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Servant Leadership Dimensions of Bahamian Hotel Industry Front-Line Workers

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This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

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has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
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Walden University
2017

Abstract

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MBA, Walden University, 2009

BS, Florida State University, 1986

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

The tourism industry dominates the Bahamian national economy. While seaport visitor arrivals continue to rise, stopover visitor arrivals continue to decline due to a recurring theme of negative front-line hotel staff attitudes. Eliminating negative staff attitudes toward stopover visitors is important for hoteliers, the government, and all stakeholders of the Bahamian tourism industry. Guided by servant leadership theory, the purpose of this research was to investigate the servant leadership dimensions that motivate Bahamian front-line hotel workers. This quantitative cross-sectional study involved the use of the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS) developed by Dierendonck and Nuijten. There were 8 specific servant leadership dimensions measured against 7 sociodemographic attributes to answer 2 research questions (RQ). A random sample of 646 front-line hotel workers participated in the study. For RQ1, independent t-tests and one-way analysis of variance produced significant results for the union, region, and department demographic groups. For RQ2, k-means cluster analysis generated a 2-cluster model with significant F-statistic value contributions across all 8 composite variables. Based on the final cluster centers, the 8 SLS composite variable average mean results equate to cautious support for the acceptance and application of servant leadership. The research findings may lead to positive social change by supporting the creation of a new leadership model in the Bahamian tourism industry that enables hoteliers to increase Bahamian front-line hotel workers' motivation and thereby decrease negative staff attitudes manifested in the workplace.

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Dedication

For my family, I thank you for your patience, encouragement, and inspiration, which have helped me to complete this major achievement. To my mother Norma Bowe (deceased), I miss you especially your humor; prayers; and listening to the music of Earth, Wind, & Fire; Tony Bennett; and Blood, Sweat, & Tears. To my wife, Vandorene; children, Stuart Jr. and Shankira; L. M. Bowe (father); Angie and Camille (sisters), Ricardo (brother); extended family (especially my Grandmother "Gwenny", Aunt Pat Bethell, Aunt Sonia Dames, and Uncle Leroy "Tinkle" Hanna, Tyrone "Dr. Off" Fitzgerald (deceased), Gowan Bowe); Grammy Bowe (deceased); Uncle KB; best friend, Ken Kerr; the crew (Tony Ferguson, Eric Carey, Larry Glinton, Dewey Taylor, Rudolph Smith, Osmond Richardson, and Brad Outten); The Atlantis family; and Pastor Timothy Stuart—may you see this work as proof that you can achieve anything, at any time, by staying focused, striving for excellence, never giving up, and believing in God. All of you provided a solid foundation in my life built on unconditional love, uncompromised faith, family, and a few friends. Thus, I dedicate this work to you.

Acknowledgments

This study reflects much of my knowledge of leadership and the changes observed over the past 30 years of my hospitality career. My mentors have influenced my knowledge of leadership and ultimately influenced this dissertation. I respectfully rely on a leadership foundation built by past hoteliers and hope this work adequately reflects their contributions to my education. My mentors have included J. B. Farrington, Ernie Cambridge, George Myers, Vincent Vanderpool-Wallace, Uncle Georgie Bethell, Robert Sands, Rodney Williams (McDonalds), Ellsworth Hanna (27th company—Boys Brigade-Annex Baptist Church), Basil Dean (deceased), Karen Carey, Winston "Gus" Cooper (Valley Boys—deceased), Grandfathers L. "Pemmy" Hanna and Leonard "Bow-tie" Bowe (both deceased), Amadeo Zarzosa, Serge Zaalof, Alan Leibman, Howard Karawan, George Markantonis, and Paul O' Neil.

I thank my PhD committee; Dr. Robert Levasseur (chairman), Dr. Thomas Spencer, and Dr. Janice Spangenburg, who guided me through this journey. Dr. Levasseur provided wise counsel and consistent motivation throughout the journey. Dr. Spencer challenged and supported me to produce the highest quality of research. I thank Dr. Christos Makrigeorgis, who provided initial guidance and later transitioned to a new role within Walden University.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Tourism is the number one industry across The Bahamas island chain. The tourism industry contributes more than 50% to the GDP of the island nation and employs more than half of the country's workforce (Makhlouf, 2012; Sullivan-Sealey & Cushion, 2009). The Bahamas Ministry of Tourism Research and Statistics (BMOTRS, 2012a) divides the Bahamian tourism industry primarily into cruise arrivals (71%) and stopover visitors (29%). *Stopover arrivals* include hotel visitors who stay in the Bahamas more than 24 hours, in contrast to *cruise visitor arrivals*, who stay for less than 24 hours. Stopover visitors generate revenue expenditure of $192.34 per person per day, which is 2.7 times greater than that for cruise visitors ($70.34), based on data from BMOTRS (2013b) and as calculated in Table 8 of this dissertation. More importantly, stopover revenue expenditure is declining in comparison with cruise arrivals.

Visitor exit surveys from 2007-2012 indicated negative staff attitudes among the top five reasons why stopover vacationers would not recommend or return to the Bahamas (BMOTRS, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2011). In general, Bahamian hoteliers remain challenged to motivate industry workers and address the ongoing staff attitude issue toward stopover tourists.

The far-reaching ramifications of tourism revenues to the overall Bahamian economy motivated me to investigate the applicability of servant leadership as a complementary management style to the autocratic and transactional styles practiced today in the tourism industry. Assessing front-line hotel workers' familiarity with servant

leadership and willingness to adopt servant leadership dimensions drives the degree and applicability of the concept as an alternate leadership style.

In the upcoming sections, I address the background, problem statement, purpose, nature, research questions and hypotheses, theoretical foundation, definitions, assumptions, scope and delimitations, limitations, and significance of the study.

Background of the Study

In this research, servant leadership is addressed as a complementary management approach to assist hoteliers in improving Bahamian front-line hotel worker motivation. A *front-line hotel worker* is an employee who interacts with guests in person or over the telephone in the course of daily hotel operations (Karatepe & Kilic, 2009, p. 977). Previous empirical studies have reported a direct correlation between servant leadership principles and improved employee work performance (Gardner & Reece, 2012; Tebeian, 2012). Currently, autocratic and transactional leadership are the predominant management styles practiced by Bahamian hoteliers. The autocratic and transactional leadership styles have been developed over time based on traditional hierarchal structures and have been influenced by company policies, government, tourism boards, and union contractual agreements. Hotel front-line worker motivation is worthy of research due to the high reliance on tourism by the Bahamian economy, and the effect that each employee's service attitude has on visitors' decisions to return (Karagiannis, Katsivela, Madjd-Sadjadi, & Stewart, 2012; Sullivan-Sealey & Cushion, 2009). Therefore, as new generations of Bahamians enter the tourism workforce, a review of alternative leadership

styles is necessary to improve and sustain employee motivation, and by extension the industry.

The Bahamian hotel industry is diverse in geography (in that The Bahamas is an archipelago) and types of tourist vacationers. There are three regions: (a) Nassau/Paradise Island, (b) Grand Bahama, and (c) the Out Islands. Nassau/Paradise Island represents 60.3% of total guest rooms in the sector, Grand Bahama represents 12.2%, and the Out Islands (17 isle destinations) represent 27.5 % (BMOTRS, 2013c). Further, there are different categories of Bahamian tourism that make up the sector. These categories include (a) hotel stopovers, (b) cruise ships, (c) marinas, and (d) vacation homes (Sullivan-Sealey & Cushion, 2009, p. 376). The primary classifications of tourists who visit the Bahamas are hotel stopovers (73.4% of the total stopover category) and cruise visitors (71% of all arrivals to the Bahamas; see Table 7). This study focused on hotel stopovers only. Based on its geographical location and variety of hotel accommodations, the Bahamas maintains its attractiveness as a tourist destination for international stopover travelers.

Bahamian tourists come from various parts of the world for a variety of psychological reasons. The four international stopover visitor classifications are (a) United States (78.6%), (b) Canada (9.2%), (c) Europe (5.8%), and (d) other (6.3%; BMOTRS, 2013d). The average length of stay (nightly) by a rea is as follows: United States, 6.3; Canada, 7.9; Europe, 9.8; and other, 7.9 (BMOTRS, 2013e). Sixty-five percent of all vacationers to the Bahamasbook online and visit the Bahamas for three

primary reasons: (a) sun, sand, and sea (82.3%); (b) relaxation (72.4%); and (c) shopping (34.8; BMOTRS, 2011). In other words, international hotel stopovers visit the Bahamas for multiple reasons and stay for different periods.

Bahamian hotels offer varied guest room products and operate in various ways based on the size of the hotel. The Bahamian hotel industry has 14,693 rooms in small and large hotels spread across the island chain (BMOTRS, 2013c). A *small hotel* has fewer than 100 rooms, and a *large hotel* has more than 100 rooms (BMOTRS, 2012b). The five hotel classifications are (a) budget, (b) economy, (c) moderate, (d) deluxe, and (e) luxury (BMOTRS, 2012b), with employees classified as either union or nonunion workers. Typical guest contact departments include front office, food and beverage, casino (in large hotels only), recreation, housekeeping, and security. Depending on the size and classification of the hotel (small or large), operational departments may provide services for up to 24 hours a day, using managers and workers from varied sociodemographic backgrounds.

With this context, Bahamian hoteliers, investors, and the government can benefit from investigating and implementing a new servant leadership model based on the changing daily expectations of global tourists and worker motivation. Ipas (2012) reported that raising employee performance for hoteliers is a challenge when leading staff in low-paying jobs (Tsai, Cheng, & Chang, 2010) that require long hours and spontaneous solutions to guest concerns. In a profit-driven business, improving employee motivation is an ongoing test for hotel leaders (p. 295). However, servant leadership is

becoming more successful in profit-driven business environments, causing leaders to consider the involvement of workers in the decision-making process, which can impact levels of worker motivation. Jones (2012, p. 27) reported successful applications of servant leadership by highlighting the employee-inclusive strategies of senior leadership teams at Starbucks, Southwest Airlines, and TD Industries—leaders in their respective for-profit industries. In a servant leadership example, FBI servant leaders created a work culture based on trust and empowerment that generated improved work commitment based on leadership modeling and dedication to servant leadership principles (Gardner & Reece, 2012). In conclusion, servant leadership empowered work environments can be successful in nonprofit organizations (e.g., churches, police departments, associations) and for-profit organizations, demonstrating the adaptability and flexibility of the concept to influence workers' motivation in varying domains.

The notion of applying servant leadership in the Bahamian hotel industry is interesting for a number of reasons. First, implementing servant leadership dimensions in the Bahamian hotel industry could lead to improved guest service index ratings, which affect annual management bonuses. Second, by studying servant leadership as an alternate leadership style, it is possible to address a gap in leadership knowledge in order to help hoteliers reduce negative attitudes among front-line staff. Third, and most importantly, resolving the problem of negative staff attitudes by forging a new leader-follower model is critical to future tourism success in the Bahamas. In conclusion, the overarching benefits of exploring the servant leadership dimensions and by extension the

concept as an alternate leadership model impacts all tourism stakeholders including hotels, the government, marketers, and allied businesses.

Problem Statement

According to the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism, stopover tourists generate 2.7 times more revenues than cruise visitors (BMOTRS, 2013b). The general problem is that stopover arrivals declined from 31.7% to 22.5% of total arrivals over the period 2004-2013, while cruise arrivals increased from 68.3% to 77.5% (BMOTRS, 2013m). Stopover exit surveys identify negative staff attitudes as a top reason that vacationers would not return (BMOTRS, 2009, 2011). Declining stopover visitor arrivals and worker motivation relate to the prevalent authoritative and transactional leadership styles practiced in Bahamian hotels. Researchers have shown that the servant leadership style motivates workers to display positive customer service attitudes (Jones, 2012; Kwak & Kim, 2015). The specific problem is the need to assess the viability of servant leadership with Bahamian front-line hotel workers in order to fill a leadership knowledge gap. The research methodology included administering a servant leadership survey and then conducting dimension analysis using various statistical techniques.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this comparative quantitative cross-sectional survey study was to investigate the strength of eight key servant leadership dimensions as viewed by Bahamian front-line hotel workers toward their management and current work environment. Administering the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS) designed by

Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) facilitated the study's purpose. The SLS has 30

questions that correspond to eight servant leadership dimensions (independent variables).

The eight SLS dimensions, which characterize servant leadership, are empowerment,

standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, humility, and

stewardship.

Seven specific demographics (dependent variables) defined the Bahamian hotel

front-line worker population: gender, union versus nonunion, generations, department,

region, tenure, and education. Based on the number of groups in each dependent variable,

t tests and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) inferential statistics generated the data

to analyze the hypotheses. For cluster analysis, there are no independent or dependent

variables; therefore, the measure used is the dependent variable that clusters the specific

dimensions. Providing Bahamian hoteliers with the servant leadership dimensions and

cluster analysis group data could lead to positive social change based on the

implementation or acceptance of the concept in the workplace, and by extension reduce

the negative staff attitude problem toward stopover visitors.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In this research, the 30-item SLS survey (eight dimensions) was administered to N

$= 1,165$ Bahamian front-line hotel workers to assess their affinity toward servant

leadership. Seven characteristics defined the survey participants. Participants' affinity

toward servant leadership was determined by summing specific survey questions

corresponding to each servant leadership dimension. There were two research questions

(RQ) in this study:

> RQ1: Are there significant differences in the sampled population in the eight
> servant leadership dimensions across the seven demographic
> characteristics?

The answers to RQ1 required the application of various statistical hypotheses and

tests depending on whether the means comparison was across two (i.e., t test) or more

than two demographic levels (i.e., one-way ANOVA). For example, gender has two

group levels (male and female), and region has three group levels (Nassau/Paradise

Island/Grand Bahama/Out Islands). The processed survey data also included eight

construct score averages (the average scores of the eight SLS dimensions) and seven

demographic characteristics. Of these seven demographic characteristics, two involved

groups with two levels (t test application); for one-way ANOVA, there were three groups

involving three levels, one group involving four levels, and one group involving five

levels. Therefore, there were a total of 56 (8 dimensions x 7 demographics) t test

hypotheses and one-way ANOVA hypotheses generated separately and easily within

SPSS. Given the large number of such H_0s, I only state a single one-way ANOVA null

and alternative hypothesis example:

> H_o1: mu1_Emp_Region = mu2_Emp_Region = mu3_Emp_Region: There is no
> significant mean difference in the average empowerment dimension
> composite measure based on the region of front-line hotel workers.

H$_a$1: mu1_Emp_Region = mu2_Emp_Region = mu3_Emp_Region: There is a

significant mean difference in the average empowerment dimension

composite measure based on the region of front-line hotel workers.

RQ2: Can the sampled population be grouped into a minimum number of

heterogeneous groups that characterizes each group by a homogeneous

group of cohorts regarding their affinity score for servant leadership?

Unlike RQ1, RQ2 required the use of cluster analysis, which is not an inferential

technique. Thus, no inferential H0s were formally specified. Instead, as Afifi, May, and

Clark (2012) explained, cluster analysis uses working hypotheses versus inferential

hypothesis testing and significance level observation. An appropriate working H$_O$ can be

stated as follows:

H$_O$: $k = k^*$ clusters adequately groups the observations.

There are two heuristic approaches to determining the fitness of a cluster solution

and thus the best solution corresponding to k^* clusters. One approach is to solve the

clustering problem with k clusters and decide on the best solution. If k does not render a

good solution, then attempt $k +1$ until there is an acceptable solution and k^*. Another

approach for identifying k^* is to perform a k-means analysis for $k = 2$, then 3, and so on,

and in each run compute the corresponding within-group sum of squares statistic. Plotting

the k on the z-axis and within-group sum of squares on the y-axis allows one to form a

scree plot and establish the ideal numbers of clusters (k^*). In this study, a scree plot

generates the corresponding *k**. Chapter 3 contains the detailed metrics used to execute both approaches.

Theoretical Foundation

Servant leadership theory guided this study's framework. Greenleaf (1977), who established servant leadership theory in the 1970s, contended that leaders should seek to be servants first to their followers and pursue company and personal goals secondarily in their organizational and community relationships. Influenced by Hesse's "Journey to the East," Greenleaf highlighted the character Leo, who demonstrated how a great leader could rise from servant to servant leader. Greenleaf (1977) wrote, "The servant leader is a servant first as Leo was portrayed. It begins with a natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead" (p. 13). The notion fundamental to this research is that servant leaders are selfless and use persuasion rather than power to create an employee culture that is inclusive and encourages two-way communication, thus motivating community members to greater levels of engagement and creativity. Applying servant leadership theory can lead to improved worker motivation in varying sociodemographic settings that require empowerment and positive employee workplace change.

