator themes. Also, I identified leadership factors through the thematic analysis of the data identified that might assist future collaborative leadership efforts with the teams.

Barrier Themes

Four barrier themes emerged from the iterative data analysis. The findings from the participant responses in this study were similar to that of other researchers studying collaborative leadership (see Linden, 2010a; Linden, 2010b; Newton et al., 2007; Wilson, 2013). In research on collaborations, El Ansari and Phillips (2001) found that collaboration barriers and facilitators are complicatedly interwoven. Three of the four barrier themes which I identified were negatives of themes identified as facilitator themes in my research study. One facilitator theme that emerged from interview data was relationships, for example. Conversely, when discussing barriers to collaborative leadership, participants indicated the lack of relationships presented barriers. This issue raises the possibility that these barriers were the result of the ineffective management of Benet's polarities of democracy theory (2006, 2012, 2013).

Lack of communication. Participants stated that lack of communication became a barrier to building and maintaining their enforcement teams. Various participants in this study stated that lack of communication manifested in three ways; namely, little or no briefing about AET work to newly assigned AET personnel, nonreporting of AET activity, and one-way communication from the coordinator to AET partners. The participants' responses concerning communication issues being a barrier to collaboration conform to what I discussed in Chapter 2 concerning communication issues. For example, the 9-11 Commission acknowledged that communication challenges between organizations working before, during, and after terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, contributed to collaboration and coordination failures (National Commission on Terrorist Attacks, 2004). Conversely, successful collaborative endeavors depend on values of communication, trust, and sharing (Cameron, 2013; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006a). Therefore, it seems lack of communication would affect collaboration efforts negatively.

Foster-Fishman et al. (2001) identified open communications as a key aspect of collaborative capacity required for community coalition work. Also, Lapidus-Graham (2012) identified lack of communication as challenging team members from working without conflict. For Lapidus-Graham, negative issues with communication in collaborations created challenges to resolving any conflict that might occur between coalition partners. Moreover, Faerman et al. (2001) said that one purpose of a collaborative effort was to surpass conflict so stakeholders could work together on common problems. Accordingly, communication issues in attempted collaboration

endeavors create challenges in several aspects, but the results are usually collaboration failures or in the least, collaborative efforts that are slowed.

In my study, some participants discovered methods that seemed to improve communication, information sharing, and miscommunication in the AETs. For instance, newly appointed AET members not receiving information about AET efforts from outgoing members did not afford a smooth transition and created challenges to continued AET operations. One participant implemented a method to address new personnel not receiving training or briefing when there were changes in partner personnel on the teams. The participant changed the AET contract with partner agencies to include required AET training before a new member conducted enforcement operations with the team. Two other participants assisted with enforcement operations by completing required paperwork, so operation reporting occurred. Another participant offered advice about learning the root of miscommunication by analyzing the messages to determine where the communication went awry.

Implementing methods for reducing communication issues conformed to the literature review. For example, Sloper (2004) advocated that successful collaboration efforts require implementation of "good systems of communication and information sharing" (p. 578). Confirming some of my participants' responses, Boydell and Volpe (2004) stated that community coalitions increase communication integrity by the use of written contracts and memorandums of understanding. Equally important, Walker and Elberson (2005) advocated that advances in communication technology such as Internet discussion boards or video conferencing enhance collaborative efforts by offering

additional communication methods. Furthermore, Kaplan and Garrett (2005) suggested the use of logic models as a system of communication with collaboration partners. Finally, Dempsey and Forst (2012) pointed to the command and control organizational structure traditionally based in law enforcement agencies as inhibiting shared community work through lack of open communication, so implementing methods to increase communication within the teams seemed sensible. Regardless of methods used to decrease noncommunication or miscommunication opportunities as well as increase communication, participants believed collaboration efforts needed the implementation of the methods.

Lack of leadership. Participants claimed that lack of leadership became a barrier to building and maintaining the enforcement teams. The participants' responses about leadership issues being a barrier to collaboration conform to the literature review discussion. According to the participants, some partner agencies did not make AET activity a priority, such that other enforcement activities competed for law enforcement time. Similarly, some participants stated that when they attempted to merge AET duties into everyday activities and priorities, some partner agencies opposed the action by allowing competing priorities to take precedence. Those interview participants contended that AET became an extra duty for which it was assigned last priority and only completed when the officers finished all other duties. Another related subtheme to lack of leadership that emerged from the analysis was the little commitment from new personnel assigned to the AET team. The participant responses concerning leadership issues conformed to the literature.

Some participants asserted that it was a lack of leadership from the officers and agency management that did not acknowledge underage drinking as a community problem. It was such a problem that in some communities, very little or no AET activity existed from certain collaboration partners. As stated earlier, some interview participants pointed to the lack of executive or senior leadership, too. Also, one participant maintained that personnel were often reflective of the agency leadership. In other words, if an agency leader saw no need in collaborating with potential community partners, most likely the agency personnel would not consider collaboration a priority. In the literature, researchers discussed the lack of leadership from potential partners not seeming to comprehend a need to participate in the collaboration.

For instance, partners' commitment to collaboration goals was viewed as an essential leadership skill from all involved community associates (Getha-Taylor & Morse, 2013). In other words, lack of shared vision from potential partners shaped lower collaborative efforts. Likewise, Devos and Bouckenooghe (2009) maintained that the essential leadership skills required from agency leaders involved support and communication with subordinates. For instance, in an evaluation of collaboration barriers, Newton et al. (2007) maintained the lack of senior leadership on collaborative goals created a barrier to effective collaboration. Furthermore, Vangen and Huxham (2012) maintained leaders should work to find congruence between their own organizational goals and the goals of the collaboration. It follows that lack of commitment to community shared vision due to poor leadership from partners could create challenges to collaboration endeavors. My research participants' responses

conform to the findings of in the literature that agency leadership is crucial to influence subordinates toward positive collaborative endeavors.

Other participants indicated that lack of leadership between the main partners in a particular community created barriers to effective AET operations. Some participants believed potential AET partners were not collaborative because the leadership within their agency did not embrace collaboration. The literature provides possible explanations for non-collaboration from the law enforcement agencies. For instance, Nichols (1995) along with Perez and Barkhurst (2012) stated that some law enforcement agencies exhibit command and control management structures that discourage collaborative leadership; therefore, those members are not familiar with collaboration. Since the law enforcement agencies were the main partners in the AET effort, perhaps some agencies did not join with collaborative efforts because of unfamiliarity. Regardless of the reasons leadership among potential partners did not wish to participate in AET efforts, the result was the same. Those partners did not pursue underage drinking enforcement on any regular schedule.

Lack of relationships. A vast majority of participants indicated that lack of relationships challenged the building and maintenance of the alcohol enforcement teams. Analysis of participants' responses identified the reasons for a lack of relationships as related to deficiency of comprehension about AET work, organizational personnel not working with outsiders, and changes in key personnel within partner agencies. The participant responses conformed to the literature review.

For example, Ellis and Normore (2014) claimed lack of relational interaction creates challenges for building trust and strong relationships. Furthermore, lack of trust adds to problems to collaboration development (Argyris, 2010; Brewer, 2013; Vangen & Huxham, 2003), which advances the idea that lack of relationships between potential partners creates a barrier to collaboration. Although the participants in this study did not specifically mention the lack of trust as challenging their collaboration efforts, some participants maintained that trust was an important leadership factor within the teams. The participants' opinions are consistent with Feinberg et al. (2007) who posited a level of trust, collaboration, and social cohesion among coalition members possibly influences the way they handle challenges, and teams stay together through time. Consequently, it seems relationships, trust, and social cohesion could build to successful collaboration.

Some participants perceived the reasons for lack of relationships related to personality differences between potential partners. In the particular cases of the participants' responses, at least one participant thought the perceived personality conflict related to past work experiences. The same participant stated that the individual would not specify what the problem was, so the participant found it difficult to resolve the issue. Some participant responses concerning personality differences within the context of collaborative efforts conform to the literature.

For instance, K. Small and Taylor (2006) as well as Weinberg (2009) cited personality conflicts as creating challenges to building and maintaining collaboration endeavors. Furthermore, Joyal (2012) acknowledged the importance of positive personality characteristics within the collaborative effort based on her interviews with

law enforcement personnel in fusion centers that are meant to advance an interagency working environment. Likewise, Weinberg (2009) maintained personality conflicts could create challenges, however; he cautioned that some perceived personality conflicts relate more to collaboration processes such as communication problems. Regardless of the reason for the conflict, if it goes unresolved, the result can be problems for collaboration through relational challenges.

Interview participants stated that some partners had no collaboration experience, and they implied not having this experience seemed to challenge potential relationships. Similarly, in studies involving police officers and community policing, Puonti (2003) and Fielding (2005) both discovered that unfamiliarity with collaborative work environments antagonized collaboration launches. Likewise, Feinberg et al. (2007) found that prior collaboration experience and related skill-sets increased the quality of the collaborative processes. Of note, Feinberg, et al. determined a shared commitment to the collaborative process was highly important, and it could supersede any challenges that a lack of collaborative experience might create. Based on the literature and the results of this study, potential partners having collaboration experience seemed to enhance the efforts and partners' unfamiliarity with collaboration threatened the collaboration attempt.

Some participants perceived a reason for the lack of relationship building related to cultural differences within community organizations. As with the interview participants in this research study, Scheltinga et al. (2005) also reported difficulties collaborating with organizations having cultural differences. Regarding organizations working toward understanding diverse organizational cultures, Scheltinga, et al.

maintained offering opportunities for joint training could encourage cultural awareness and mutual respect. Some participants in the Scheltinga, et al. study also depended on joint training to affect relationship building. Likewise, Rai (2011) maintained that implementing collaborative leadership training required members to gain a comprehension of organizational and network culture. Consequently, the research findings in this study and the literature seem to confirm the importance of training to move beyond cultural differences.

During the interview discussions concerning the lack of relationships, a few participants offered methods to alleviate this barrier. Some participants in my research study believed that joint training started processes in which stakeholders began to understand other organizational cultures better, thereby enhancing collaboration ventures. One participant believed changes occurred when the participant understood and accepted organizational differences, then moved to find a compromise. According to that participant, it seemed the training opportunities offered relational opportunities to socialize with potential partners so that the new stakeholders had an occasion to become acquainted. According to some of the research participants, this process affected positive change in the relationship. The understanding, acceptance, and compromise on organizational culture differences between partner agencies seemed common sense to advance collaboration and conformed to the literature.

Similar to my research participants, Morse (2010) advocated that capacity building (training) can have "an important catalytic effect in collaborative processes" (p. 241). Similarly, Chenoweth and Clarke (2010) agreed that opportunities for social

interaction increased the trust that in turn built and strengthened relationships. Likewise, Strier (2014) advocated that joint training among partners offered many positive aspects including relationship building. Furthermore, Joyal (2012) maintained that building relationships required trust among potential partners. However, Joyal also pointed to social interaction with partners that provided opportunities to build trust, thereby increasing relationship prospects. Based on the literature and the results of my study, it seems training offered occasions to begin developing relationships needed to begin collaborations.

Lack of resources. In my research, participants discussed the lack of resources created barriers to building and maintaining the alcohol enforcement teams. According to the participants, the barrier of lack of resources manifested in two main ways; namely, lack of overtime funds for personnel and lack of personnel to participate in AET activities on a shared community schedule. The barrier that emerged from participant responses is consistent with the literature review.

For example, Wilson (2013) maintained that collaborative leadership can suffer multiple challenges, one of which can involve resources. Meek et al. (2007) maintained collaboration involved utilizing shared resources to find solutions to common problems. Likewise, Newton et al. (2007) determined a barrier to collaboration involved under-resourced efforts. Newton, et al. identified personnel, equipment, and facilities factors as crucial to advancing collaborative efforts.

Because AET funds were available for the teams to conduct enforcement operations, these shared resources were not always the issue according to participants.