In more recent studies, servant leadership applications resulted in improved organizations, leader-follower relationships, and overall society (C. Chen, Chen, & Li, 2013; Donghong, Haiyan, & Song, 2012; Jaramillo, Bande, & Varela, 2015; Jones, 2012). Vinod and Sudhakar (2011) reviewed the visionary role of servant leadership,

including Christian principles and the general need for a leadership paradigm shift globally toward greater moral consciousness in decision making, to demonstrate how improved customer service is the beneficiary of leaders who serve their followers (pp. 459-460). Because of its adaptability, servant leadership can be successful in dynamic work environments that feature varying sociodemographics and require improved leader-follower communications as well as better organizational connectivity to the broader community.

In this study, I sought to research servant leadership theory due to its people-centric, multidimensional, and adaptable nature, as well as its potential impact on social change in the workplace or community. By studying servant leadership through the SLS instrument (Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011) lens, I addressed the study's research questions on leadership based on worker socio demographics. Doraiswamy (2012), summing up the challenges of modern leaders, concluded that conventional organizations require leaders who engage employees beyond profit goals and have a passion for developing workers emotionally, physically, and even spiritually. Chapter 2 chronicles more studies that support this leadership style choice. Figure 1 shows the model proposed for investigating a Bahamian tourism industry staff motivational problem by exploring servant leadership through the eight-dimensional SLS instrument.

Industry Problem	SLS instrument dimensions	Dependent variables	Data analysis process	Final data for application

Reduced stopover visitors	Empowerment	Gender	Sample data descriptive statistics ($n = 1,165$)	Final SLS research data for analysis, proposals, application by hoteliers, and social change initiatives.
	Standing back	Tenure		
Demotivated hotel workers	Accountability	Generation	Hypotheses testing. T-tests and ANOVA inferential statistics	
	Forgiveness	Union		
	Courage	Region		
Uninspiring leadership	Humility	Department		
Negative stopover visitor staff attitudes	Authenticity	Education	K-means cluster analysis	
	Stewardship			

Figure 1. Applying the SLS instrument in the Bahamian tourism industry.Research dimensions from "The Servant Leadership Survey: Development and Validation of a Multidimensional Measure, " by D. Dierendonck and I. Nuijten, 2011, *Journal of Business & Psychology*, *26*(3), p. 256. Copyright 2010 by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten. Used with permission.

Nature of the Study

In this quantitative research study, a cross-sectional survey, descriptive and inferential statistics, and *k*-means cluster analysis were used to identify the significance of specific servant leadership dimensions on specific demographic characteristics. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008) reported that a cross-sectional survey allows researchers to study variables in the work environment and captures individual perceptions among participants at one point in time. Additionally, cross-sectional research is synonymous with survey usage and allows for the study of property-disposition relationships, individuals, or groups (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008,

p. 116). A cross-sectional survey was the chosen statistical technique due to the lack of control over stimulus-response relationships, which influence time, the degree of specificity, the nature of the comparison, and the sequence of events, versus experimental or quasi-experimental designs (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). Cross-sectional survey research substitutes manipulation and control with statistical analysis, hence the usage of the systematic random sampling method, inferential statistics, and k-means cluster analysis.

The SLS instrument contains 30 Likert-type questions on eight servant leadership dimensions (independent variables). For RQ1 and the hypotheses related to means-comparisons with t tests and one-way ANOVA, the 30 Likert questions averaged to form eight servant leadership (composite) mean scores for comparison. The seven study sociodemographic characteristics were the dependent or grouping variables and included gender, union versus nonunion, generations, education, department, tenure, and region.

For RQ2 related to cluster analysis, the dependent variables were the same eight composite variables but were now the sums of the Likert questions by person (i.e., by observation) instead of the means by group. The summated indexes for the eight SLS dimension scores for each person (observation) were designated as the "S" variables and referenced by the notation *S_Observation_SLS dimension*. For example, Person 333 and Dimension 1 would have an SPSS cell value of S_333_1 = score value. Table 1 summarizes the notation for a couple of variables used in stipulating the mean difference

hypotheses for RQ1 and the clustering variables used to stipulate the clustering solution

for RQ2.

Table 1

Research Variable Measurment Levels

RQ	Variable name	Variable label	Variable type	Example	Data source	Calculation
1	M_1_8_2	Mean_1_8_2	Cont (Ratio)	Female = 2	SLS Q1-7	Average of Q1-7
2	S_333_1	Sum_1_8_2	Cont (Ratio)	Region	SLS Q1-7	Sum of Q1-7

In this research, administrating the SLS instrument to 1,165 Bahamian front-line

hotel workers generated the research data for analysis. For RQ1, *t* tests and one-way

ANOVA inferential statistics determined the relationship between the eight composite

variables and the seven dependent variables previously noted. For RQ2, after generating a

scree plot to establish the ideal number of clusters *(k*)* for cluster analysis (Hardie et al.,

2014), applying k-means statistical clustering in SSPS V23 using the sum of squares

(within groups; Everitt & Hothorn, 2009) leads to establishing unique front-line hotel

worker cohorts based on the eight SLS dimensions.

Understanding the homogeneity of responses across the sociodemographic groups

is mission critical for tourism leadership improvement. In addition to the inferential

statistical analysis, k-means cluster analysis provides a tested statistical analysis method

that identifies large homogeneous groups of persons within the sample with pre-

established sociodemographic variables (Aypay, 2011; Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011;

Ruscio & Roche, 2012). Therefore, the benefits of using inferential statistics and *k*-means

cluster analysis to identify the servant leadership dimension(s) that answer the study's research questions surpass the shortcomings due to the sparse empirical research on the issue and the adequacy of the methodology procedures. Chapter 3 provides a detailed assessment of the statistical investigation process in the data analysis section.

Definitions

Cluster analysis: A statistical method that involves sorting cases or variables according to their relation to one or more dimensions and producing groups that maximize within-group similarity and minimize between-group similarity (Henry, Tolan, & Gorman-Smith, 2005, p. 122).

Front-line worker: Employees having frequent face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions with customers in the hotel industry (Karatepe & Kilic, 2009, p. 977). In this study, the front-line hotel departments were front office (i.e., front desk, call centers), food and beverage, concierge, housekeeping (public areas), and bell services.

Servant leadership: Leaders who seek to serve first and place the priorities of others ahead of personal goals and objectives (Hannay, 2009, p. 3).

Stopover: A guest staying for 24 hours or more. The classifications of stopover arrival accommodations in the Bahamian tourism industry include hotels, nonresident second homeowners, boaters, timeshare, apartments, or resident homeowners (BMOTRS, 2012a).

Assumptions, Scope and Delimitations, and Limitations

The scope of this study encompassed an investigation of the servant leadership dimensions that influence Bahamian front-line hotel workers. As part of the research, there were specific prohibitions in the form of assumptions, limitations, scope, and delimitations that influenced the results. In the coming sections, I review and summarize in table form the assumptions, scope and delimitations, and limitations for this research. AssumptionsAs Simon (2011) noted, study assumptions are somewhat out of the researcher's control and are accepted as true, and without them, a study might be irrelevant. In this research, there were five assumptions identified. First, I assumed that hotelier acceptance and implementation of the significant servant leadership dimensions lead to improved worker motivation and ultimately reduce negative staff attitudes toward stopover visitors. Second, I assumed that Bahamian front-line workers would participate voluntarily with anonymity and would provide honest answers on the survey. The third assumption was that survey administrators would apply the instructions provided despite the remoteness of some hotels. Fourth, I assumed that the inferential statistics, cluster analysis, and study sample size selected were adequate to detect differences if they existed in the data. The fifth assumption was that the study would produce meaningful results for hoteliers and the government, and would support positive social change throughout the Bahamian community. Table 2 summarizes the above assumptions, which were critical and potentially weakened the research.

Table 2

Servant Leadership Study Assumption Criteria

Elements	Criteria
The phenomenon	Hotelier acceptance and implementation of the significant servant leadership dimensions lead to improved worker motivation and ultimately reduce negative staff attitudes toward stopover visitors.
The instrument	The study was limited to an analysis of the eight-measure SLS instrument designed by Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) to identify significant dimensions for Bahamian hotelier acceptance and implementation in the workplace. The variables are clearly defined and measurable.
The participants	The Bahamian front-line hotel workers provided honest answers, and the GMs and owners applied the instructions provided. Participation was confidential and voluntary.
The analysis	The inferential statistics, cluster analysis, and sample size selected were adequate, were representative, and could detect differences if they existed in the population. The SLS instrument was reliable and valid.
The results	The study provides meaningful data for hoteliers, government, and other related tourism stakeholders.

Note. Assumption criteria template for the Bahamian tourism industry servant leadership study. Table 2 elements from "BOLD Educational Software: Writing the Assumptions and Limitations" by D. M. Dusick, 2011 (http://bold-ed.com/assumptions.htm). Copyright 2014 by BOLD Educational Software.

Scope and Delimitations

Simon (2011) stated that delimitations define the scope of a study and are in the control of the researcher. Finding a solution to the staff attitude issue reported by stopover visitors in the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism exit surveys was the core of this research. In this study, by examining servant leadership as defined by Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), I sought to identify statistically significant dimensions to address the concern of Bahamian front-line hotel workers' attitudes. This research is not generalizable to the entire Bahamian tourism industry, in that it investigated perceptions of front-line hotel workers only who interacted with stopover visitors on a daily basis. There are other sectors of hotel operations and the Bahamian tourism industry that were not included in the study (e.g., back-of-house departments, cruise, recreation, marinas, and sustainable tourism industries). To reduce the potential bias of participant responses, general managers and hotel owners invited front-line hotel workers to participate in the SLS research, rather than invitations being offered directly by me as the researcher. This step further supported the accuracy of data collection and data analysis, as well as generalization of the final survey results. Finally, the Walden IRB board and PhD committee approved the data collection, recruitment, and participation processes based on established protocols and the context of the research. Table 3 provides a summary of the delimitations that defined the scope of the research.

Table 3

Servant Leadership Study Scope and Delimitations Criteria

Elements	Criteria
The phenomenon	Using the servant leadership concept to address the front-line hotel worker attitude problem was the central delimitation of the study. This study determined the dimensions that motivate Bahamian front-line workers toward servant leadership.
Generalization	There is a lack of data generalization across the Bahamian tourism industry due to a focus on front-line hotel employees only. There are other tourism segments (e.g., cruise, recreation, marinas, and sustainable tourism industries) and stakeholders not included in the study.
Bias	The author is the past president of the Bahamas Hotel and Tourism Association, which might have created perceived bias. The author controlled perceived bias by maintaining anonymity and using general managers and owners to facilitate the survey process.
Participant selection	Participants were randomly selected come from payroll registers across three geographical regions: Nassau/Paradise Island, Grand Bahama, and the Out Islands. Systematic random sampling selection addressed a primary limitation of cross-sectional survey design.
Data collection	The Walden IRB board and PhD committee approved the SLS data collection process.

Note. Scope and delimitations criteria template for servant leadership study. Table 3 elements from *Dissertation and Scholarly Research: Recipes for Success*, by M. Simon, 2011, Seattle, WA: Dissertation Success (http://dissertationrecipes.com/wp-content/uploads/2011/04/AssumptionslimitationsdelimitationsX .pdf). Copyright 2014 by BOLD Educational Software.

Limitations

According to Simon (2011), project limitations are out of the researcher's control and represent potential flaws in the research. The application of limitations reduces the barriers to logical and controllable studies. In this study, the research was cross-sectional in design, and therefore causation could not be determined without a designed study. The SLS instrument, *t* tests, one-way ANOVA, and cluster analysis technique drove all research results. Importantly, some Bahamian front-line workers may have had limited exposure to the servant leadership style due to the prevalence of the autocratic and transactional leadership styles currently practiced in the industry. Applying the systematic random sampling process for all participants ensured a cross-section of employee experiences versus reliance on the perspectives of industry leaders alone. Another limitation was the exclusive use of Bahamian tourism statistical data from the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism Research and Statistics website. Finally, the study is not generalizable outside of the Bahamian front-line worker hotel categories defined in Chapter 3. Table 4 summarized the limitations that provided a logical framework for the research.

Table 4

Servant Leadership Study Limitations Criteria

Elements	Criteria
The phenomenon	The research design was cross-sectional in nature, therefore capturing participant perceptions at a moment in time (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).
The analysis	The results of the research are limited to the SLS, inferential statistics, and cluster analysis procedures.
The participants	The hotel front-line workers' understanding of servant leadership may have been limited based on previous experience.
The results	The Bahamian tourism statistical data were limited to information from the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism Research and Statistics department.
The results	The ethnicity of the participants was highly homogenous; therefore, the study is not generalizable to other cultures, individuals, or groups in the Bahamas.

Note. Limitation criteria template for tourism servant leadership study. Table 4 elements from "BOLD Educational Software: Writing the Assumptions and Limitations," by D. M. Dusick, 2011 (http://bold-ed.com/assumptions.htm). Copyright 2014 by BOLD Educational Software. (See Appendix R).

Significance of the Study

This study addressed a research knowledge gap on servant leadership in the Bahamian tourism industry, as well as its relevance to professional practice, its implications for social change, and its importance to servant leadership empirical studies. Chapter 1 contains a demonstration of how identifying servant leadership dimensions could affect front-line hotel worker motivation if hoteliers implemented the dimensions in the workplace. Applying the SLS instrument in an industry setting is a way to start influencing dimension testing in the workplace. This research was a pioneering study on servant leadership in the Bahamas; the results may not only inspire hoteliers to implement the concept, but also encourage more researchers to perform tourism studies. The social implications provide linkages to how the research can change the industry's leadership model and global perceptions of Bahamian front-line hotel workers.

Significance to Theory

This research addresses a gap in knowledge on Bahamian front-line hotel worker perceptions of servant leadership by providing hoteliers with a quantifiable measure of the dimensions that positively influence employee behavior and work performance. By focusing on specific measure values attained by the sociodemographic groups, the research may facilitate the development of an improved tourism leadership prototype that incorporates definitive servant leadership strategies regarding stopover visitors. Blending the identified dimensions with existing management styles across specific worker demographics may achieve the desired result. For example, unionized female workers

might identify the empowerment dimension as significant, which could influence tourism industry leaders to adjust the decision-making process in the workplace. The research extends servant leadership knowledge in developing countries, and, if implemented, the new leadership model can contribute to enhancing the Bahamas' tourism brand as one of the most friendly destinations in the world.

Significance to Practice

Positive research results may lead to promoting servant leadership applications locally and regionally, as well as in developing countries globally. The servant leader behavioral opportunities that arise from the study's population result from dimension testing, which identifies the distinctive qualities of each chosen demographic. The research implications are relevant for hoteliers, government entities, and allied businesses positioned to gain from applying the servant leadership behavioral dimensions in the workplace.

Significance to Social Change

Creating a servant leadership culture has multiple social change benefits as Bahamian hoteliers and front-line workers establish a culture of exceptional service toward tourists, associates, and the broader community. Most importantly, the servant leadership dimensions identified aid hoteliers in improving leader-follower relationships based on the "follower needs first" core service concept (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears & Lawrence, 2002). Creating more servant leaders throughout the Bahamian tourism

industry and society may promote improved leader-follower communications and ethical decision making in upcoming national projects.

Summary and Transition

Chapter 1 has included an overview of servant leadership and its potential relevance to the Bahamian hotel industry in the context of a study of the perceptions of front-line hotel workers that involved executing the SLS survey and collecting data from front-line hotel workers to clarify leadership expectations based on seven employee classifications. I include a description of the problem and the process of identifying servant leadership dimensions from each worker classification. Chapter 2 entails a review of past servant leadership research, an overview of the Bahamian tourism industry, a categorical overview of previous tourism studies, and a summary of studies on the inferential statistics and cluster analysis procedures chosen. Additionally, Chapter 2 addresses the relevance of servant leadership theory and the concept's potential effect on front-line hotel worker motivation if implemented. Chapter 3 includes a detailed explanation of the study's methodology and its relation to the research questions and hypotheses. Chapter 4 entails a review of the study results. In Chapter 5 I delineate a discussion, provide study conclusions, and present research recommendations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Leadership in modern societies is receiving increasing focus to determine the characteristics of successful leaders and alternatives to the failed command-and-control conventional styles of the past. The leader remains central to resolving these complex concerns. This study was an attempt to address the poor staff attitude problem of Bahamian front-line hotel workers by identifying the servant leadership dimensions that motivate employees. Administering the SLS designed by Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) served this purpose.

The literature review contains four sections. First, I present a review of servant leadership studies, such as that of Greenleaf (1977), relating these to motivational worker needs and empirical research, emphasizing the concept's positive impact on organizational performance and varying sociodemographic variables. Additionally, I compare servant leadership to two contrasting 20th-century management styles (autocratic and transactional). Second, I present a historical overview of the Bahamian tourism industry. Third, I describe research on seven classifications of tourism studies, including the growth of global tourism, and the relevance of industry changes to the Bahamian tourism sector. Next, I address research involving descriptive, inferential statistics (*t* tests and one-way ANOVA) and cluster analysis methods, demonstrating the appropriateness and flexibility of each technique. The conclusion includes a summary of the literature review and synthesis of the research that influences servant leadership acceptance in the Bahamian tourism domain.