Some participants discussed that many law enforcement agencies in their jurisdiction had a small number of officers and that lack of personnel was due to the number of officers available to participate in AET on a regular basis. Whether the lack of resources existed in overtime funding or agency personnel, participants' belief that this created barriers for collaboration conformed to previous research findings.

In their research, El Ansari and Phillips (2001) stated that sometimes collaboration barriers existed in personnel arenas. El Ansari and Phillips discovered the barrier created challenges to the collaboration because there were not enough people to cover activities. Similarly, Marek, Brock, and Savla (2015) discovered significant relationship between personnel-resources and activities conducted by coalitions. Consequently, awareness of this challenge to collaboration could create advantages to planning activities by considering personnel levels for those activities. In other words, when planning activities, it seems partners should be realistic considering staffing levels for those activities. Further, it seems that overly ambitious goals might create frustrations among team members and collaboration organizations, thereby reducing possibility for success of the collaboration.

Some participants discovered other partners were available to assist with enforcement operations when some partners were not able to fulfill the enforcement activities. For instance, several participants utilized SLED agents to conduct compliance checks when other partners could not fulfill the enforcement plan. Another participant joined in the operation and partnered with one officer from the jurisdiction when there

was an undercover purchase. In some cases, cooperation between the coordinators and specific partners extended the work of the collaboration.

Research described in the literature seems to explain team members assisting in concurrent jurisdictions. Goodman et al. (2001) stated team leaders can affect team actions by emphasizing team values, such as shared vision, job involvement, empowerment, and job satisfaction. Team value emphasis can increase group culture, thereby advancing coalition effectiveness. Leaders that are innovative in processes and activities enhance collaboration (Walker & Elberson, 2005). Consequently, collaboration leaders can affect efforts positively through action and word.

Facilitator Themes

In this next section, I discuss the facilitator themes identified in the thematic analysis of the interview data. Five facilitator themes emerged from the data analysis. The next five subsections cover those facilitator themes.

Capacity building. The participants' responses in this study seemed to confirm that training became a method for partners to develop the capacity to build a shared mission and AET skills to conduct enforcement operations. The AET training consisted of topics meant to increase knowledge about AET activities and skills required to address community underage drinking concerns. Participants stated that training encompassed the shared mission of the team focused on underage drinking and youth access to alcohol. Based on responses from participants, AET training and information sharing was essential to developing team capacity. Participants formed teams or collaborative capacity by building shared mission among AET partners. These responses conformed to

the literature.

Researchers discussed training about collaboration for all stakeholders to ensure the highest level of effectiveness and efficiency (Cropp, 2012; Giblin et al., 2013) and this capacity building was not always swift. Also, Wilson (2013) stated that the necessity for collaboration requires a clear, shared purpose, so potential stakeholders see reasons to work together. Without this shared purpose, the collaboration might not occur (Wilson, 2013). For those partners who utilize a cost-benefit approach to a decision to collaborate, Wilson further stated that the potential benefit must outweigh the potential cost of working with others.

According to the participants, training and information sharing was continuous. Also, some participants indicated AET training became a common thread for the team when the team trained together. Furthermore, participants stated that while capacity building for the team to do the job was not immediate, capacity building through AET training was necessary at the beginning to entice agencies to agree to join the AET effort. In my research study, participants trained potential members in underage drinking laws so the partner organizations would even understand why there was a need to enforce underage drinking laws. In some cases, participants learned not every team member had knowledge of underage drinking laws. These participant responses conformed to the literature reviewed.

For example, Morse and Stephens (2012) outlined a training regime that involved assessment, initiation, deliberation, and implementation of collaborative leadership governance. The purpose of the training described by Morse and Stephens was to

illuminate collaboration incentives and potential barriers, expectations of collaborative organizational structures, and other important collaboration aspects. Even though the instructors did not conduct AET training in the style outlined by Morse and Stephens, the AET training did offer team members insight into enforcement strategies meant to reduce underage drinking and shared purpose among partners working on the same cause.

Moreover, in research involving community coalitions, Feinberg et al. (2007) discovered active community coalitions devoted considerable training efforts to assist team members in an understanding of prevention strategies required to affect community change. Feinberg, et al. added that the training and information sharing contributed to the commitment to a shared mission. Foster-Fishman et al. (2001) emphasized the continuous building of member capacity, so collaborative efforts are affected positively. Based on research findings in this study and the literature, it appears building member capacity toward collaboration and necessary skills meant to affect community change are essential to successful endeavors.

Champions. In the AET research study I conducted, almost 60 percent of the participants agreed the building and maintenance of the teams required champions or individuals that supported the AET concept. The participants stated that champions were individuals committed to achieving the AET goals and objectives. Overall, champions were found in multiple locations throughout the state. Sometimes these individuals were internal to the team and in other cases, external to the team. A universal aspect of the participant discussion, whether the individual discussed was a team member (internal) or external to the team, the individual exhibited leadership qualities meant to influence

members of the team or community members to react positively toward achieving the AET mission.

Some participants stated principal AET partners devoted resources to AET endeavors. According to the participants, partner resources existed through the host agency support, community support, and actual resources in the form of personnel and equipment devoted to team efforts. The participants believed these partners to be champions for the team mission. Also, the participants stated that the champions were crucial and assisted in building and maintaining the team.

In some cases, the teams found external support and assistance from state agencies such as DAODAS and State Law Enforcement Division (SLED) in building and maintaining the teams. Other participants saw benefit in other BHS agency personnel such as the prevention coordinators and supervisors working through existing relationships with current law enforcement agencies and encouraging AET efforts in respective counties. In additional cases, participants stated the county sheriff or municipal police chief within law enforcement agencies became the champion for agency efforts in AET after gaining an understanding of the underage drinking problem level within the community. Several interview participants stated they used data presentations to illuminate a need for underage drinking enforcement operations within the communities to develop the shared purpose. After the presentations, certain law enforcement officers championed their agency becoming involved in the collaboration.

Some participants stated that AET lead or host agency support was significant to sustaining AET efforts. One participant maintained the lead agency director worked with

the community leadership to revive AET efforts when the efforts were challenged and threatened with failure. Another participant stated the lead agency director devoted funds out of the agency budget to convene a special law enforcement meeting four to five times a year, so as to show appreciation to partners for their efforts on the collaborative. The perception by the interview participants that champions offered much to the collaboration and therefore, champions were needed for effective collaboration conforms to prior research.

For instance, discovering "champions with credibility and influence" is key to collaboration (Linden, 2010a, p. 22). Champions provide external or internal support building the team is reinforced by prior research involving collaboration (Angles, 2007; Boon et al., 2013; Carson et al., 2007; Foster-Fishman et al., 2001). Likewise, and in confirmation of the participant responses in this research study, Marrone et al. (2007) highlighted a relationship between successful collaboration efforts and finding external support to the team that championed the work of the team. Linden (2010c) stated that developing a shared purpose among potential partners was an important part of the foundation of collaboration. In regards to public credit for a job well done, special recognition by team members was acknowledged as important to collaborative efforts in research conducted by Hoch et al. (2010). The participant responses conformed to the literature review and corroborated senior leadership within partner agencies was important to encouraging, building, and maintaining shared purpose among partners.

Relationships. All of the 12 participants indicated existing or new relationships enabled collaborative leadership within the team. Similarly, the participants provided

information that relational characteristics affected collaboration in a positive manner. In this study, some of the participants discussed existing relationships that extended back several years or more before statewide AET in 2007. These existing community relationships on underage drinking enforcement and education strategies assisted in the institutionalization of collaborative efforts at a local level. In other words, collaboration became a normal method of working through community problems because the teams were built on standing relationships.

Some participants in this study pointed to building trust, offering assistance, and making themselves available to partners as critical to developing relationships. In additional cases, members of existing coalitions assisted with the development of new relationships with other partners within the communities. Some participants maintained that building new relationships where none or few existed was integral to create and maintain the teams. The participants in this study agreed that it was important to pursue stakeholder relationships to improve collaboration, processes, and strategic planning. These research findings agreed with the literature review.

For example, Linden (2010a) contended that relationship development is one of six essential aspects of building collaboration. Moreover, Allen et al. (2008) discovered partners that cultivated existing and new relationships was significant to a high percentage of collaborations studied in their research. Expectedly, Allen et al. stated direct contact with team members and partners nurtured existing and new relationships alike. Social interaction accelerated agreement, trust, and camaraderie among stakeholders (Allen et al., 2008). Regardless of collaborative efforts depending on new or

existing relationships, Morse (2010) maintained that positive leadership qualities and boundary spanners required an "ability to cultivate trusting relationships" (p. 243). To the research participants in this study and previous research involving collaborative efforts, community relationships often facilitated collaboration.

Resources. A majority of the participants stated that resources were facilitators of building collaborative efforts within the teams. In some cases, participants pointed to the coordinator assisting partner agencies with paperwork, operations, and filling in when there was a need or gap. One participant claimed partners found the coordinator was a data source. Consequently, the participant believed this helped build relationships because the participant's input was valuable to the team.

Many of the participants stated they utilized the funds from DAODAS to pay a small stipend to each partner agency. The partner organizations then provided personnel for enforcement operations. Some AETs provided equipment, such as traffic cones and alcohol screening devices to the partner agencies, once the partners reached specified milestones in enforcement and education operations. Overall, AET coordinators found the availability of resources by partner agencies enhanced joint operations. The participants' discussion about this facilitator theme conformed to the literature review.

For example, Burns (1978) maintained that an advantage, and consequently a draw to collaboration, was the ability to share resources. Sharing resources are common in successful collaborations (Meek et al., 2007). Similarly, Wilson (2013) agreed maximization of available resources or personnel and funding affects collaborative leadership positively. Therefore, part of the work of the collaboration partners appears to

involve finding agreement on the resources that are available and finding a compromise on the utilization of those resources.

Leadership factors. Participants identified lack of leadership as being a barrier to building and maintaining collaboration. Participants in this study also identified specific individuals called “champions” as being important to influencing the AETs in a positive manner. In line with leadership influences in collaborative efforts included in the literature review, participants identified leadership factors that they believed enhanced opportunities for collaboration. Participants believed that coordinators should exhibit characteristics of being communicative, community-oriented, culturally competent, engaged, flexible, inclusive, innovative, self-effacement, stability, trustworthy, and visible. These factors or characteristics were classified as subthemes. There were similarities in the subthemes of leadership factors from the participant interviews and the CVF criteria identified by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983). Quinn and Rohrbaugh listed the criterion as cohesion, morale, human resource development, flexibility, readiness, growth, resource acquisition, external support, planning, goal setting, productivity, efficiency, information management, communication, stability, and control. A more in-depth discussion concerning the participant responses conforming to CVF is covered next in the theoretical framework section.

Many participants indicated a coordinator needed to engage the team and the process for team building and maintenance throughout the circuit. The suggestions that coordinators participate with the team conform to the literature. In this study, the participants stated that the coordinator should not only work with law enforcement and

prevention specialists but other potential external stakeholders such as alcohol retail outlets and the news media.

All participants agreed that all forms of communication should be utilized and work continuously to present open communication. The importance of communication in a collaborative environment was discussed earlier in this chapter. The communication forms were email, text messaging, and phone calls as well as one-on-one meetings and group meetings. Some participants suggested patterning the message for the audience was crucial. In other words, although the overall message was the same, the participant set messages to suit various community and organizational cultures. Some participants believed that communicating the message often about AET was important, too. Some participants stated that communicating strategies in quarterly meetings with law enforcement and BHS agencies was important to keep partners focused on, motivated to, and committed to the vision of AET. Some participants maintained that coordinators needed to be flexible, stable, and trustworthy to affect teambuilding better. The participant responses agreed with the literature review.