Literature Search Strategy

Information sources for this research included relevant peer-reviewed articles and journals located using the Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Hospitality and Tourism Complete, and PsycINFO databases, accessed through the Walden University Library. The Bahamian tourism statistics and employment data used for this study came from five websites. Additionally, there were three books used for this study, including seminal work by Greenleaf (1977). Key literature review search terms used in conjunction with the core concept, *tourism*, were *servant leadership, autocratic leadership, profit, transactional leadership, motivation, employee motivation, demographics, leadership, developing countries, destination image, stewardship, courage, forgiveness, hotel industry, competitive advantage, age, union, nonunion, empowerment, variables, gender, generations,* and *region.* Tourism industry research included the key research themes *tourism, policy, government, push, pull factors, island, tourism studies*, and the *economic, anthropological, geographical, sociological, psychological, political,* and *historical* categories. The search for relevant statistical methodology research included the key terms *tourism*, *tourism studies* and *descriptive statistics*, *t tests, ANOVA, marketing, gender, community, visitor motivation, tourism projects*, and *cluster analysis*. In summary, the literature review search initial results using the above terms produced approximately 480 articles, including 130 peer-reviewed articles/journals (121 from 2011-2015, and nine from 2005-2010). Table 5 summarizes the literature review search results.

Table 5

Literature Review Search Data Summary

Item	Period	No.	%
Peer reviewed journals/articles	2005- 2010	9	7%
	2011 -2015	121	93%
	Total	130	100%
Books		3	
Websites		5	

Theoretical Foundation

Greenleaf (1977), who developed the servant leadership theoretical framework, argued that inverting traditional leader-follower relationships and placing a focus on followers' needs first is critical to future organizational and community success. Greenleaf challenged leaders to emphasize "service" to followers as the greatest priority versus other dimensions such as awareness, foresight, listening, empathy, empowerment, community building, stewardship, and human capital development. Unequivocally, Greenleaf noted that trust legitimizes servant leadership, concluding that where there is no trust, nothing happens (p. 70).

More strikingly, Greenleaf (1977) established a direct connection between servant leadership and theological frameworks, including Hinduism, Islam, Christianity, Judaism, and Buddhism, in that each belief system teaches the importance of helping others (moral dimensions) first and developing relationships based on moral principles (Burch, Swails, & Mills, 2015; Lynch & Friedman, 2013; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). Spears (1995) and Laub (1999) extended research on servant leadership to demonstrate the

relationship-building effectiveness of the concept and proposed six dimensions (i.e., values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership) as part of a survey development process. According to Finely (2012), detractors of servant leadership view the humility of servant leaders as a weakness, noting that the concept disturbs the hierarchy of conventional leadership by placing the leader at the base of the organizational pyramid, which is an uncomfortable spot for some leaders. Additionally, some researchers have contended that servant leadership is manipulative due to the practice of leader influence over follower development. Servant leadership works in organizations driven by core values whose leaders seek to improve employee motivation rather than instilling fear in employees (Finley, 2012). In summary, servant leadership promotes the belief that follower development takes precedence over the leader and organizational goals, and the result is communities of workers where moral consciousness, communication, trust, and empowerment are priorities.

Despite Greenleaf's development of servant leadership theory, there is a paucity of research on the concept as an alternative to conventional leadership models (Doraiswamy, 2012; Mehta & Pillay, 2011; Parris & Peachey, 2013; Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011). Therefore, Melchar and Bosco (2010) proposed that research that is more empirical adds traction to the theory's acceptance, especially in the competitive service industry. For example, recent studies in for-profit organizations that have linked positive employee motivation to servant leadership application have influenced other

businesses to implement the concept and more scholars to perform empirical research (Chen, Zhu, & Zhou, 2015; Jaramillo, Bande, & Varela, 2015; Jones, 2012; Liu, Hu, & Cheng, 2015; Melchar & Bosco, 2010; Schwepker & Schultz, 2015). As a result, the service-first approach and the relevance of servant leadership make it an appealing style to investigate in order to measure its impact on motivational employee drivers.

Linking Employee Motivational Needs to Servant Leadership Dimensions

The need to gain competitive advantage in the growing hospitality sector compels global hotel companies to research the management approaches that increase employee motivation in the workplace. Long hours, low pay, poor job satisfaction, high turnover of front-line employees, and autocratic and untrained supervision define the hospitality industry; therefore, the employee motivational challenge requires new leadership models to be competitive (Burke, Koyuncu, Ashtakova, Eren, & Çetin, 2014). Interestingly, Burke et al. (2014) previously concluded that due to the multiple levels and subjectivity of hospitality service, modern employees need multidimensional leadership to be motivated. This employee challenge guides leaders to take a fresh look at conventional and new leadership concepts that establish greater collaboration between companies and workers (Adyasha, 2013; Lavanya, & Kalliath, 2015). In fact, Mosley and Patrick (2011) concluded that firms must connect employee trust with rewards and recognition programs to motivate workers to perform at increased levels. Doraiswamy (2012) recommended creating work environments where self-interest is not a priority and selflessness is recognized in times of financial crisis, recession, and top-down leadership failures.

Additionally, the diversity of modern work environments directs managers to account for sociodemographics as part of the human capital strategy to produce more motivated and productive employees. For example, the community and social networking needs of Generation Y, and increasing sensitivity to gender issues, represent demographic differences that fit well with the flexibility and multidimensional characteristics of servant leadership (Islam, Teh Wee, Yusuf, & Desa, 2011; Reynolds, 2011). Paul (2012) concluded that happy workers are more productive, directing leaders to investigate and understand the factors that influence follower job satisfaction to encourage greater buy-in to company goals (p. 32). Țebeian (2012) studied the value of teamwork and worker motivation in the workplace and asked the question of "who serves who" in the leader-follower relationship (p. 315), challenging leaders to suppress their egos and encourage two-way communication. Finally, Manzoor (2012) studied employee leadership motivation through the lens of worker empowerment and recognition and concluded that improved motivation influences workers to achieve organizational goals. In summary, servant leadership is a multidimensional philosophy that links the motivational needs of the modern workforce to leadership expectations, and investigating the concept in the Bahamian tourism industry can be advantageous for all stakeholders.

Literature Review

Servant Leadership Studies

Ethical breaches of powerful 20th century leaders have led to increased global interest in alternate leadership models. Doraiswamy (2012) researched servant leadership

in response to global corporate scandals that had fueled distrust in the public toward

senior executives. Servant leadership provides a management style focused on

developing leader-follower communications and relationships in trusting and ethical

business environments. Doraiswamy proposed six servant leadership dimensions as a

solution for 21st-century sustainable leadership (i.e., voluntary submission, authenticity,

trust-based relationships, responsibility morality, spiritual orientation, and transforming

influence) to guide leaders to higher moral levels of decision making. As a result, servant

leaders are mandated to operate businesses with humility and higher levels of

accountability and to demonstrate how leaders can achieve people and profit goals

simultaneously (Chan, McBey, & Scott-Ladd, 2011; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, & Colwell,

2011). Chan et al. (2011) proposed that companies pay special attention to the process of

selecting leaders who possess servant leader dimensions and consider factors such as

moral character. The topic of leader-follower relationships and the linkage to employee

motivation are relevant issues in the management field. Therefore, building workplace

trust and ethics begins with a paradigm shift in the selection of organizational leaders,

and not hiring those driven by self-interest and power.

Servant leaders demonstrate *humility* by leading in the background and allowing

followers to take credit for organizational success. In fact, Chung (2011) suggested that

servant leaders shy away from honor to highlight follower recognition. Servant leaders

view leadership as a responsibility rather than a privilege (Chung, 2011). Interestingly,

Udani and Lorenzo-Molo (2013) pointed out that model servant leaders are intelligent yet

humble, which, when coupled with authenticity, leads to effective leadership in dynamic situations. Therefore, servant leaders create communities of confident workers based on their humility and selflessness, which leads to greater company loyalty. In the tourism industry, understanding how to create greater numbers of happy employees through humble leadership is a compelling goal.

Top-down leadership styles lose traction as companies look for ways to move from profit-first business models to people-centric leadership models that produce workers who are more loyal. Savage-Austin and Honeycutt (2011) emphasized servant leadership success in for-profit businesses, highlighting corporations such as Southwest Airlines, Starbucks, Chick-fil-A, and TD Industries (p. 50) as organizations known for employee retention superiority. Additionally, Savage-Austin and Honeycutt studied servant leaders in each business and came to three conclusions: First, servant leaders build organizations with strong community values based on the strength of their character, where followers can communicate and grow. Second, servant leaders struggle in firms where there is a fear of change to the philosophy, and followers ultimately suffer. Third, servant leaders thrive in organizations that focus on communication, support the breakdown of silos, and promote collaborative decision making. Attached to long-term organizational success is the importance of employee tenure; as Sang-Shik (2011) reported, at Chick-fil-A, which posted 43 straight annual sales increases, less than 5% of the operators left the food chain annually. Historically, the tenure for most Chick-fil-A store operators was more than 20 years, which was critical to the sustainability of store

profits and service standards (Sang-Shik, 2011, p. 120). Offering support to this finding, Shaw and Newton (2014) and Williams and Hatch (2012) investigated and reported how servant leadership was directly correlated to increased employee tenure.

In summary, servant leaders build communities of engaged workers who can be upwardly mobile and loyal to establishments. In contrast, the misdirected use of power with top-down leadership styles leads to a lack of employee motivation, increased resistance to change, decreased employee tenure, and ultimately poor customer service. Therefore, the length of tenure of the Bahamian front-line hotel workers versus the servant leadership dimensions was an area of interest in this study.

Servant leaders are *stewards* who focus on strategies to serve the greater good of workers and surrounding communities. Gupta (2013) highlighted how Deutsche Bank used its financial prowess and servant leadership principles to help poor people finance projects globally. Later, Letizia (2014) promoted a radical model of servant leadership in which the leader fights for the rights and justice of workers. Letizia challenged the servant leader to be transparent and use all available resources to help front-line workers be successful. Thumma and Beene (2015) studied judges as servant leaders and concluded that judges should focus on "the whole" and not focus on individual gain. Thumma and Beene went a step further and suggested that stewardship is the foundation of servant leadership. In summary, in that servant leaders make decisions for the overall community and have the courage to withstand criticism over personal gain, there is a need for more knowledge on stewards as business leaders.

Servant leadership principles inspire trusting work environments that improve union-management labor relations. Saundry**,** Jones, and Antcliff (2011) proposed the development of trusting industrial relationships over time (p. 207) so that union representatives and management could establish behavioral expectations. Workers pay trade unionists dues to protect their rights and for representation when disciplined. In turn, interaction with union representatives often leads to negative confrontations with management. In my experience, building trust with union representatives requires formal and informal communications, which can accelerate cooperation between stakeholders. Interestingly, previous servant leadership research has highlighted improved levels of communication and worker trust when servant leadership is applied in dynamic work environments with union-versus-management issues (Chatbury, Beaty, & Kriek, 2011; Rezaei, Salehi, Shafiei, & Sabet, 2012). Therefore, developing trusting work environments causes improved leader-follower communications, reduces union-versus-management suspicion, increases employee morale, and creates a greater spirit of cooperation. As a result, investigating front-line hotel workers' perceptions of servant leadership in the heavily unionized Bahamian hotel industry may lead to improved workplace trust and leader-follower relationships.

Servant leaders are role models and good communicators who are not driven by self-interest. Servant leadership guides leaders to maintain personal accountability. Mehta and Pillay (2011) recognized servant leadership as an emerging leadership concept and studied how the idea affected worker performance due to service, vision,

communications, teamwork, and empowerment. Mehta and Pillay realized that applying servant leadership in business caused leaders to replace the traditional organizational pyramid with an inverted model where managers focused on listening and serving the needs of their followers first. Prominent servant leaders who have been identified include Martin Luther King, Jr.; Mahatma Gandhi; and Vince Lombardi, all of whom are renowned for personal accountability and leader-follower communication abilities that positively influenced the behaviors of their followers (Mehta & Pillay, 2011, p. 29). Mehta and Pillay corroborated a connection linking servant leadership to employee job satisfaction, despite some critics thinking that the servant leader is too warm and fuzzy and that the servant leadership model may not be applicable in competitive business environments. In conclusion, employee perceptions of management behavior in the workplace influence the level of respect attributed to leadership and guide the culture; therefore, managers should focus on personal accountability modeling for all types of employees to emulate.

Servant leadership is adaptable and positively affects many sociodemographic factors in the workplace. For example, Zehir, Akyuz, and Tanriverdi (2012) investigated and directly correlated servant leadership to school principal leadership and organizational fairness across various socio-demographic factors (gender, tenure, education, and age) and dimensions. Rodriguez-Rubio and Kiser (2013) studied the impact of servant leadership on age, gender, and cultural values in the United States and Mexico and concluded that women and older people showed significant differences to the

management style. Similarly, studying servant leadership in the Bahamian tourism industry could lead to the development of diverse employee engagement strategies that account for sociodemographic factors in the workplace.

Applying servant leadership dimensions in the workplace integrate *generational* differences between leaders and followers in diverse modern organizations. Balda and Mora (2011) studied the millennial generation and the impact of servant leadership in the workplace. Balda and Mora reported that Millennials are networked, collaborative, connected, social, technology savvy, and expect free flowing communications. Age, seniority, status do not intimidate Millennials who are unconcerned with company policies (p. 15). Undoubtedly, these unique qualities necessitate a leadership style that compliments the communication and inclusion needs of Millennials. In turn, Greenleaf's (1977) servant leadership dimensions include communication, community development, listening, and empowerment, which connect with the millennial generation needs and warrant more specific research (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). This study involves an examination of the perceptions of three generations of Bahamian hotel front-line workers (Baby Boomers, Generation Y, and Millennials) to determine significant servant leadership dimensions (Wiedmer, 2015). This research is important because worker generational differences create an array of perspectives, approaches, and experiences. Therefore, understanding the expectations of each generation is mission-critical so work environments can be appropriately designed, and employees participate.

Servant leadership promotes *forgiveness* and improves employee motivation when embedded in corporate culture. Dierendonck and Patterson (2015) proposed that servant leaders show more forgiveness towards their followers to encourage a greater sense of community and maximum output. Encouraging greater leadership forgiveness in modern organizations is a compelling concept when leaders are so highly scrutinized by followers and with increasing expectations of decision-making transparency. Dierendonck and Patterson concluded that more research in servant leadership organizations where leaders show greater levels of compassion could lead to improved employee behaviors related to empowerment, authenticity, and stewardship. The change occurs when executives commit to a moral versus punitive based corporate culture, which focuses on modeling behaviors and communicating the concept to all relevant stakeholders. Therefore, investigating employee perceptions of forgiveness in the workplace is a start to making an organizational and social change.

Contrasting Conventional Leadership Styles

This sub-section provides a comparison of servant leadership to two contrasting 20th-century leadership styles practiced prevalently in the Bahamian hospitality industry. The two styles are (a) autocratic leadership, and (b) transactional leadership. The comparisons below highlight the potential effectiveness of servant leadership as a complementary concept.

Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leadership work environments have low member participation and

high power leadership influence (Inandi, Tunc, & Gilic, 2013; Lopez, & Ensari, 2014;

Rast, Hogg, & Giessner, 2013). In fact**,** Schoel, Mueller, Bluemke, and Stahlberg (2011)

defined autocratic leadership as not allowing group members to have any involvement in

decision-making and not even asking for input on any operational matter. Previously,

Ispas (2012) described autocratic leadership as telling employees what to do, when to do

it, and how to do it, and how their contribution will fit in the overall organization. In

conflict, Schoel et al. (2011, p. 522) reported that autocratic leaders may be productive

and democratic leaders can be nonproductive, depending on the context of the leadership

situation. However, the autocratic workplace does not lend to community building,

employee engagement, and trust development; therefore, power is the dominant

leadership attribute.

The autocratic leadership style can negatively affect job satisfaction in the

workplace. Bhatti, Murta Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi, and Shaikh (2012) surveyed teachers

in public and private schools to measure the impact of autocratic leadership versus

Democratic leadership on job satisfaction. Bhatti et al. discovered that teachers preferred

the democratic method of leadership, and established that leadership style significantly

influences worker job satisfaction. Autocratic leaders wield power and practice exclusion

in decision-making. There are low levels of trust and workers do not feel like valued

members of the organization (Veterinary Team Brief, 2013). In contrast, servant leaders

practice community decision-making, share power with members, listens actively to associates, and follower development is the number one priority.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leaders clearly define rewards and punishments with contracts between leaders and followers (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2014; Hine, 2014; Rowold, 2014)**.** Transactional leaders motivate followers by appealing to their individual needs versus the groups goals. Bennett (2009) reported that there are two key factors of transactional leadership. First, contingent rewards allow leaders and followers to agree upon operational and productivity standards based on performance. Second, management-by-exception (active) allows leaders to address business transactions that digress from expected performance outcomes. According to Mosley and Patrick (2011), transactional leaders emphasize established goal setting, planning, organizing work, sharing clear-cut results, recognizing outstanding efforts, and utilizing punishment and power as necessary. Transactional leaders focus on productivity, present practices, sustaining the status quo, and meeting contractual agreements (Mosley & Patrick, 2011). With this productivity and performance focus, employee developmental needs are secondary.

Transactional leadership differs from servant leadership in some ways. First, Transactional leaders focus on allocating assets, supervising, and directing followers to achieve organizational goals (Washington, Sutton, & Sauser, 2014). In contrast, servant leaders emphasize activities that demonstrate concern about followers' well-being.

Second, the transactional leader influences followers by using rewards, sanctions, formal authority, and position to induce compliant behavior. Servant leaders influence followers through personal development and empowerment. Third, transactional leaders create strong expectations for employee work behaviors, along with clear indications of rewards and punishments based on productivity. The reward and punishment contracts contradict the empowerment concept emphasized by servant leaders. Fourth, transactional leaders utilize management-by-exception and do not involve themselves with followers until deviations from production standards occur. On the other hand, servant leaders use empowerment, and the decision-making process as a means to improve the follower (Washington et al., 2014). In conclusion, there is no spiritual connection between the transactional leader and employee development needs, making the business relationship a simple transaction.

Bahamian Tourism Industry Overview

This subsection includes a review of the global tourism industry linkage, modern Bahamian tourism industry, stopover visitor data, tourism labor statistics, historical tourism hotel occupancy and rate statistics, and an overview of The Bahamas cruise industry. The section concludes with an industry summary and transition into the next segment.

Global Tourism Industry Linkage

The Bahamian tourism industry is part of a diverse and growing global tourism sector. The global tourism industry is competitive, and a means for all countries to

generate revenues while employing masses of people from all socio-economic backgrounds. Gligorijević and Stefanović (2012) defined a tourist as " a person in a place outside of his/her residence that spends at least one night in a hotel or other facilities for the accommodation of guests, for the purpose of resting, recreation, health, study, sports, religion, family, public affairs mission and conferences" (p. 274). To attract tourists, each country utilizes its human and natural resources to create memorable tourism experiences and a competitive advantage while generating national expenditure. The positive tourism experiences motivate visitors to return, return to the destination multiple times, and make recommendations to others by word of mouth advertising. Most importantly, the linkage between marketing a destination's image and employee behavioral expectations is vital to the consistent delivery of the product value proposition, and must be clear amidst the growing number of vacation options available to travelers (Naidoo & Ramseook-Munhurrun, 2013). In summary, as competition between global tourism destinations increases, tourism studies are receiving growing attention as countries realize the importance and potential of the burgeoning sector.

Modern Bahamian Tourism Industry

The Bahamas is an archipelago with a stable democracy and an independent nation (since 1973) with a population of 377, 544 (World Population Review, 2013). In the 1950s, the Bahamian tourism industry transitioned from a seasonal to an annual modern sector across the archipelago. Before the 1950s, the tourism industry was seasonal due to a lack of guest room amenities and air conditioning. To address the guest

amenity issues, the late Sir Stafford Sands, former Prime Minister and Minister of Tourism, caused collaborative hotel projects between public and private stakeholders to establish the modern Bahamian tourism industry in the 1950s (Cleare, 2007, p. 113).

Some key public and private sector initiatives and global events in the 20th century influenced the development of the Bahamian tourism industry. First, to encourage modernization of hotels in the country, the Bahamas Government passed the Hotel Encouragement Act in 1913 to refund customs duties for materials purchased to construct new hotels (Cleare, 2007, p. 61). Second, formed in 1952, The Bahamas Hotel and Tourism Association promoted hotels and helped the then Development Board and later The Ministry of Tourism market The Bahamas as a destination. Third, in the 1950s, the Bahamian tourism industry benefited tremendously from addressing the amenity and air conditioning issues and an increase in global air travel after World War 11. Fourth, in New Providence, Huntington Hartford developed Paradise Island in the early 1960s, and concurrently, hotel developments in Grand Bahama led by Wallace Groves, a Virginian financier, were instrumental in establishing the city of Freeport. During the period 1950-59, The Out Islands developed hotels and commenced air service by 1959. Finally, in 1952, the first cruise liners commenced service to Nassau, and the cruise line industry began its competition with the hotel sector (Cleare, 2007).

Simultaneously, during the hotel modernization period 1950-1959, three hotel and cruise operating regions developed in the Bahamian tourism industry. The three regions are (a) Nassau/Paradise Island (NPI), (b) Grand Bahama (GB), and (c) the Out Islands

(OI). New Providence (Nassau is the City) is the capital of The Bahamas and most populated isle with 227,940 citizens (World Population Review, 2013). Today, a bridge connects Nassau to Paradise Island and both islands comprise Region 1, Nassau/Paradise Island. Region 2 is Grand Bahama Island, considered the second city, with the next largest population of 87,159 citizens (World Population Review, 2013). Region 3 is the Out Islands comprised of 14 isles and cays, with 60,445 citizens (World Population Review, 2013). From then to now, Nassau/Paradise Island leads the growth in stopover and cruise arrivals in the Bahamian tourism industry, then Grand Bahama, and the Out Islands.

Stopover Visitors by Origin and Room Nights

At present, stopover visitor arrivals generate the majority of Bahamian tourism expenditure from four international regions (BMOTRS, 2013a). Ranking the four stopover international regions by room nights are (1) The United States, (2) Canada, (3) Europe, and (4) Other (BMOTRS, 2013d). Figure 2 shows Bahamas' four categories of international arrivals by origin (a) United States (USA) - 79%, (b) Canada- 9%, (c) Europe – 6%, and (d) Other- 6% (BMOTRS, 2013d).

Bahamas Tourism Stop Over Visitor Arrivals by Origin
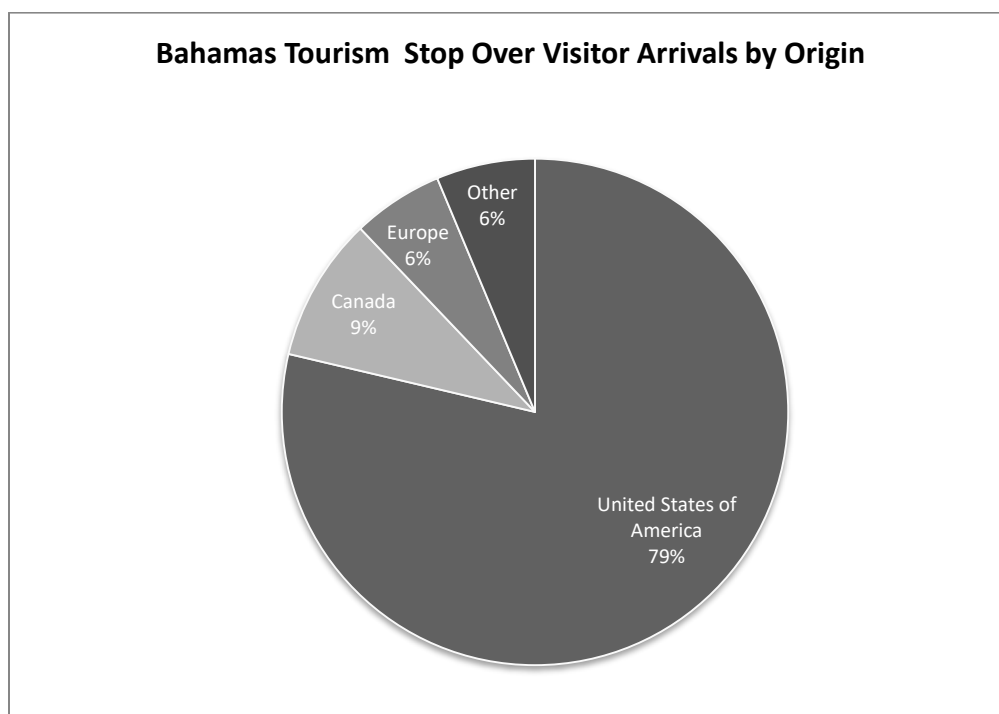
Figure 2. Bahamas stopover visitor arrivals by origin. Adopted from "Stopover Visitors by Country of Origin from 1977 to 2011," by the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism, Research and Statistics Department, 2013 (http://www.tourismtoday.com/home/statistics /stop-overs/). Copyright 2014 by the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism. Used with permission.

Tourism Labor Statistics

A diverse group of the hotel industry staff provides services for stopover visitors. According to The Bahamas Department of Statistics (2011), there are 11,802 tourism industry workers directly employed in the service sector made up of management and non-management staff. The total mix of industry workers by gender is 47% males and 53% females, with males occupying 7% of management jobs and females 8% respectively. In the non-management category, males occupy 41% of jobs and females 45%. The increase of female jobs over males in the non-management category is due to

the high concentrations of females in some departments (e.g., housekeeping/public areas, laundry, and food/beverage operations). In this research, front-line hotel employees work in varying customer contact departments staffed by union and non-union workers. The specific departments include front office (including call center), food and beverage, concierge, bell services, and housekeeping/public areas.

In the management category, males earn 18.4% more on average ($834 versus $704) than females and in the non-management category; males earn $323 and females $315. Hotel front-line employees work varying numbers of days each week based on the occupancy, company policies, and the industrial agreement with The Bahamas Hotel Catering and Allied Workers Union. Based on the various pay scales and job categories, hotels require that leaders are capable of operating in a union and non-union work environment, and able to motivate workers to exceed the expectations of visitors. Table 6 below shows the mix of all industry employees and job classifications in two sub-categories, manager and professionals (management), and non-management (union and non-union front-line workers).

Table 6

Bahamas Tourism Industry Worker Employment Statistics, 2011

Total worker category	No.	Avg. weekly wage	%	Male no.	%	Avg. weekly wage	Female No.	%	Avg. weekly wage
Managers	1,350	$811	11.4%	634	5%	$890	716	6%	$741
Professionals	344	$581	2.9%	152	1%	$600	192	2%	$566
Subtotal Nonmgmt staff	1,694		14.4%	786	7%	$834	908	8%	$704
Tech/ associate prof.	1,000	$536	8.5%	534	5%	$534	466	4%	$538
Clerical staff	1,202	$419	10.2%	446	4%	$433	756	6%	$410
Service and sales	4,005	$296	33.9%	1,683	14%	$289	2,322	20%	$301
Agriculture/ fisheries	107	$341	0.9%	92	1%	$329	15	0%	$411
Craft/trade	479	$429	4.1%	430	4%	$435	49	0%	$377
Plant/ machine	74	$340	0.6%	73	1%	$341	1	0%	$294
Elementary	3,241	$233	27.5%	1,556	13%	$239	1,685	14%	$227
Subtotals	10,108		85.6%	4,814	41%	$323	5,294	45%	$315
Totals	11,802	$385	100%	5,600	47%	$399	6,202	53%	$372

Note. Employment statistics adopted from *The Labor Force and its Components: 2011,*

by the Bahamas Department of Statistics, 2011, Nassau, Bahamas: Author. Copyright

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Historical Tourism Hotel Occupancy and Rate Statistics

During the period 2003-2012, the Bahamian tourism industry staff work week

varied (number of days scheduled) based on the cyclical occupancy results. In 2007, the

international financial catastrophe adversely affected the Bahamian tourism industry due

to a liquidity deficit in the USA banking system that forced governments to bail out

banks due to overvalued loans (Kaye, Gang, Shanshan, & Zixuan, 2010). The USA is

The Bahamas' primary stopover tourist market, and after 2007, the financial crisis

accelerated an overall decline in hotel occupancies. Figure 3 below shows the national

occupancy and rate trends, highlighting the industry's peak average annual occupancy in

2005 (70%), and rate in 2008 ($215). National hotel occupancies have steadily increased

from a low of 49% in 2009 to 56% in 2012. Overall, the Bahamas tourism industry has

slowly recovered since 2009, despite increased regional competition and global sector

growth. According to the Caribbean Tourism Organization (Caribbean Tourism

Association, 2013), the top five regional stopover competitors for The Bahamas are (1)

Dominican Republic, (2) Cuba, (3) Jamaica, (4) Puerto Rico, and (5) Aruba.

Bahamas Tourism Industry Hotel Occupancy and Average Rate Trends

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Dollar	$148.	$149.	$156.	$167.	$197.	$215.	$197.	$199.	$200.	$195.
Percent	59%	66%	70%	68%	61%	54%	49%	52%	54%	56%
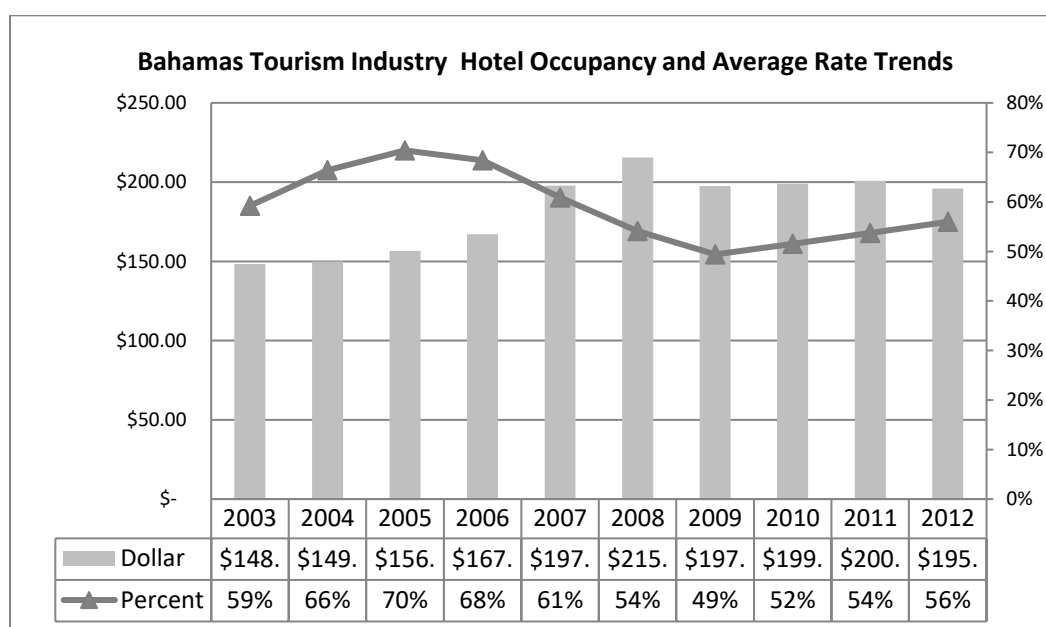
Figure 3. Hotel occupancy trends. Adapted using data from "Hotel Occupancy and Revenue Trends 1997-2012," by the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism, Research and Statistics Department, 2013 (http://www.tourismtoday.com/home/statistics/hotels/). Copyright 2014 by the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism. Used with permission.

When compared to the Bahamian cruise industry, Table 7 below shows how total

hotel stopover arrivals have decreased over the period 2004-2013, from 31.7% to 22.5%

of total arrivals to The Bahamas. Comparatively, cruise arrivals increased from 68.3% to 77.5% over the same period. As a result, the decline in stopover arrivals is a disturbing trend for hoteliers and the government, when compared to cruise arrival expenditure over the period 2004-2013 (BMOTRS, 2013a).

The effect of tourism industry expenditure multiplies throughout the Bahamian community. Most importantly, the multiplier effect from stopover visitor expenditure is critical to the overall Bahamian economy. Table 8 shows that stopover arrivals generate approximately 2.7 times more expenditure per person per day than cruise arrivals creating a compelling reason to focus on stopover tourist experiences. Furthermore, three additional factors support focusing on stopover visitor experiences, in an attempt to increase the overall national expenditure. First, the revenues from stopover visitors provide the Bahamian government with USA currency to pay foreign debt, keep the Bahamian dollar on par with the USA dollar, and maintain national infrastructure (education, health, roads and easements). Second, due to stopover visitor expenditure, public and private sector investors employ thousands of Bahamians in the tourism and related industries. Third, stopover visitor expenditures contribute to The Bahamas' standard of living, which provides Bahamians with disposable income to enjoy travel, international education, and worldly luxuries (BMOTRS, 2012a). For these reasons, the stopover visitor experience requires public and private sector focus to ensure that The Bahamas' tourism industry remains competitive as it directly correlated to the national standard of living.