For example, McGuire (2006) maintained leadership is one of the keys to influencing the establishment of collaborations. Likewise, Zakocs and Edwards (2006) learned that the most important factor in collaboration building and maintenance is effectual leadership. Similarly, building leadership was a strong process for sustainable cross-sector collaborative efforts (Bryson, Crosby, & Stone, 2006). Leadership within collaborative efforts that emphasizes teamwork values increases opportunities for internal

as well as external collaboration (Goodman et al., 2001). Similarly, Zafft et al. (2009) advocated for collaboration leaders being internally and externally focused.

Conforming to the literature, a majority of the participants maintained coordinators should be community-oriented or externally focused to the team. Specifically, some participants stated that coordinators should be available in the communities they served. One participant explained that community oriented meant displaying ownership by affecting a positive difference to the community.

Perkins (2009) discovered engaged team leaders influenced positive collaborative efforts. Particular to the call for collaborative leadership within a law enforcement organization, Fleming and Hall (2008) emphasized that leadership involved in this type of environment requires engagement with both external and internal constituencies. Wise (2002) pointed out that collaborations require leadership structures that model openness and flexibility. Similarly, Greenleaf and Spears (2002) stated that formal structures ensured administrative order (stability) and sought balance to more open and flexible structural aspects of teams and organizations.

Some participants stated that coordinator innovativeness was an important leadership factor. Specifically, participants stated that coordinator leadership required discovery of innovative strategies and implementation of those strategies in the community. Some participants advised coordinators should involve all partners in strategic planning for the AET efforts, so opportunities exist to discover innovative ideas. The literature concerning collaboration leadership advocates from the point of innovation, vision, and imagination.

For example, Waugh and Streib (2006) maintained leaders involved in collaborative efforts must be open to innovation and imagination when pursuing shared goals. Additionally, Devos and Bouckenooghe (2009) discovered that leaders who view innovativeness as crucial to appropriate leader behavior, generally seem to encourage collaborative work environments.

According to the participants, cultural competency is also required. Participants maintained that cultural competency concerns an understanding of community members' culture is important was a given. To those participants, it is just as important to recognize differences in team members when various types of organizations represent the team. Some participants maintained that the principal partners in AET were law enforcement and behavioral health services agencies, so it is helpful that coordinators understand the organizational culture differences. These participant responses conformed to the literature review. For example, Brewer (2013) stated that diverse organizational cultures challenge collaborative efforts. To counter this issue, Scheltinga et al. (2005) recommended personnel engaging in collaborations involving diverse organizations participate in relational activities meant to increase understanding of cultural differences.

Competing Values Framework

In this study, I sought to understand participants' experiences coordinating AETs to identify barriers to and facilitators of establishing and maintaining those teams. The theoretical framework utilized for this study was the CVF, initially developed in the early 1980s (Cameron & Quinn, 2006) and based on four main models of organizational theories. One of the central ideas of CVF is that there is not a universal model of

organizational effectiveness (Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981). To Quinn and Rohrbaugh, organizational effectiveness depended on organizational culture characteristics sought and attained. In other words, organizational effectiveness should be based on multiple criteria based on organizational values.

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) distinguished three dimensions based on effectiveness criteria found in organizational theories; namely, organizational foci (internal/external), organizational structure (stability/flexibility), and means-ends continuum (process or outcome effectiveness). When the dimensions were placed on two axes, four quadrants emerged. The quadrants reflected the four organizational theories (models); namely, open-systems model (external focus/flexible structure), human relations model (internal focus/flexible structure), internal process model (internal focus/stable structure), and rational goal model (external focus/stable structure). Later, the labels for the quadrants were changed to Create, Collaborate, Control, and Compete, respectively. These labels more directly reflected the focus of the quadrants, permitting better ease of understanding of the quadrants.

Cameron (1986) and others (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Cooper & Quinn, 1993; Denison & Spreitzer, 1991) maintained that while one quadrant may dominate organizations, many organizations exhibit characteristics of two or more quadrants. The quadrants reflect organizational focus through leadership competencies deemed necessary for the quadrants. Quinn (1988) outlined the competencies in leadership roles. Quinn identified leadership roles in the Create quadrant as Innovator and Broker, in the

Collaborate quadrant as Facilitator and Mentor, in the Control quadrant as Monitor and Coordinator, and the Compete quadrant as Director and Producer.

As discussed in Chapter 2 of this dissertation, each quadrant encompasses value drivers, competencies, and characteristics and the CVF provides a framework for assessing leadership toward competing priorities, values, and preferences (Cameron et al., 2006). In regards to collaborative efforts, Škerlavaj et al. (2010) speculated that leadership roles within collaborative efforts existed predominately within the Collaborate and Create quadrants with some roles indicated in Control and Compete quadrants. When analyzing and comparing barrier themes and facilitator themes in my research to organizational indicators previously identified in the CVF literature, all twelve participants relied predominately on the roles and indicators in the Collaborate and Compete quadrants. According to the comparisons within the findings, participants relied to a degree on the roles in the Create and Control quadrants, too.

This research reveals differences from the speculation by Škerlavaj et al. (2010) about quadrant roles. In short, the research study findings from the AET participants did not exactly match the Škerlavaj et al. research results. While the research involving the AET coordinators conforms to Škerlavaj et al. in regards to the Collaborate quadrant, the predominance of the Compete quadrant does not conform. There seem to be difficulties presented by a lack of quantitative methods on which to measure the comparisons between the speculations of Škerlavaj et al. and the AET coordinator research. Further research involving CVF quadrants and level of quadrants existing in collaborative efforts is required. Specifically, Škerlavaj et al. pointed to research using exploratory and

longitudinal designs should be conducted to determine the level of quadrants influence, thereby affording a better understanding of this issue.

In line with utilization of CVF as a lens for collaboration is the idea that organizational leaders and stakeholders should make organizational decisions sometimes based on competing as well as paradoxical standards and values (Cameron, 1986). As such, opposing aspects of leadership roles should not necessarily be considered negative (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) because team leaders in the effort may contemplate opposing points when setting plans for direction.