Table 7

Bahamas Stopover and Cruise Industry Landed Arrivals, 2004-2013

	Stopovers hotels only	%%%	Total	%%%	Cruise arrivals	%%% arrivals	Total
2013	981,370	71.9%	1,364,200	22.5%	4,709,236	77.5%	6,073,436
2012	1,042,637	73.3%	1,421,753	24.3%	4,434,161	75.7%	5,855,914
2011	980,069	72.8%	1,346,372	24.4%	4,161,269	75.6%	5,507,641
2010	997,625	72.8%	1,370,174	26.5%	3,809,807	73.5%	5,179,981
2009	940,455	70.9%	1,327,007	29.0%	3,255,780	71.0%	4,582,787
2008	1,060,768	73.5%	1,443,006	33.5%	2,861,140	66.5%	4,304,146
2007	1,109,835	72.6%	1,527,728	34.0%	2,970,659	66.0%	4,498,387
2006	1,189,108	74.3%	1,600,881	34.2%	3,078,534	65.8%	4,679,415
2005	1,219,365	75.8%	1,608,153	34.3%	3,078,709	65.7%	4,686,862
2004	1,173,470	75.2%	1,561,312	31.7%	3,360,012	68.3%	4,921,324
Average	1,069,470	73.4%	1,457,059	29.0%	3,571,931	71.0%	5,028,989

Note. Data from "Hotel Occupancy and Revenue Trends 1997-2012," by the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism, Research and Statistics Department, 2013 (http://www.tourismtoday.com/home/statistics/hotels/). Copyright 2014 by the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism. Used with permission.

Bahamas Cruise Industry

Nationally, the Bahamian cruise industry is first in visitor arrivals and second in visitor expenditure (See Table 7 above and Table 8 below). Additionally, The Bahamas is the number one cruise destination in the Caribbean (Caribbean Tourism Organization, 2013). According to Klein (2012) and Klein (2011), cruise tourism has undertaken astounding growth, with the United States and Australia leading the way. Plus, cruise ships keep getting larger and larger and "niche cruising" is a growing area in the sector, for travelers that want to explore specific regions of the world (Klein, 2012). The cruise sector is fiercely competitive globally and is a multi-billion dollar growing industry

(Klein, 2012). In the Caribbean, for the year 2012, The Caribbean Tourism Organization (2013) reported that the top five cruise arrival competitors for The Bahamas (4.4 million) are (1) Cozumel (Mexico) (2.7 million), (2) United States (US) Virgin Islands (1.9 million), (3) ST. Maarten (1.7 million), (4) Cayman Islands (1.5 million), and (5) Jamaica (1.3 million). Table 7 above shows the cruise industry 40.1% arrival increase from 2004-2013. Concurrently, Table 8 below displays an increase (114%) of cruise expenditure from 2004-2013. In contrast, during the period 2004-2013, stopover expenditure has been stagnant averaging $1.8 billion (see Table 8 below). The problem is, the cruise industry expenditure and arrival increases are outpacing the stagnant stopover revenue expenditure from 2004-2013 (Table 8), and as previously discussed, overall stopover expenditure is a growing concern to public and private stakeholders. Hence, the need to investigate a new leadership style (servant leadership) that positively motivates the hotel front-line workers that service the valuable stopover tourists.

Table 8

Bahamas Stopover, Cruise, and Day Visitor Expenditure, 2004-2013

Year	Stopover expenditure	%%%	Cruise expenditure	%%%	Day visitor expenditure	%%%	Total expenditure
2013	$1,884,133,407	82.5%	$397,855,637	17.4%	$2,677,560	0.1%	$2,284,666,604
2012	$1,896,676,812	82.1%	$412,494,975	17.8%	$2,418,480	0.1%	$2,311,590,267
2011	$1,792,134,926	83.7%	$346,626,471	16.2%	$2,769,420	0.1%	$2,141,530,817
2010	$1,861,005,343	86.0%	$299,310,425	13.8%	$2,840,820	0.1%	$2,163,156,588
2009	$1,811,758,500	90.0%	$199,672,500	9.9%	$2,729,500	0.1%	$2,014,160,500
2008	$2,332,081,400	93.2%	$165,989,400	6.6%	$2,947,500	0.1%	$2,501,018,300
2007	$2,020,811,838	92.2%	$166,834,449	7.6%	$4,074,540	0.2%	$2,191,720,827
2006	$1,881,217,199	91.4%	$172,042,818	8.4%	$4,091,460	0.2%	$2,057,351,477
2005	$1,883,862,550	91.1%	$179,979,077	8.7%	$5,017,140	0.2%	$2,068,858,767
2004	$1,693,486,565	89.9%	$185,817,481	9.9%	$5,177,460	0.3%	$1,884,481,506
Average	$1,905,716,854	88.2%	$252,662,323	11.7%	$3,474,388	0.2%	$2,161,853,565
By arrival	$1,307.92		$70.74				
Avg. stay	6.8						
Per Day	$192.34		$70.74				

Note. Bahamas stopover, cruise industry, and day visitor expenditure 2004-2013 (in millions). Stopover visitor expenditure per person per day is 2.7 times more that cruise visitors ($192.34/$70.74). Adopted from BMOTRS (2013b) data. Copyright 2014 by Bahamas Ministry of Tourism. Used with permission.

Industry Overview

The declining stopover tourist arrivals and stagnant expenditure coupled with the cruise arrival increases (and expenditure decreases) continues to impact negatively the overall Bahamian GDP growth. Despite the overall industry arrival growth due to cruise arrivals, the Bahamian tourism industry faces challenges due to planned public, private, and international developmental projects. First, The Bahamar Resort, a major hotel project, will add 2200 new luxury rooms to the existing hotel inventory on Nassau/Paradise Island, which requires significant public and private expenditure for

additional airlift, staff training, and marketing (Lowe, 2014, August 5, para. 5, para. 6).

Second, the Bahamian government implemented a value-added tax (VAT) system in

2015, in addition to existing high labor and utility costs concerns (Hartnell, 2014,

February 21). Third, cruise business growth continues to outpace stopover visitor

performance, creating urgency for hoteliers to increase the level of product innovations

(Klein, 2011). Fourth, Cuba is slowly opening its doors to the global tourism industry, as

more international investors show interest in the previously closed economy (Romeu,

2014). In summary, The Bahamas' tourism sector faces local, regional, and global

competitive challenges. For the near future, tourism will be the primary business in The

Bahamas; therefore, hotelier and government collaboration is necessary to improve the

internal and external guest experience while achieving the triple bottom-line (Glavas &

Mish, 2015).

Tourism Studies

This section contains an outline of seven categories of tourism research that

impact demand, supply, and travel interest in the global industry. The categories are the

anthropological, sociological, economic, psychological, political, historical, and

geographical classifications. There are linkages between the seven categories that

highlight the cross-functionality of each phase of tourism development and connections

to the Bahamian tourism industry. At the end of the 20th-century, global values changed

towards travel, vacations, and learning about new cultures, and there was greater

disposable income worldwide. Satisfying the global traveler push and pull factors for

exploring has aided in tourism developing into one of the most diverse and fastest

expanding industries on the globe (Pesonen, 2012; Ridderstaat, Croes, & Nijkamp, 2014).

According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), people are the core of tourism;

they drive the engine, and, therefore, understanding the needs for travel of people fuels

the business (Chang & Chang, 2012, p. 633). Table 9 below shows the articles from the

Walden database included in the seven tourism studies categories discussed in this

section.

Table 9

Tourism Studies Research

Category	Studies	No.
Anthropological	Bursan, 2011; Io, 2011; Régi, 2013; Di Giovine, 2013; Xiao-Ping, Graburn, & Li, 2012	5
Economics	Ekanayake & Long, 2012; Hashemabadi, 2015; Mitchell, 2012; Shaaban, Ramzy, & Sharabassy, 2013; Winters, Corral, & Mora, 2013	5
Historical	Al Dalaeen, Alsarayreh, & Saleh, 2011; Foris & Foris, 2013; Hussain, Lema, & Agrusa, 2012; Qian, 2013	4
Geographical	Ashrafi & Mohammad, 2012; Lacher & Harrill, 2010; Pearcy & Anderson, 2010; Poirine, 2014; Tonge, Valesini, Moore, Beckley, & Ryan, 2013;Wong, 2011	6
Sociological	Buzinde & Osagie, 2011; Hanrahan & McLoughlin, 2015; King, 2015; Mekinc, Kociper, & Dobovšek, 2013	4
Psychological	Abooali & Mohamed, 2012; Cheng-Yu & B-kun, 2013; Mehmetoglu, 2012; Pesonen, 2012; Tasci & Gartner, 2007; Yousefi & Marzuki, 2012	6
Political	Amoamo, 2013; Azmy & Atef, 2011; Dumitru, 2012; Guibert & Taunay, 2013; Sharpley & Ussi, 2014	5

Anthropological

In **a**nthropological tourism, researchers define the tourism experience from both the guest and the host standpoint**.** Culture and heritage tourism studies are essential components of anthropological research due the focus on past and present human experiences. In fact, cultural heritage merged with tourism in destinations allow tourists to become a part of the local way of life (Di Giovine, 2013; Io, 2011; Régi, 2013). For example, in The Bahamas, The Ministry of Tourism successfully operated a cultural heritage program called "People to People" where tourists resided with residents and learned the about the history, food, culture, and everyday life experiences of Bahamians (The Bahamas Ministry of Tourism, People to People program, 2013). Bursan (2011) researched anthropological tourism from a souvenir perspective, which tells the history of numerous tourism destinations while allowing tourists to consume and transport a part of the experience. The future of anthropological tourism is in the ability of destinations to mix economic and social aspects of tourism so that sophisticated niche experiences are available for marketers to explore (Xiao-Ping, Graburn, & Li, 2012). Upon review, there are anthropological tourism markets for vacationers seeking unique experiences that enhance cultural and emotional awareness, leaving both the visitor and host more fulfilled.

Economics

The global tourism industry continues to grow, especially in developing countries. According to Ekanayake and Long (2012, p. 51), the World Travel and Tourism Council

reported a 3.3% (US $1770 billion) global revenue increase in 2010 and a 4.5% (to US $1850 billion) rise expected in 2011, with incremental increases until 2021. Consequently, all countries continue to benefit from global tourism industry revenues and the resulting wide job employment opportunities (Hashemabadi, 2015). In conclusion, Ekanayake and Long studied the economic correlation between tourism revenues and national economics in developing countries and concluded that tourism revenues make a positive contribution to the national economies (p. 58).

In developing countries, tourism revenues affect poverty levels and all value chain stakeholders both positively and negatively. Previous researchers supported the notion that tourism positively affects poverty and the value chain in developing countries (Mitchell, 2012; Winters, Corral, & Mora, 2013). For example, the Comoros Islands is an archipelago as is The Bahamas, and Shaaban, Ramzy, and Sharabassy (2013, p. 131) performed research on the impact of tourism on the value chain. Similar to The Bahamas, The Comoros Islands have sandy beaches, turquoise waters, and coral reefs. In this region, Shaaban et al. (2013) reported on the tourism multiplier and stated that one direct tourism industry job generates 1.5 jobs in the related economy (p. 128). Additionally, Shaaban et al. concluded that the continued development of the Comoros Islands links government involvement in projects to the tourism stakeholders in the industry value chain (p. 144). Conversely, overdependence on tourism revenues exposes local economies to global economic changes like the depression of 2008. Therefore,

governments should deliberate and include all tourism stakeholders in project decision-making, to account for both positive and negative economic factors.

Historical

Historical tourism studies are a growing category of research that explores the cultural and heritage aspects of a destination. For example, Al Dalaeen, Alsarayreh, and Saleh, (2011) studied heritage tourism in Jordan (Karak region) to identify the viability of religious tourism in the area and concluded that religious tourism development is achievable with the support of the relevant government ministries and polices. Likewise, Foris and Foris (2013) related the success of the Romanian tourism industry to the establishment of the Department of Tourism and excursions; to coordinate the heritage industry's activities of all related stakeholders. In other words, a supportive government structure and collaboration with the private sectors is mission-critical to successful heritage tourism and preservation of national culture sites.

Past research supports gastronomy as a growing historical tourism category, especially in mature tourism economies. Recently, Hussain, Lema, and Agrusa (2012) surveyed and explored the perceptions of Maldives tourists to establish interest in the indigenous food and heritage offerings. Hussain et al. concluded that the uniqueness of food can attract tourists to a destination, and gastronomy tourism improves the national pride of locals involved in preparing the cultural dishes. Qian (2013) studied food tourism and its connection to historical (heritage) vacations experiences by surveying vacationers in Chongqing and reported that, after sightseeing, tourist interest in food was the next

highest factor for vacationing. In summary, the rise in gastronomy research is an indication that vacationer interest in food can be a pull factor that drives tourism while allowing nations to protect, sustain, and share in the traditional habits that make each destination authentic.

Geographical

Place, is a key attribute of a tourist's vacation experience selection. Undoubtedly, there is a connection between people and the environment along with each destination's push and pull factors (Tonge, Valesini, Moore, Beckley, & Ryan, 2013). In a previous study, the mountainous and geographical area of Macau was a significant reason for international travelers seeking an event location (Wong, 2011). The sun, sand, and sea destinations of the Caribbean include The Bahamas and Cuba, Santa Domingo, and Jamaica, are less than eight air travel hours from major North and South American cities (Lacher & Harrill, 2010; Pearcy & Anderson, 2010). The proximity to major markets of these destinations remains attractive to travelers as each country competes for valuable tourism dollars (Poirine, 2014). In short, understanding of geographic place is critical to developing marketing and operational programs that satisfy customer needs based on demographics and special interests.

Tourism, environmental protection strategies are critical to visitor perceptions of place and are becoming an increasing priority in developing countries. Ashrafi and Mohammad (2012) researched the importance of government protection of the environment before resort development approval, especially in developing countries

where the infrastructure may not be in place. Failure to include stakeholder's results in environmental destruction and pollution and foreign investors may leave the destination if the problems persist. Environmental protection efforts are becoming progressively important to the long-term development of tourism driven economies like The Bahamas where the natural sea resources, cultural-heritage, mass tourism investments, and social change initiatives stand to suffer if ignored.

Sociological

Sociological tourism is the study of interactions and organization of individuals, cohorts, and societies related to tourist concerns. Sociologists observe individuals and the relationships between tourists and their host communities, and Hanrahan and McLoughlin (2015) believed that tourism due its mobility and relationship building capacity is a study in socioculture. In fact, sociology is the base of study of five related sub-headings in this section: political, anthropological, economic, historical, and geographical research. King (2015) investigated the associations between tourism business networks that comprise a destination and the residents to measure the impact and established that neither could exist without the other. Despite this fact, due to the invasive nature of tourists and tourism, some communities seek protection from vacationers to maintain an expected quality of life (King, 2015). In summary, the social impact of tourism on societies requires more research to measure the host resentment that stems from tourist expectation of "service" versus host perceptions of "servitude, and the loss of culture in the course of economic gain.

Sociological tourism studies in both existing and new areas of research require attention. For example, Buzinde and Osagie (2011) reviewed social tourism from the minority perspective (slave) versus conventional Western literary works, to demonstrate the impact of history on the socialization of tourist destinations. More recently, Mekinc, Kociper, and Dobovšek (2013) studied the impact of organized crime on tourism destinations. For hoteliers, sociological issue awareness is essential to developing new tourism products as traveler needs evolve and social changes generate new global push and pull factors.

Psychological

Various push and pull psychological factors motivate tourists to visit global destinations. Push factors (e.g., rest, relaxation, special interests) influence tourists to travel and pull factors (e. g., religious tourism, sports tourism, historical tourism, "sun, sand, and sea") attract tourists to a particular destination (Pesonen, 2012, p. 71). Previous research highlights how the motivation to travel, drives tourists to destinations and identifies how individual motivation separates travel push and pull factors (Mehmetoglu, 2012; Pesonen, 2012; Yousefi & Marzuki, 2012). Therefore, tourism product development requires knowledge on the push and pulls factors that influence international travel and marketing strategies.

Individual personality, emotion, and social distance; influence push and pull factors to a foreign destination. Additionally, there is empirical evidence that links individual extraversion to international travel motivation as a push factor (Cheng-Yu &

B-Kun, 2013). Psychological factors can be differences in language, political systems, religion and culture, as well as, dissimilarities in education and economic development (Abooali & Mohamed, 2012, pp. 173-174). The psychological impact of a destination can be both a push and pull factor and earlier research identified four elements of culture affecting tourists' destination choices (a) the tourists' national culture, (b) the tourists' internalized culture,(c) the destination's culture, and (d) the distance between the tourists' home culture and the destination's culture (as cited by Tasci & Gartner, 2007). As a result, personality, emotion, and social factors influence international traveler intentions and influence the final destination service expectations.

Political

The process of governmental hospitality policy development directly affects tourism and a country's economy. In fact, national policy creation is so important, Azmy and Atef (2011) researched how the Egyptian government established the country's tourism industry, to show how public and private interests must collaborate on a national level. Additionally, Dumitru (2012) reported that political policies affect the development of the tourism sector; therefore, proposed a five-point strategic plan to governments that pursue tourism revenues in the urban environment. First, there should be central and local government support. Second, protect the natural, social, and urban resources. Third, the human resources policies should match the quality of tourist facilities planned. Fourth, expand the general infrastructure of the area to accommodate tourism sector needs. Fifth, expand the role and size of the private sector involvement significantly (Dumitru, 2012).

In short, governments and the private sector are responsible for the holistic development of tourism, human capital needs, natural resource protection, economic growth, and infrastructural issues related to the sustainability of a destination.

In island economies, the governmental ideology, political, and economic needs influence the development of tourism. Guibert and Taunay (2013) previously studied the Hainan Island (off the coast of China) surfing tourism industry and highlighted the correlation between sector growth and strong support from Beijing. In contrast, Sharpley and Ussi (2014) studied the role of government in the case of Zanzibar Island and concluded that too much government intervention could hinder the growth of the tourism industry due to factors like political power struggles, and special interest groups, which are included in the approval processes of national projects. Amoamo, M. (2013) investigated the impact of tourism policies on the small island state of Pitcairn and other island nations (e.g., The Bahamas), and relationships between sovereign government intervention and tourism growth. Amoamo (2013) cautioned governments to look beyond the economic benefits of tourism and consider the social, cultural, human capital, and environmental dynamics when making tourism policies, as each dynamic has short and long-term effects on a country's development. Furthermore, the economic climate created by sovereign states and local political ideologies, influence tourism policies that affect both internal and external stakeholders; therefore, suggests economic diversification as a national strategy to reduce dependence on tourism (Amoamo, 2013). In conclusion, tourism development, and national political policies have increased influence in island

economies, placing greater emphasis on governments to consider the industry's impact in the short and long term.

Overview of the Statistical Methods Used

This section includes a review of previous applications of descriptive statistics, *t* tests, one-way ANOVA, and cluster analysis to emphasize the varying usages of each statistical method. The statistical methods administered in research impact the interpretation and accuracy of the information analyzed. This study involves the use of descriptive statistics, *t* tests, one-way ANOVA, and k-means cluster analysis to examine Bahamian hotel frontline perceptions of the phenomenon of servant leadership. Descriptive statistics usage is common in all research methodologies and describes the characteristics of the sample population. About inferential statistical usage, Rojewski, In Heok, and Gemici (2012, p. 263) reported that approximately 25% of all published articles for the period 2007-2012 utilized *t* tests or one-way ANOVA inferential statistics for all or part of the study. Additionally, increasing cluster analysis applications allows researchers to make unique group population observations that highlight with-in group homogeneity and maximize between-group heterogeneity (Bahr, Bielby, & House, 2011). The next three sections include a review of the chosen inferential and cluster analysis statistics in varying organizational situations.

Descriptive Statistics

In research, descriptive statistics provides a graphic view of multiple variable data sets. Descriptive statistics are not inductive (e.g., inferential statistics); therefore, only

organizes and provides a summary of information for further analysis. Previous researchers displayed descriptive statistics for demographic information and charts related to sample populations (Petrevska, 2013; Pimdee & Paksanondha, 2013; Van der Merwe, Slabbert, & Saayman, 2011). For example, Petrevska (2013) reported descriptive statistics on GDP tourism performance, total employees in the Macedonia tourism industry, and balance of payment's data. Van der Merwe, Slabbert, and Saayman (2011) used descriptive statistics to present the sociodemographic profile of tourists at marine resorts that included gender, age, language, marital status, the area of residence, and education. Pimdee and Paksanondha (2013) presented the descriptive statistics for sociobiology in a Thailand tourism study (sex, age, educational level, family economic status, and tourism site). Descriptive statistics organizes information about a study group, so readers understand supporting citations and literary information.

In this research, I investigated the perceptions of eight servant leadership dimensions as viewed by Bahamian front-line hotel workers, and the sample population data includes seven sociodemographic variables. Also, I utilized descriptive statistics to achieve three objectives (a) present the sample population data, (b) display statistical results, and (c) provide outcome data from the data analysis processes to answer the study's research questions. Afterward, descriptive statistics illustrate the inferential statistics and cluster analysis results, and then the final output from each test. Descriptive statistics accentuates the statistical methods employed that affect the strength of the conclusions derived in research. Therefore, understanding the diverse applications of

descriptive statistics in a variety of studies adds power to the selected measurement criteria.

T Test Statistics

In both independent and dependent applications*, t* tests determine statistical differences when two sample group means require analysis. In this study, independent-mean *t*-tests determine the null hypotheses based on gender and union versus non-union worker perceptions. *T* tests are a parametric assessment that uses the *p*-value to explain the difference between two sample means, and establishes the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis. According to Kim (2015) and Field (2009), there are independent-mean *t*-tests and dependent- means *t*-tests. Independent- means *t*-tests use different members to measure the effect of a phenomenon on the dependent variable. Dependent-means *t*-tests use the same members (e.g., paired sample *t*-test; p. 344). Like all parametric test methods, the normality of the sample distribution drives the accuracy of the results, and there are six assumptions that must be satisfied before *t*-test applications (Field, 2009, p. 326; Rojewski, In Heok, & Gemici, 2012). Appendix O provides the *t* test assumption applications. Next is a demonstration of *t* test inferential statistic versatility in previous studies.

Researchers commonly utilize *t* tests to investigate gender-related research questions and hypothesis. In a previous study on the factors that impact city destination among your people in Serbia, after applying factor analysis on the data, *t* tests applications generated significant differences in choices between men and women

(Tomic & Bozic, 2015). For the group of persons surveyed under the age of 25, Tomic and Bozic (2015) established that communication and good service were more important to females than young males visiting the destination. Gender differences may be significant to Bahamian hotel frontline worker perceptions of leadership, and, therefore, important to this study, which asks specific questions about servant leadership and how the strategy can potentially motivate workers.

Union versus nonunion labor management disputes are common in the hotel industry and require statistical research. Abolade (2012) surveyed members from seven different organizations to study the impact of organizational efficiency with union versus nonunion workers in Nigeria. Survey data t test analysis highlighted that union status did not influence worker efficiency in the private and public sectors of Nigeria (Abolade, 2012). In this study, t test analysis determines union versus nonunion front-line hotel worker perceptions of servant leadership. The results could be beneficial to the highly unionized Bahamian tourism industry. Accordingly, hoteliers can identify and apply the servant leadership dimensions that motivate workers and by extension improves labor relations.

The use of t test analysis in combination with ANOVA can identify differences in sociodemographic group opinions. Ozdemir et al. (2012) surveyed tourists that visited Antalya (on the coast of Turkey) to study demographic differences related to overall destination satisfaction and loyalty. Antalya generates more than 80% of its tourism revenue from international tourists and is a sun, sand, and sea destination (similar to The

Bahamas). The *t* tests and ANOVA statistics applied revealed significant differences in gender perceptions of service and loyalty. Females scored higher than males on service and loyalty, and the ANOVA results highlighted significant differences in other demographic characteristics measured (Ozdemir et al., 2012). In conclusion, *t* tests in combination with ANOVA statistical analysis can identify tourist perception trends critical to making tourism-marketing decisions; therefore, the operational and loyalty service dimensions that motivate tourists to require identification and development.

One-Way ANOVA Statistics

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is an inferential statistical method that computes the *F*-ratio to test three or more sample means, therefore, tests the null hypothesis that all group means are equal (Chandrakantha, 2015; Field, 2009). In this research, one-way ANOVA analysis tests an eight-dimension (independent variable) SLS instrument developed by Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), for significance versus five dependent variables (generations, tenure, region, department, education). Hence, one-way ANOVA is a parametric test employed in varying business and social situations to answer related hypotheses.

Previously, researchers utilized one-way ANOVA tests to identify generational perceptions of career intentions. Shacklock and Brunetto (2012) researched nurse generational differences with one-way ANOVA tests to highlight generational variances between nurses and their intentions to remain nurses across seven variables. Shacklock and Brunetto identified significant generational differences that affected three of the

seven groups and proposed specific strategies to retain each industry cohort. Likewise, Kendig, Wells, O'Loughlin, and Heese (2013) studied Australian baby boomers (in late 2008) career intentions to retire and identified widespread concern over levels of preparation due to the global financial crisis. The result was many baby boomers decided to postpone retirement due to the financial situation (Kendig et al., 2013). Deal et al. (2013) previously utilized ANOVA to study managerial motivation in the workplace, and whether it was the generations (Wiedmer, 2015) or management level that guides organizational behaviors. The researchers concluded that managerial level guided career worker motivations more than the generational characteristics (Deal et al., 2013). In conclusion, one-way ANOVA applications can identify generational differences in the workforce, which require attention for organizational goal achievement and worker motivation.

One-way ANOVA can identify research participant perceptions based on socio-demographic differences. Qayyum (2013) applied a one-way ANOVA test to research teacher job satisfaction based three factors: a cadre, nature of the job, and work experience. Qayyum determined that universities should include teachers in policymaking, offering research funds to motivate teachers, and maintain open communications, which corroborates the findings of other researchers. Kabungaidze, Mahlatshana, and Ngirande (2013) extended the research on teacher job satisfaction, by using a one-way ANOVA test to examine the independent variables age, tenure and turnover intentions, in an attempt to find solutions to teacher shortages and retention in

rural and semirural schools in Eastern Cape. Kabungaidze et al. recommended that the demographic variables age and area of specialization be predictors of turnover, therefore, suggested that administrators open the lines of communication and develop strategies to address the specific needs of teachers. In varying organizational settings, one-way ANOVA analysis efficiently identifies demographic perceptions critical to answering research questions.

One-way ANOVA analysis identifies group significance from multi-dimensional survey data. Feng-I (2011) studied the moral orientation of Taiwanese school leaders by surveying 573 participants and applying a multidimensional instrument that included five measures: utilitarianism, justice, care, critique, and virtue. Feng-I used a one-way ANOVA test to assess the independent variables age, education, school level, years of teaching, and years of administration, versus the five measures. The study's results established that the most frequently utilized ethical dimension was justice influenced by Confucian ethics, amongst the significant results based on the sociodemographics (Feng-I, 2011). Based on the results, applying a one-way ANOVA to review multidimensional survey (e.g., the SLS survey) data issues can add deeper meaning to the research analysis process.

Cluster Analysis

This subsection provides a review of cluster analysis and its usage in tourism research or market segmentation projects. Cluster analysis is a statistical grouping process used to identify subgroups by similarities among various dimensions (Banjari,

Kenjerić, Šolić, & Mandić, 2015; Eisenbarth, 2012; Wong & Huang, 2014). Henry,

Tolan, and Gorman-Smith (2005) defined cluster analysis as a process of examining the

significance of groups of individual cases defined by several specific dimensions of

importance. Khalid (2011) reported that cluster analysis allows researchers to examine

the characteristics of people with similar beliefs or perceptions and can change future

leadership strategies. There are two types of cluster analysis: hierarchical and k-means

cluster analysis. In hierarchical cluster analysis, all items are unique clusters and

sequentially combined into one single cluster. With k-means cluster analysis, the amount

of groups (k) is known at the start, and the k-means algorithm begins to search through

the data for the participants that are most different from each other based on the stated

number of cluster groups (Khalid, 2011). In the hospitality industry, cluster analysis data

can group community and commercial data critical for tourism industry project decision-

making (Gupta & Chopra, 2014; Martínez-Péreza, García-Villaverde, & Elchea, 2015;

Ro, Lee, & Mattila, 2013; Vareiro, Remoaldo, Cadima, & António, 2013), or be

employed as a management decision-making tool (Tuma, Decker, & Scholz, 2011,

p.393). Cluster analysis is a diverse statistical process that marketers, management

decision-makers, and researchers utilize to group multidimensional data or gather

community views on pertinent topics.

　　　　Cluster analysis is a tool utilized to collect local community views on tourism

projects that affect member perceptions of the industry (Fredline, Deery, Jago, 2013;

Vareiro, Remoaldo, & Ribeiro, 2013). For example, Vareiro, Remoaldo, and Ribeiro

(2013) utilized cluster analysis to review host perceptions of tourism policy development in Guimaraes, Portugal. The site received increasing numbers of tourists, and Vareira et al. utilized a survey and later cluster analysis to collect information from residents. Vareira et al. (2013) applied a three-step process (like this study) to identify significant resident perceptions and cluster groups (utilizing SSPS). First, the researchers generated descriptive statistics. Second, Vareira et al. administered *t* tests and ANOVA to identify significant tourism perception differences based on six sociodemographics. Third, Vareira et al. performed a nonhierarchical cluster analysis using the k-means method to group resident perceptions only (based on 14 items in the instrument), and not the six sociodemographic variables. The three resident groups identified required different municipal strategies to manage industry expectations in the future (Vareira et al., 2013). In summary, by categorizing significant opinions of community residents, there can be greater buy-in to future tourism projects due to statistical testing and cluster analysis results.

Cluster analysis is a critical strategy in segmenting markets that help organizations to identify distinct buyer groups. Naidoo and Ramseook-Munhurrun (2013) utilized cluster analysis to research Indian consumer tastes for yogurt. First, Naidoo and Ramseook-Munhurrun applied a hierarchical cluster method (Ward's method; Argüelles, Benavides, & Fernández, 2014) to sample data to identify the number of groups for k-means cluster analysis (a three-cluster model emerged). Next, a k-means cluster analysis highlighted the best dimensional fit for the population based on the selected variables.

Targeting the Indian groups identified from the k-means cluster analysis on yogurt tastes

is possible due to the trends revealed in the research data. Therefore, to gain an improved

understanding of customer preferences in industry, cluster analysis allows researchers to

group specific customer perceptions so companies can efficiently develop products and

target niche markets.

Gap in the Literature

As shown in this literature review, there are gaps in servant leadership usage in

business and social environments. This study involves an investigation of the multi-

dimensional value of the concept of servant leadership in solving a front-line hotel staff

attitude problem towards tourists in the Bahamian tourism industry. Jones (2012) and

Dierendonck and Patterson (2015) suggested that applying servant leadership in the

workplace could motivate workers to improved levels of customer focus, reduce worker

turnover, lead to increased profits, and assist in overall team development based on the

behaviors of leaders. In this domain, exploring the related research gaps through the

servant leadership lens is important to hoteliers, the government, social change, and the

development of tourism studies based on empirical servant leadership research.

Furthermore, the description of the study methodology provides insight into the statistical

research techniques chosen to investigate front-line hotel worker perceptions. In

summary, the administering of the SLS survey in the Bahamian tourism industry will

enable the exploration of hotel front-line worker perceptions of eight servant leadership

dimensions across seven sociodemographics, which benefit all tourism stakeholders and answers the research questions.

Summary and Conclusions

This literature review includes four major sections. Section one connects the servant leadership concept to modern employee motivational needs and points out distinctions between servant leadership and two conventional leadership styles (autocratic and transactional), positioning servant leadership as an individual leadership style and complementary alternative to top-down management. Section two provides an historical overview of the Bahamian tourism industry. Section three includes an outline of seven tourism studies categories and demonstrates the need for future research, highlighting the value of collaboration amongst stakeholders, and the far-reaching benefits of tourism in all countries. Section four entails a review of the chosen descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, and cluster analysis methodologies, emphasizing the relevance and flexibility of each technique. Consequently, the research offers an opportunity to investigate the impact of servant leadership in the Bahamian tourism industry grounded on the theory's adaptability, multidimensions, and overall positive influence on employee motivation (Jones, 2012). Next, Chapter 3 clearly defines the research approach utilized for this study, the research design, survey participants, instrumentation, data analysis, and data collection procedures.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this comparative quantitative cross-sectional survey study was to investigate the strength of eight key servant leadership dimensions as viewed by Bahamian front-line hotel workers toward their management and current work environment. Such assessments make it possible to determine whether hotel workers have both an understanding of and affinity toward the servant leadership style.

To achieve this purpose, Chapter 3 includes the statistical methodology used to analyze the data from the eight-dimensional SLS survey, which provided the essential drivers guiding servant leadership agreement or field application by Bahamian hoteliers. Chapter 3 contains eight subsections. First, I describe the research design and rationale of the study. Second, I present the research methodology. Next, I offer a description of the recruitment, participation, and data collection processes. Fourth, I provide a review of the instrumentation and operationalization of constructs. Following that, a review of the data analysis plan is presented. Sixth, I outline threats to validity and the steps taken to address each issue. Seventh, I offer an outline of the study's ethical procedures. Finally, I present a summary of Chapter 3 and previews of the coming chapters.

Research Design and Rationale

This study used two key research questions (RQs). Analyzing the "to be collected" sample data of participating Bahamian front-line hotel workers addresses RQ1 and RQ2 and the related hypotheses by using a cross-sectional survey (SLS instrument). The statistical hypotheses and tests applied to RQ1 assess the average scores of eight SLS

dimensions measured across seven demographic characteristics of each participant. RQ2

identifies a way to cluster participants into distinct groups of "like participants" in an

attempt to characterize each cluster. Therefore, this study required two statistical

techniques to answer RQ1 and RQ2. RQ1 required comparison of means for significant

differences (using *t* tests and one-way ANOVA), and RQ2 involved a more complex

process to group like participants into clusters known as cluster analysis.

For the data analysis, all results generated included the eight SLS

dimensions (independent variables) and seven demographic groups (dependent

variables) listed below. The eight SLS dimensions were (a) empowerment, (b)

standing back, (c) accountability, (d) forgiveness, (e) courage, (f) authenticity, (g)

humility, and (h) stewardship. The seven demographic groups were (a) gender, (b)

union versus nonunion, (c) generations, (d) education, (e) department, (f) tenure,

and (g) region.