Some interview participants indicated that a coordinator should be flexible, so AET partners situate their enforcement operation plans, yet set accountability reporting standards (stability), so those partners document AET operations promptly. Similarly, some interview participants discussed a need to standardize AET operation procedures (stability) for consistency, however, allow flexibility for AET partner scheduling. Because CVF research strongly supports decisions allowing competing and paradoxical values, leaders pursuing optimum organizational performance seek stability and flexibility at the same time (Trompenaars & Woolliams, 2003). Also, Arsenault and Faerman (2014) confirm the participants' belief that the multi-jurisdictional attempts required seemingly opposing quadrant indicators (i.e. used both stability and flexibility).

The participants in this study substantiated the importance of leadership within the community and the alcohol enforcement team. Based on the participant responses, it is apparent that collaborative attempts challenge leadership efforts because successful endeavors are complex, paradoxical, and in some occasions, require tremendous patience

to move forward. The paradox within organizational work establishes the leader requirement of behavioral complexity to guide the organization (Hooijberg & Petrock, 1993). Behavioral complexity is the ability of leaders to balance contrasting and paradoxical roles to address organizational effectiveness (Hart & Quinn, 1993). In this balance of competing values and paradoxes, organizations, interagency endeavors, and community coalitions thrive.

In this dissertation research, interview participants stated a lack of leadership among potential partner agencies challenged collaboration endeavors. The participants did not offer any possible reasons for potential partners not collaborating. The literature suggests reasons for a lack of collaboration, though. Explaining another paradox found within the collaboration, Connelly, et al. (2008) noted that collaboration is appealing to organizations because of the possible benefit, yet unappealing due to cost sometimes extracted due to strategic planning and additional time required to gain consensus for decisions among members' organizations involved in the collaboration.

Further, some potential partners do not visualize collaborative efforts are worth the cost (Bardach, 1998), so leadership activities must build toward assisting the visualization of collaboration benefits positively. Likewise, interview participants in this study found some potential partners readily accepted AET work after the participants (coordinators) made a case to the senior leadership within law enforcement agencies for AET involvement. Some participants in this research study maintained they met with potential partners and conducted presentations about the community need for AET efforts, thereby influencing additional partners to join the collaboration.

Limitations of the Study

A limitation of this study was that the findings resulted from the descriptions and interpretations of the lived experiences of the AET coordinators involved in the collaboration. As such the participant selection was purposive and involved a small number of participants; therefore, the research findings may not directly transfer to all collaborative efforts. Transferability within qualitative research means that readers should decide how well similar strategies will function in their settings (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). The interviews contained rich, full descriptions of the participants' lived experiences involved with collaborative leadership within the teams. The findings conform to the collaboration literature reviewed. This seems to increase the opportunity for practitioners and other researchers to find applicability to other collaborative efforts.

Another limitation of the study is that I was the sole researcher. I conducted one interview with each of the 12 participants and transcribed the recorded interviews. I countered this limitation by emailing each transcript to the respective interview participant. As described by Van Manen (2014), I asked the participant to validate his or her transcript as a true and correct transcript of our interview conversation. According to Van Manen, this process is called member-checking. All twelve participants reviewed their respective transcript, and only one asked me to make minor changes. The changes were not content related and associated to grammatical modifications. Although I offered a second interview opportunity to all participants, no participants believed a second interview was required. I did not believe a second interview was needed either. Because

the interview participants approved the transcripts, I am confident that the transcripts reflected the perceptions of their lived experiences in coordinating the teams.

Recommendations

The AETs could benefit by implementing leadership and collaboration training for coordinators and team members. Either through barrier or facilitator subthemes (lack of leadership or champions), all of the participants believed leadership was fundamental to successful partnerships. Most participants responded that training was crucial to collaboration. The participant responses indicated the training built capacity to conduct enforcement operations and offered opportunities for social relationship building, but they did not specifically address the need for collaborative leadership training. Slater (2005) stated that building collaborative capacity required adaptive leadership skills. Other researchers advocate for leadership skills aimed at increasing collaborative capacity (Boal, 2000; B. Crosby & Bryson, 2005; Kramer & Crespy, 2011). Kapucu and Demiroz (2013) advocated leadership development geared toward enhancing collaborative capacity.

The purpose of this research was to describe and interpret the lived experiences of the AET coordinators involved in collaboration leadership. The study did not attempt to evaluate the participant's (AET coordinator) leadership competencies. Since the research methodology focused on the participants' lived experiences involving collaborative experiences, unless the participant doubted his or her ability to provide leadership to the team and offered those discussion points, I would not learn that it was a challenge. Considering Simo and Bies (2007) stated that poor leadership was often to blame for

collaboration failures, research involving exploration of leadership competencies could add depth to understanding leadership challenges in collaborative efforts. Research involving a determination of leadership competencies could offer additional depth to understanding building and maintaining the AETs. I propose the use of the Management Skills Assessment Instrument (MSAI) used to determine and consequently develop leadership competencies. This instrument is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2 in the section discussing CVF.

Some participants stated that some potential AET partners shunned working together. One reason for a lack of collaborative spirit provided by some of the participants was that the potential partners were unfamiliar with collaboration. The literature discussed in Chapter 2 backed the study participants' contentions (Nichols, 1995; Perez & Barkhurst, 2012). Participants utilized AET training to provide opportunities to learn about shared work in underage drinking enforcement and education. Additional training should include training specifically designed for collaborative leadership (Foster-Fishman et al., 2001). AET coordinators, law enforcement partners, and other community members should collectively participate in the leadership training.

Other researchers advocated for this style of training. For example, in research involving police officers, Kingshott (2006) maintained that leadership training should occur at all levels of the team or organization so that all personnel would gain an understanding of leadership concepts and practices. Angles (2007), Boon et al. (2013), and Carson, et al. (2007) called for joint training within team environments. Assessing

the team pre-post training as well as at periodic intervals over time could offer data that offers a greater understanding of collaborative efforts.