There were eight reasons for the choice of a cross-sectional survey design for this

research. First, it enabled the front-line hotel workers to provide their perceptions of

servant leadership in a natural work setting. Second, applying random selection methods

replaced control group experimental criteria (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008).

Third, study participant perceptions represented a moment in time captured by a single

survey process. Fourth, the research results could lead to future empirical research. Fifth,

although some research participants lacked exposure to servant leadership, a cross-

sectional survey allowed collection of data on participant attitudes. Sixth, Wadongo,

Odhuno, and Kambona (2010) reported that cross-sectional survey research is less expensive and appropriate when timing is an issue. Despite the wide range of worker categories and locations of hotels in the Bahamas, cost was not an issue for this research. Seventh, even though there was a short period for data collection, the variables in cross-sectional survey research did not change much (Wadongo et al., 2010). Finally, there was a paucity of research on the Bahamian hospitality industry pertaining to leader-follower relationships; therefore, a cross-sectional instrument (SLS) was adequately suited to collect front-line hotel worker perceptions. For the reasons previously stated, the cross-sectional survey was the most appropriate data collection measure for this study.

Methodology

Population

The setting was the Bahamian tourism industry, which had been volatile due to regional and global competition, as well as unstable international economies affecting tourism counts and expenditures. The population and frame consisted of all 2,330 front-line hotel workers in 14 randomly chosen hotels (Appendix L). In this study, *Bahamian front-line hotel worker* applied to nonsupervisory workers from the front office/call center, housekeeping and public areas, food and beverage (front servers), concierge, bell service, and security departments. Tourism is the primary industry in the Bahamas, and recent stopover exit surveys have highlighted negative staff attitudes as a top-five tourist concern, despite the importance of tourists to the national economy. Due to this alarming

concern, investigating servant leadership (dimensions) as a complementary management style is critical to helping Bahamian hoteliers to motivate front-line hotel workers.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

The systematic random sampling method generated the required sample from the previously described population. According to Acharya et al. (2013), the slight disadvantage of systematic random sampling is the choice of the first participant (the random seed s). This should ideally be a random number s and random step size m to ensure sequential selection. The sampling frames (i.e., lists of participants) were the payroll registers from participating Bahamian hotels (Appendix L).

Due to the combined usage of t tests, one-way ANOVA, and cluster analysis, this study required a single sample population size and set of participants that encompassed the minimum sample size needs of all three statistical techniques. First, calculations with the G-Power (Mayr, Erdfelder, Büchner, & Faul, 2007) package determined the member sample sizes to satisfy the t test and one-way ANOVA statistical tests. The input parameters for t tests were the number of tails (2), effect size d, error probability (.05), power (.95), and allocation ratio (1.5). The allocation ratio of 1.5 (N2/N1) was set based on the knowledge that there were approximately 1.5 females to 1 male in the gender and union versus nonunion demographic categories. The input parameters for one-way ANOVA were the F test (effect size), error probability (.05), power (.95), and the number of groups. Second, for cluster analysis, I used the Formann (1984) formula ($f * 2^k$ cases) as used by Dolnicar (2002), where k = the number of variables and f is a factor between 2

and 5. I used a conservative factor (f) of 2 ($2*2^k$) to analyze the eight composite variables in this study; therefore, the required sample size was given by $n = 3 \times 2^8 = 2 \times 256 = 512$ participants. Based on the minimum t test, one-way ANOVA, and cluster analysis sample size calculations, the required sample size was $n = $ MAX (220, 252, 280, 305, 512). Therefore, the research required the largest minimum sample of 512 participants to analyze all three techniques and draw conclusions (see Appendices H, I, J, and K for the systematic sampling frequency and response rate calculations).

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection (Primary Data)

Recruitment and access to the Bahamian front-line hotel worker sample population required a three-step process. First, I sent letters requesting participation approval (Appendix C) to the general managers or owners of 14 randomly chosen hotels from the Bahamas Ministry of Tourism listing of registered hotels (BMOTRS, 2012b). When required, I provided the participation request letters of cooperation by e-mail (Appendix D) to the IRB board to demonstrate acceptance by all participating hotels. Second, after securing an approval number for my Walden IRB proposal, I e-mailed instructions to the general managers or hotel owners to commence the survey (Appendix E). The instruction letter described the study's purpose, process for participant selection, and survey invitation process (Appendix F). Third, I called or forwarded emails to each hotel to commence the study process.

As noted in Appendix M, each general manager or hotel owner received an established number of surveys for distribution to front-line employees. Due to

the remote locations and lack of access to technology of some Bahamian front-line hotel workers, all surveys were manually completed. Each survey packet contained one consent form and one SLS instrument. The consent form included information on the purpose, risks, anonymity, and rights of the participants. After review of the consent form (implied consent), worker participation was voluntary, and employees completed the survey during normal working hours and could discontinue the process at any time without bias or reason. The first section of the SLS was the demographic data, which included information on (a) gender, (b) region, (c) department, (d) generations, (e) tenure, (f) education, (g) and union versus nonunion categories. The demographic information (variables) selected adequately depicted the Bahamian front-line hotel worker population in the study. After completing the survey, each participant sealed the SLS instrument in the envelope provided and placed the completed document in the drop box at each respective property. I then drove or traveled to retrieve the instruments from each participating hotel. The survey administration period was 4 weeks. For delayed survey completion, I sent e-mail reminders or called each general manager or hotel owner after 2 weeks.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The SLS questionnaire was the instrument chosen for this study (Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). As a primary data source, the SLS is a 30-question 5-point Likert instrument used with permission of the authors, Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011;

Appendix B). Dierendonck and Nuijten developed the SLS instrument in a three-step

process that reduced 99 servant leadership questions to 30 questions (Dierendonck &

Nuijten, 2011). The SLS data were collected and confirmed in two countries (the

Netherlands and the United Kingdom), with four studies, eight samples, and 1,571

participants with diverse backgrounds (Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011, p. 265).

Additionally, the SLS instrument measures individual or organizational-level servant

leadership dimensions (Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). In fact, the SLS instrument

incorporates other dimensions not covered by other servant leadership surveys and

measures both the *servant* and *leader* qualities of the phenomenon (Dierendonck &

Nuijten, 2011, p. 264). Traditionally, servant leadership studies have primarily focused

on servant attributes; however, the SLS study also included leader attributes (i.e.,

accountability and stewardship) that make the measure interesting. As a result, testing the

SLS instrument in the Bahamian tourism industry added traction to the instrument's

empirical and conceptual value.

Measures

The SLS 30-Likert-item measure breaks down servant leadership into eight

dimensions with varying numbers of questions for each dimension. The eight dimensions

are (a) standing back, (b) forgiveness, (c) courage, (d) humility, (e) empowerment, (f)

accountability, (g) accountability, (h) authenticity, and (i) stewardship. Of the 30

questions, empowerment has seven (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7), standing back has three (8, 9, 10),

accountability has three (11, 12, 13), forgiveness has three (14, 15, 16), courage has two

(17, 18), authenticity has four (19, 20, 21, 22), humility has five (23, 24, 25, 26, 27), and

stewardship has three (28, 29, 30). The SLS is a 30-question, five-response (1-5) Likert

scale instrument. The five degrees of participant responses are (a) *strongly agree* (rating

5), (b) *agree* (rating 4), (c) *undecided* (rating 3), (d) *disagree* (rating 2), and (e) *strongly*

disagree (rating 1). Table 10 shows a summary of the SLS instrument criteria and

includes the number of dimensions, dimension description, total items per SLS

dimension, Likert scale rating range, and question numbers by dimension.

Table 10

SLS Questionaire Dimensions, Number of Items, Likert Ratng Range, Question Numbers

Number	Dimensions	SLS items	Likert rating range	Question numbers
1	Empowerment	7	1 -5	1,2,3,4,5,6,7
2	Standing back	3	1 -5	8,9,10
3	Accountability	3	1 -5	11,12,13
4	Forgiveness	3	1 -5	14,15,16
5	Courage	2	1 -5	17,18
6	Authenticity	4	1 -5	19,20,21,22
7	Humility	5	1 -5	23,24,25,26,27
8	Stewardship	3	1 -5	28,29,30
	Total items	30		

Note. SLS questionnaire data and dimensions from "The Servant Leadership **S**urvey:

Development and Validation of a Multidimensional Measure, "by D. Dierendonck and I.

Nuijten, 2011, *Journal of Business & Psychology*, *26*(3), p. 256. Copyright 2010 by Van

Dierendonck and Nuijten. Used with permission.

Research instrument reliability is critical to the consistent measurement of results produced by scholars. The research-testing goal is to capture a true perception of participant experiences or opinions. Hence, random and systematic error affects the reliability of an instrument, establishing the need to test internal consistency. According to Gordoni, Schmidt, and Gordoni (2012), random error is due to variability in responses concerning a concept and affects correlation estimates. In turn, an instrument's systematic error is the difference between the expected value (overall conceptual trails) and the actual value estimates that affects means valuations (Gordoni et al., 2012). Therefore, reliability tests estimate an instrument's error rate. In this research, SSPS V23 software generated the reliability coefficients that measured the specific SLS Cronbach's alpha values. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency testing is a widely used statistical method, and an overall minimum rating of .7 and above is acceptable for instrument usage (Ferreira, Baltazar, Cavalheiro, Cabri, & Gonçalves, 2014; Furunes, Mykletun, Einarsen, & Glasø, 2015; Nguyen, Gambashidze, Ilyas, & Pascu, 2015).

Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) addressed the internal consistency of the SLS instrument across three studies and reported that the scale results were good for all dimensions. The Cronbach's alpha ratings reported by dimension were as follows: empowerment (.89), accountability (.81), standing back (.76), humility (.91), authenticity (.82), courage (.69), forgiveness (.72), and stewardship (.74). The ratings ranged from .69 to .91, with the average overall rating being .79 (ratings from 0-1). The closer the Cronbach's alpha ratings are to 1, the better the internal consistency. The above SLS

instrument ratings confirm an adequate internal consistency for the instrument, and the results from accurately applied inferential testing can be generalizable to a defined population. Finally, Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) used the split half method to assess the SLS instrument's reliability and found the ratings to be acceptable.

Data Analysis Plan

This section outlines the data analysis steps and statistical techniques used to answer the previously mentioned research questions and hypotheses. The resulting data shed light on the servant leadership perceptions for the collected sample of Bahamian front-line hotel workers. The data analysis plan included a review of the study's research questions, descriptive statistics and key research calculation process, steps for RQ1 inferential tests and assumption calculations, and the RQ2 cluster analysis steps. Additionally, SSPS V23 generated all statistical procedures that answered the study's two RQs. Formally stated, RQ1 and RQ2 were as follows:

RQ1: Are there significant differences in the sampled population in the eight servant leadership dimensions across the seven demographic characteristics?

RQ2: Can the sampled population be grouped into a minimum number of heterogeneous groups that characterizes each group by a homogeneous group of cohorts regarding their affinity score for servant leadership?

Performing the following three steps produces the descriptive statistics, reliability coefficient, and SLS composite variables needed to answer the study's research questions. See Appendix N for SSPS V23 Steps 1-3 below.

1. After collecting all surveys, enter the SLS instrument data into SSPS V23 and utilize the default setting Listwise deletion to remove any observations that may be missing data or outliers. After reverse-scoring items (forgiveness dimension only), generate descriptive statistics by Likert question, dimension, and demographics including cross-tabulations such as average dimension scores by gender. Then, report several statistics such as percentiles, means, and standard deviations.

2. In step 2, calculate and review the SLS instrument's reliability coefficients (Cronbach alphas) to ensure satisfactory internal consistency (Malhotra, Mukhopadhyay, Xiaoyan, & Dash, 2012). A minimum satisfaction level of .70 (Andriotis & Vaughn, 2003) is expected for factor (i.e., dimension) usage.

3. Finally, construct eight composite variables: one for the eight SLS dimensions. For each participant (row of SSPS data), the composite variable is a new column calculated as a summative index of the corresponding Likert scores. For example, the composite score for empowerment for a given participant is simply the sum of the Likert scores on questions (1-7) given by that participant. The overall score for each participant is the sum of all Likert scores provided on the survey.

To address RQ1, execute the following four steps to answer the related t test and one-way ANOVA hypotheses (see Appendix O for SSPS steps 1-2 and Appendix P for steps 3-4 below):

1. Check the t test assumptions by hypothesis before applying the inferential tests.

2. Execute the t tests to identify significance in the composite variable scores and the dependent variables. The results address the specific null and alternate hypotheses.

3. Check the one-way ANOVA assumptions for each hypothesis before applying the inferential test.

4. Execute one-way ANOVA statistical tests to identify significance in the composite variable scores and the dependent variables. The results address the specific null and alternate hypotheses.

To address RQ2, execute the following two steps to answer the related working hypotheses (see Appendix Q for SSPS steps 1-3 below):

1. Perform a Kaiser-Meyer-Olin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy before performing any cluster analysis techniques.

2. Next, run k-means clustering in SSPS V23 with $k = 2$, then 3 and so on. At each SSPS V23 run compute the within sum of squares (WSS) statistic that corresponds to that k. A plot of the pairs (k, WSS) on the X_Y axis forms the so-called scree plot. The plot can help determine the appropriate number of

clusters. The analyst looks for a bend (elbow joint) in the plot, similar to

factor analysis, to determine the best k or $k*$.

3. Next, generate a final and more detailed output run corresponding to $k*$ and

adopt the final solution that identifies the clusters characteristics that include

the eight summated SLS dimensions. The segmentation of the participant

clusters is critical because each group may require specific leadership

strategies to achieve improved guest engagement results.

Finally, write up the t test, one-way ANOVA, and k-means cluster analysis results

and generate descriptive statistics (display in Chapter 4).

Threats to Validity

External Validity

According to Myers, Gilson, and Allen (2014), external validity in research

findings compares the generalizations of a sample studied to a defined population or

other populations. In this study, the research findings relate to Bahamian front-line hotel

workers *only* as defined in Chapter 3, which includes the front office, housekeeping and

public areas, food and beverage (front servers), concierge, bell service, and security

departments. There is sufficiency in the sample population, and the systematic random

selection process drives the participant selection process. To ensure accurate participant

selection from the sampling frames, survey administrators apply the survey instructions

based on the sampling strategy provided (Appendix M) before distributing the SLS

instrument. Additionally, the demographic information provided in Chapter 3 accurately

portrays the Bahamian hotel front-line worker population. In the literature review, the flexibility and robust nature of the statistical techniques chosen demonstrate applicability to this research. Finally, careful research planning included the Ph.D. Committee and the Walden IRB in documenting the procedures for administering the SLS survey to participants in the recruitment, participation, and data collection section.

Internal Validity

Steps previously described (Chapter 3) include the proper application of the systematic sampling method, sample size calculations, data analysis process, and the actions taken to reduce research bias and anonymity. To address statistical validity concerns, as noted in the data analysis section of Chapter 3, robust *t* tests and one-way ANOVA inferential test results answer the research hypotheses from the SLS data. Importantly, Becker, Ray, Ringlet, and Volcker (2013) previously reported that statistical validity test (*t* test and one-way ANOVA) failures can lead to invalid research conclusions (e.g., Type 1 and Type 11 errors), hence, the need to select the correct inferential statistical tests. Importantly, the resulting data is critical to Bahamian hoteliers, government, and servant leadership studies in developing countries.

Construct Validity

Construct validity is the level of accuracy an instrument measures a phenomenon in the real or implied world. Bambale, Shamsudin, and Subramaniam (2013) defined construct validity as the degree in which a scale represents its domain, therefore, answers the questions of instrument adequacy and depicts the concept studied. The goal of

construct validity is to establish the network of constructs that support a phenomenon (Colliver, Conlee, & Verhulst, 2012). Colliver et al. (2012) commented that an instrument should measure causality beyond theory and add to the body of empirical data on a phenomenon. Furthermore, the primary consideration of an instrument is assessing each construct's relation to its measures (Teglasi, Allison, & Newman, 2012). Therefore, the SLS instrument assists in identify significant measures (construct validity) about current Bahamian hoteliers based on hotel front-line worker perceptions and demographics. Delineation of the data collection and analysis process requires careful planning and administration to produce accurate results, once the survey administrators execute the survey distribution process as outlined.

Ethical Procedures

Based on the authors previously acknowledged role in the external validity sub-section, the General Managers or owners of the participating hotels facilitate the study. I declare that I previously held the post of President of the Bahamas Hotel and Tourism Association and Sr. Vice President and General Manager of the Coral/Beach and Royal Towers at Atlantis Paradise Island. The Atlantis hotel and resort is the largest private employer in the Bahamas. The American Psychological Association (APA) (2010) explained that "An author's economic and commercial interests in products and services used or discussed in a paper may color such objectivity" (p. 17). In this research, the human resources department or hotel owners invited hotel front-line workers to complete the survey, which reduces the perceived bias by members of the sample population. In

this way, the researcher does not prejudice the SLS data collection and reporting process. As a result, the survey design and scientific facts direct the research results versus my personal feelings, views, position, or opinions.