The literature contained scant information concerning collaborative efforts and CVF quadrants. The interviews conducted with the coordinators in this study occurred at a single point in time. Also, I asked them to draw upon memory for their experiences. Because some individuals held the coordinator position since the beginning of the expansion of AET statewide almost a decade ago, remembrances for those individuals spanned several years. Marshall et al. (2003) conducted two-phased interviews over 18 months to investigate constancy of results over time. Conducting similar longitudinal studies might deepen the understanding of how teams possibly ebb and flow over time.

Additionally, data triangulation offers a method to confirm research findings (Marek et al., 2015); thereby offering validity to the research (Yin, 2009b). Besides the interviews, the participants could be asked to keep a daily reflective journal of their work with the teams. Team members could be interviewed, team documents analyzed, and observation of team activities conducted to gather data.

This study did not involve assessments of leadership capabilities of the members of the teams. Currie et al. (2011) strongly advocated for involving all team partners in the leadership structure of the team. Furthermore, Carte et al. (2006) determined self-managed teams allocated various leadership duties based on skill because no individual member could handle all team roles alone. Therefore, another recommendation is that a study of the teams that encompasses an assessment of shared leadership structures within the team. The research findings should deepen the understanding of AET collaborations.

The CVF clarifies leadership competencies required to maintain organizational or team equilibrium (Zafft et al., 2009). To aid further leadership capacity research, there are two CVF instruments, one to assess organizational focus (OCAI) and one to assess leadership (MSAI). Utilizing the instruments could assist researchers with an understanding of the team environment as it relates to leadership within the collaboration (Cameron, et al. 2006).

In this study, I did not look for or explore the possibility that the findings represented the ineffective management of the polarities of democracy as described by Benet (2006, 2012, 2013). However, I did find that three of the four barrier themes identified were negatives of themes identified as facilitator themes in this research study. Further research might explore the extent to which the barriers to collaboration that emerged in my study are consistent with the ineffective management of Benet's polarities of democracy theory.

Implications

Implications for Positive Social Change

This study has important implications for positive social change that should strengthen collaborative efforts in communities involved in underage drinking enforcement and education. Walden University (2015) defined positive social change "as a deliberate process of creating and applying ideas, strategies, and actions to promote the worth, dignity, and development of individuals, communities, cultures, and societies. Positive social change results in the improvement of human and social conditions." (para. 4). As such, positive change in South Carolina can occur through public policy actions of

the AET coordinators, AET partner organizations, BHS agencies, and DAODAS. Before this research study, there were no other studies focused on the collaborative leadership within underage drinking enforcement teams in South Carolina called AETs; therefore, this study contributes to the body of knowledge concerning the AETs in South Carolina. The research findings conform to what is known about collaboration consequently, the barriers and facilitators discovered through the participant interviews could inform future community collaborations in general and even possibly improve current collaborations involving partners committed to shared societal problems.

Policy makers and collaboration partners gaining a better comprehension of facilitators of and barriers to building and maintaining underage drinking enforcement teams is a key to amplifying prospects for successful collaborative efforts. This research can potentially inform the development and implementation of training and consultation aimed at supporting AET team building and community coalitions. Ultimately, this research could influence positive social change through changes in local public policy that leads to denying access to alcohol by individuals under 21 years old; thereby, reducing alcohol use by that group.

Implications for Practice

This research revealed implications for practice within AETs in South Carolina. It was apparent from the discussions with the participants that building and maintaining the alcohol teams was complex and required intense coordination as well as cooperation with community partners. Several participants believed that flexibility, as well as stability, were important leadership factors. Some leaders view flexibility and stability as

paradoxical and, therefore, opposing actions (Connelly et al., 2008). Therefore, at least, some of the complexity of AET coordination resided in the paradoxical nature of collaborative leadership. Consequently, one crucial decision by the BHS agencies hiring authorities seems to be in the selection of AET coordinators whenever there is a changeover in the position.

As a matter of public policy change, policy makers should consider selecting coordinators with diverse backgrounds and, at least, a demonstrated basic understanding of collaborative leadership. More than one participant confirmed that they believed their background assisted their understanding of the mission of the team and the collaborative effort required from that team. Additionally, participants discussed the role of training in building the team. Along those lines, policy makers should consider implementing collaborative leadership training for new coordinators so they will understand the coordinator role within a collaborative effort.

Furthermore, policy makers should consider requiring the team members receive this capacity building training. In some cases, research study participants discussed the teamwork was a culture shift within their respective communities. Therefore, understanding the required organizational culture of AETs is important to building and maintaining teams as well as working within the teams. Considering that potential community partners were drawn from multiple organizations, the training could include an understanding of the AET partners' organizational culture as well as their organizational culture to afford better cultural competency when working with AET partners.

The research participants discussed the crucial value of community relationships. Therefore, policy makers should consider requiring that AET coordinators strive to enhance both external (community-level) and internal (AET team) relationships, then utilize the relationships to further build community support for population-level change. Since relationships are built on familiarization (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Ospina & Foldy, 2010), the coordinators should consider supporting social relationship activities to increase trust among partners.

Based on the research findings in this study, policy makers should consider requiring coordinators to locate champions within the team and community to carry the message of the AET agenda. Ultimately, collaborations are about internal team leadership and external support (Marrone et al., 2007). The coordinators stated that champions were individuals who believed in the AET mission and seemed to have influence specifically within their employing organization or generally in the community. For example, some champions were identified as members of executive management within partner organizations. Consequently, the involvement of senior leadership from partner organizations was seen as important to building and maintaining the team. Additionally, some participants found champion support from certain team members, their agency management and supervisors, partner behavioral health service prevention personnel, and other members of the community. According to the participants, successful AET efforts required more than one champion drawn from multi-areas within the community and state.

Some participants advocated for presentations involving national, state, and local data about underage drinking issues within local communities. The presentations were conducted by AET coordinators and other team members on many community levels. Overall, there should be a weaving of the narrative with conceptual and factual perceptions about the AET efforts. Many participants advocated that teams should build on team successes within the presentations so current as well as historical data should be included in the presentations. The presentations could be shared with partners so they, in turn, can utilize the presentations to inform their constituency about AET efforts in the community.

In some South Carolina counties, the research participant claimed the AET message was patterned for the audience being addressed at that time. The explanation given for patterning was an emphasis on enforcement for law enforcement officers and the emphasis on public education about enforcement for substance abuse prevention specialists. In other words, the presentation made the AET effort relevant to particular groups. As with McCaffrey et al. (1995) and Tschirhart et al. (2005), some participants maintained that the presentations should emphasize the cost and benefit of collaboration. The presentations could include an emphasis on the possibility of shared resources with those community organizations which have missions that intersect with potential partner organizations.

Building the teams was about growing capacity to do the work and encouraging partners to work together. This involved training new law enforcement members about AET work so as to develop the skills necessary to enforce underage drinking laws. Also,

AET training was crucial in assistance to understand why underage drinking is a community problem, not just a law enforcement problem. As a matter of policy, policy makers should consider implementing continuous AET training, and basic training should be provided new members, so they gain the shared vision of the effort.

Conclusions

The overarching goal in conducting this study was to comprehend the factors that enhanced and challenged collaborative leadership from the perspective of the coordinators serving in AETs across South Carolina. A collaborative effort is a method by which community problems can be addressed collectively and cooperatively by stakeholders within the community. Although there are overwhelming reasons for organizations to work together on common problems that affect society, there are still challenges to collaborative efforts. Building a collaborative capacity requires difficult, complex work involving tremendous patience and includes leadership activities meant to move toward the collaborative effort. From the research findings based on participant interviews, I gathered that relationship building and developing trust go hand in hand toward fostering collaborative efforts.

There was speculation at the beginning of this research that positive leadership was needed for successful collaborative endeavors. This research reveals that leadership among all potential collaboration partners is crucial. While Vangen and Huxham (2012) maintained collaboration is laden with complications, Zakocs and Edwards (2006) determined the most important aspect affecting collaboration was leadership. Leadership is required to build relationships within the team and maintain trust among stakeholders.

As such, AET coordinators represent an important part of the leadership needed within a community to construct a successful AET effort.

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Appendix A: Letter of Research Cooperation

Michael D. George
Walden University PhD. Student
[redacted]

DATE

Dear Michael George,

Based on my review of your research proposal, I give permission for you to conduct the study entitled Leadership in Youth Alcohol Enforcement Teams within the Alcohol Enforcement Team (AET) __ Judicial Circuit. As part of this study, I authorize you to recruit our employee (AET Coordinator) for an interview. Individual Coordinators' participation will be voluntary and at their own discretion. We reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time if circumstances change.

I confirm that I am authorized to approve research in this setting and that this plan complies with the policies of my organization.

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be provided to anyone outside of the student's supervising faculty/staff without permission from the Walden University IRB.

Sincerely,

Director

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form

You are invited to take part in a research study of leadership and coordination within alcohol enforcement teams (AET). The researcher is inviting AET coordinators to participate in the study. This form is part of a process called "informed consent" to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by Michael D. George, a researcher who is a doctoral student at Walden University. You already know the researcher as the South Carolina State Alcohol Enforcement Team (AET) Liaison, but this study is separate from that role. As such, the researcher attests that the research project poises no conflict of interest to either role.

Background Information:
The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study is to describe and interpret the lived experiences of AET coordinators with alcohol enforcement teams working in South Carolina.

Procedures:
If you agree to voluntarily participate in this study, you will be asked to:

- Participant in an initial online and recorded, interactive conversation with the researcher about your experience coordinating your local AET. It is estimated that the initial online interview will take approximately 45 to 60 minutes of your time.
- Once a transcript of the conversation is written, you will be asked to verify that the written transcript correctly reflects the conversation and your experience. This step will require about 10 to 15 minutes of your time.
- There is a possibility a short follow-up conversation will be needed to clarify information from the first conversation. This second conversation will be set after the written transcript of the initial conversation is reviewed by you. This will take about 30 to 45 minutes of your time.

The research will provide a glimpse into coordination of an AET. Some of the sample questions are:

- Tell me about your experiences coordinating AET.
- How was your experience different from your expectation?
- What were the key actions and activities (i.e. training, formal policy, and/or standard operating procedures, etc.) required to implement partnership with other AET members?

Voluntary Nature of the Study:
This study is voluntary. Everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you choose to be in the study. No one at the South Carolina Department of Alcohol and Other Drug Abuse Services (DAODAS) or state AET will treat you differently if you

decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind later. You may stop at any time.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:
Being in this type of research study is based on collecting information from participants through interviews. There are no risks anticipated to your physical or psychological well-being associated with this study, therefore, participating in this study would not pose risk to your safety or wellbeing. The purpose of this phenomenological qualitative study is to describe and interpret the lived experiences of AET coordinators toward collaborative efforts in alcohol enforcement teams working in South Carolina. As a coordinator, your experiences are valuable to gaining an understanding of establishing and/or maintaining the local alcohol enforcement team. In turn, this understanding might assist in future alcohol team implementations or possibly inform collaborative efforts in general.

Payment: No compensation will be offered for participating in this study.

Privacy: Any information you provide will be kept confidential. The researcher will not use your personal information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in the study reports. Data will be kept secure by storing the electronic files on an external laptop hard drive in a locked drawer at the researcher's home in Chapin, South Carolina. The external drive will not be connected to the internet and it will be password protected with only the researcher knowing the password. Data will be kept for a period of 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions: You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via email at [redacted] or by phone at [redacted]. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is [redacted]. Walden University's approval number for this study is **01-29-15-0042326** and it expires on **January 28, 2016.**

Please print or save this consent form for your records.
Statement of Consent: I have read the above information and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. By replying to the email that delivered this consent form, "I consent", I understand that I am agreeing to the terms described above. Conversely, if you do not wish to participate for any reason, please reply to the email that delivered this consent form with "I do not wish to participate". Certainly, if you wish to discuss this research before making a decision, please feel free to either email me or contact me at the phone listed