The rules of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) Of Walden University guide this quantitative study as represented by the IRB approval number 04-11-17-0124591. All participant survey results are anonymous and follow the policies set forth by Walden University (Walden University Dissertation Guidebook, 2014). Walden University requires five years of storage for all SLS instruments (Walden University Dissertation Guidebook, 2014, p. 18). The letter of consent provides contact information for participants who request copies of the study. The researcher saved all compiled data on a password protected jump drive and has sole access to the storage area. Walden research protocols define the access restrictions to the stored SLS surveys. Only publically available documents are included in this project. Finally, The National Institute of Health Regulations (NIH) protects participant rights. See certificate in Appendix G.

Summary

In this cross-sectional survey study, the SLS 30-item Likert-type instrument designed by Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) is the source for data collection. A large systematic random sample ($n = 1,165$) of Bahamian front-line hotel workers participated in the survey. The SLS instrument is the independent variable (comprised of eight composite dimensions) measured by seven classifications (dependent variables) of front-line hotel workers (gender, union versus non-union, generations, education, department,

years of service, region). The front-line hotel worker perceptions of existing leadership

reflect the employee population in the Bahamian tourism industry only. The use of t tests

and one-way ANOVA statistical tests addressed the RQ1 null and alternate research

hypotheses. For RQ2 results, executing k-means cluster analysis generated the most

significant groups of front-line hotel worker perceptions based on the eight composite

servant leadership dimensions. Chapter 4 includes the research test results. Chapter 5

delineates the study's findings.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this comparative quantitative cross-sectional survey study was to investigate the strength of eight key servant leadership dimensions as viewed by Bahamian front-line hotel workers in relation to their management and current work environment. To achieve this purpose, there were two research questions answered with inferential statistics and cluster analysis.

RQ1: Are there significant differences in the sampled population in the eight servant leadership dimensions across the seven demographic characteristics?

Sample null hypothesis: H_o 1: mu1_Emp_Region = mu2_Emp_Region = mu3_Emp_Region: There is no significant mean difference in the average empowerment dimension composite measure based on the region of front-line hotel workers.

Sample alternate hypothesis: H_a 1: mu1_Emp_Region = mu2_Emp_Region = mu3_Emp_Region: There is a significant mean difference in the average empowerment dimension composite measure based on the region of front-line hotel workers.

RQ2: Can the sampled population be grouped into a minimum number of heterogeneous groups that characterizes each group by a homogeneous group of cohorts regarding their affinity score for servant leadership?

Sample working hypothesis: H_O: $k = k^*$ clusters adequately group the

observations.

Chapter 4 includes three subsections. First, I address the data collection process, recruitment process, and SLS response rates. Second, I present the study's results and related statistical analysis, as calculated using SSPS V23. Finally, I offer a summary of Chapter 4 and a transition to Chapter 5.

Data Collection

The research process commenced on May 3, 2017, when I began contacting the general managers or owners of the 14 hotels participating in the research. All hotel participants had previously provided letters of cooperation as part of the approved IRB application. During the period May 3-7, the 14 participating hotels received 1,165 hand-delivered surveys with lock-boxes for collection. Upon survey completion, there were 683 total SLS instruments collected, with 37 removed due to incompleteness. The balance (482) of the 1,165 SLS surveys distributed were either not returned or placed in the locked-boxes blank. The response rate was 55.5% ($N = 646$), which exceeded the minimum sample size for the t tests, one-way ANOVA, and cluster analysis procedures noted in Chapter 3 ($N = 512$). For all but two of the participating hotels, the period between the delivery of the surveys and collection of the lock-boxes was 4 weeks. One hotel took 5 weeks due to a leadership change, and one hotel did not participate, despite providing a letter of cooperation. In each case, I placed a follow-up call or calls after 2 weeks to clarify the date for survey collection. The survey collection process ended on

June 14, 2017. The data collection process mirrored the plan in Chapter 3. The SLS

Likert-scale range provided guided the survey scoring and review for accuracy.

The target front-line hotel worker population consisted of adults aged 18 years

and over who were employed full-time at the 14 hotels. The descriptive demographic

statistics (Table 11) included the following classifications: gender, union, generation,

education, tenure, region, and department. Previous studies (Dierendonck & Patterson,

2015; Doraiswamy, 2012; Rezaei, Salehi, Shafiei, & Sabet, 2012; Thumma & Beene,

2015; Wiedmer, 2015) demonstrated a relationship between servant leadership and the

demographics noted. Additionally, the descriptive demographic statistics generated from

this large sample ($N = 646$) are representative of the Bahamian industry front-line hotel

worker population documented in Chapter 2, thus not limiting the generalization of the

research analysis results.

<div align="center">

The Study Results

</div>

Descriptive Statistics

Table 11 describes the front-line hotel worker sample demographic frequencies.

In terms of gender, females ($n = 420$) represented 65% of the sample population, and

males ($n = 226$) represented 35%. Union employees ($n = 328$) represented 50.8% of the

sample population, and nonunion ($n = 318$) employees accounted for 49.2%. Of the three

generational groups surveyed, Generation Y ($n = 292$) participants were the largest, at

45.2% of the sample, followed by Generation X ($n = 262$) at 40.6%, and finally the Baby

Boomers ($n = 92$) at 14.2%. This generational mix was representative of the industry and

global trends. In terms of educational background, the largest group of front-line hotel workers surveyed was those with a high school education ($n = 463$; 71.7%), followed by persons with a postgraduate degree ($n = 93$; 14.4%), and finally workers with a graduate school degree ($n = 90$; 13.9%).

Data on tenure indicated that the largest group of participants had 0-5 years of work experience at their hotel (34.5%), followed by workers with 16+ years of experience (28.3%), 6-10 years of experience (25.1%), and 11-15 years of experience (12.1%). The tenure data reflected the increasing representation of Generation Y and X worker groups as the Baby Boomers continue to retire.

The largest regional demographic was Nassau/Paradise Island ($n = 413$), which accounted for 63.9% of the research participants, followed by the Out Islands ($n = 146$) with 22.6%, and then Grand Bahama Island ($n = 87$) with 13.5%. The regional participant results were proportional to the room inventory across the three regions (as noted in Chapter 1).

Data on the departments represented by the participants indicated that housekeeping/public areas accounted for the largest number of participants ($n = 273$; 42.3%), followed by food/beverage ($n = 188$; 29.1%), front office/call center ($n = 115$; 17.8%), bell service ($n = 37$; 5.7%), and finally concierge ($n = 33$; 5.1%).

Table 12 displays the 30-item instrument's individual question means and standard deviations.

Table 11

Sample Characteristics (N = 646)

Characteristics		*n*	(%)
Gender	Female	420	(65.0)
	Male	226	(35.0)
Union	Union	327	(50.6)
	Nonunion	319	(49.4)
Generation	Baby Boomers	92	(14.2)
	Generation X	262	(40.6)
	Generation Y	292	(45.2)
Education	High school	463	(71.7)
	Postgraduate	93	(14.4)
	Graduate school	90	(13.9)
Tenure	0-5 years	223	(34.5)
	6-10 years	162	(25.1)
	11-15 years	78	(12.1)
	16+ years	183	(28.3)
Department	Front office/call center	115	(17.8)
	Housekeeping/public areas	273	(42.3)
	Bell service	37	(5.7)
	Concierge	33	(5.1)
	Food & beverage	188	(29.1)
Region	Nassau Paradise Island	413	(63.9)
	Grand Bahama Island	87	(13.5)
	Out Islands	146	(22.6)

Table 12

SLS Questionare Standard Deviation & Means

Dimension	Question	Mean	Std. deviation	*N*
Empowerment	Q1. My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well	3.6517	1.1183	646
	Q2. My manager encourages me to use my talents	3.5232	1.18985	646
	Q3. My manager helps me to further develop myself	3.3715	1.19225	646
	Q4. My manager encourages his/her staff to come up with new ideas	3.2647	1.21982	646
	Q5. My manager gives me the authority to take decisions which makes work easier	3.2848	1.23112	646
	Q6. My manager enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do	3.3235	1.17162	646
	Q7. My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills	3.1099	1.17414	646
Standing back	Q8. My manager keeps himself/herself in the background and gives credit to others	3.0217	1.15181	646
	Q9. My manager is not chasing recognition for the things he/she does for others	3.2446	1.11741	646
	Q10. My manager appears to enjoy his/her colleagues' success more than his/her own	3.113	1.11977	646
Accountability	Q11. My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out	4.0387	0.93181	646
	Q12. I am held accountable for my performance by my manager	3.9628	0.9923	646
	Q13. My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job	3.8947	1.02439	646
Forgiveness	Q14. My manager keeps criticizing people for the mistakes they have made in their work	3.1594	1.20244	646
	Q15. My manager maintains a hard attitude towards people who have offended him/her at work	3.0139	1.25807	646
	Q16. My manager finds it difficult to forget things that went wrong in the past	2.9985	1.25321	646
Courage	Q17. My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager	3.1517	1.06176	646
	Q18. My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view	3.339	1.08031	646
Authenticity	Q19. My manager is open about his/her limitations and weaknesses	2.9768	1.08738	646

(*table continues*)

Dimension	Question	Mean	Std. deviation	*N*

	Q20. My manager is often touched by the things he/she happenings around her/him	3.291	1.04421	646
	Q21. My manager is prepared to express his/her feelings even if this might have undesirable consequences	3.305	1.10315	646
	Q22. My manager shows his/her true feelings to his/her staff	3.4195	1.15424	646
Humility	Q23. My manager learns from criticism	3.082	1.12384	646
	Q24. My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior	3.1889	1.07325	646
	Q25. My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/superior	3.1176	1.12274	646
	Q26. My manager learns from different views and opinions of others	3.2755	1.08188	646
	Q27. If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it	3.1703	1.11318	646
Stewardship	Q28. My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole	3.4814	1.09493	646
	Q29. My manager has a long-term vision	3.3746	1.13256	646
	Q30. My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work	3.4675	1.09744	646

Measurement

In this quantitative research study, use of the SLS, descriptive statistics, and inferential statistics helped to identify the significance of specific servant leadership dimensions on specific demographic characteristics. Previously, Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) addressed the internal consistency of the SLS instrument across three studies and reported that the reliability scale results were good for all dimensions. The ratings ranged from .69 to .91, with the average overall rating being .79 (ratings from 0-1). The closer that Cronbach's alpha ratings are to 1, the better the internal consistency. In this study,

the Cronbach's alpha rating generated by SSPS V23 was .936 (see Table 13), which

indicates excellent consistency (Cabri & Gonçalves, 2014).

Table 13

SLS Cronbach's Alpha Results

Cronbach's alpha	No. of Items
0.936	30

Research Questions

The following section presents the RQ1 and RQ2 test results.

Research Question 1

RQ1:   Are there significant differences in the sampled population in the eight servant

leadership dimensions across the seven demographic characteristics?

Assumption testing. To execute RQ1, *t* test and one-way ANOVA

assumptions must first be satisfied. In this research, all assumption steps were

satisfied, including testing for outliers and normal data distribution (see

Appendices O and P). In this sample population ($N = 646$), there were no missing

data or outliers based on the outlier-labeling rule, using a factor of 2.3 as

designated by Hoaglin, Iglewicz, and Tukey (1986). Due to a large number of

hypotheses tests for *t* tests and one-way ANOVA in this research, 8 (independent

variables) x 7 (dependent variables) = 56, I reported the statistically significant *t* test and one-way ANOVA test results only. As noted in Chapter 3, I generated eight SLS composite variables for hypothesis testing. Next, in SSPS V23, I tested each composite variable for normality, which included analyzing the skewness and kurtosis scores and viewing the Q-Q plots, box plots, and histograms for normal data distribution. The test results showed that seven of the eight composite variables created had negative skewness (Appendix U), therefore violating the assumption criteria for parametric testing. Ideally, skewness and kurtosis scores should be less than [2] and [9] (i.e., skewness < [2] and kurtosis < [9]; Schmider, Ziegler, Danay, Beyer, & Buhner, 2010). This led to a transformation of the seven negatively skewed composite variables with the Square-root and Log10 functions, which resulted in approximately normally distributed composite variables (with supporting Q-Q plots, box plots, and histograms; see samples in Figure U1; Figure U2; and Figure U3) with acceptable skewness and kurtosis scores (see Table 14). I reference the skewness and kurtosis normality distribution scores in Table 14 (Schmider et al., 2010) in the upcoming *t* test and one-way ANOVA hypotheses test scenarios.

Table 14

Transformed SLS Composite Variable Skewness and Kurtosis Scores

Dimension	Skewness	Std. error of skewness	Kurtosis	Std. error of kurtosis
Empowerment	0.118	0.096	-0.549	0.192
Standing back	-0.153	0.096	-0.299	0.192

Accountability	-0.082	0.096	-0.354	0.192
Forgiveness	-0.118	0.096	-0.835	0.192
Courage	0.033	0.096	-0.250	0.192
Authenticity	-0.178	0.096	0.208	0.192
Humility	0.061	0.096	-0.265	0.192
Stewardship	0.212	0.096	-0.216	0.192

T **tests (two demographic groups)**. The independent sample *t*-tests (equal variances assumed) executed with the gender demographic variable and eight SLS dimension composite variables produced no significant relationships. The *t* tests run with the union versus nonunion demographic variable generated significant results across seven of the eight SLS dimension composite variables (no significant relationship for the accountability composite variable). The following section presents the results.

Empowerment.

Hypothesis: H_o 1: mu1_Empowerment_Union = mu2_Empowerment_Union: There is no significant mean difference in the average empowerment dimension composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H_a 1: mu1_Empowerment_Union = mu2_Empowerment_ Union: There is a significant mean difference in the average empowerment dimension composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (n), means, and standard deviations are noted:

Union ($n = 327$, $M = 1.65$, $SD = .283$) versus Nonunion ($n = 319$, $M = 1.54$, $SD = .271$). As displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the empowerment composite variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the independent sample t-test and viewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variances with the Levene's F-test, $F(644) = 2.73$, $p = .099$. The independent sample t-test revealed a significant association, $t(644) = 5.01$, $p = .000$. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association between union versus nonunion workers on the empowerment SLS dimension. The Cohen's d calculation is .394, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines.

Standing back.

Hypothesis: H$_o$ 1: mu1_Standing back_Union = mu2_Standing back_Union: There is no significant mean difference in the average standing back dimension composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H$_a$ 1: mu1_Standing back_Union = mu2_Standing back_ Union: There is a significant mean difference in the average standing back dimension composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted: Union (*n* = 327, *M* = 1.65, *SD* = .270) versus Nonunion (*n* = 319, *M* = 1.54, *SD* = .284). As displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the standing back composite variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the independent sample *t*-test and viewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variances with the Levene's *F*-test, $F(644) = 1.06$, $p = .304$. The independent sample *t*-test was associated with a significant effect, $t(644) = 2.80$, $p = .005$. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association between union versus nonunion workers on the standing back SLS dimension. The Cohen's *d* calculation is .220, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines.

Courage.

Hypothesis: H_o 1: mu1_Courage_Union = mu2_Courage_Union: There is no significant mean difference in the average courage dimension composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H_a 1: mu1_Courage_Union = mu2_Courage_ Union: There is a significant mean difference in the average courage dimension composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted: Union (*n* = 327, *M* = 1.67, *SD* = .296) versus Nonunion (*n* = 319, *M* = 1.60, *SD* = .277). As displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the courage composite

variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the

independent sample *t*-test and view the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity

of variances with the Levene's *F*-test, $F(644) = 2.40$, $p = .121$. The independent sample *t*-

test revealed a significant effect association, $t(644) = 3.19$, $p = .001$. As a result, I

rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association between union

versus nonunion workers on the courage SLS dimension. The Cohen's *d* calculation is

.220, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines.

Authenticity.

Hypothesis: H_o 1: mu1_Authenticity_Union = mu2_Authenticity_Union: There is

no significant mean difference in the average authenticity dimension

composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H_a 1: mu1_Authenticity_Union = mu2_Authenticityr_

Union: There is a significant mean difference in the average authenticity

dimension composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line

workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted: Union (*n*

= 327, *M* = 1.66, *SD* = .252) versus Nonunion (*n* = 319, *M* = 1.62, *SD* = .245). As

displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the authenticity composite

variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the

independent sample *t*-test and viewed the results to satisfy the assumption of

homogeneity of variances with the Levene's *F*-test, $F(644) = .077$, $p = .781$. The

independent sample *t*-test revealed a significant association, $t(644) = 2.11$, $p = .036$. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association between union versus nonunion workers on the authenticity SLS dimension. The Cohen's *d* calculation is .166, which is a very small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines.

Humility.

Hypothesis: H_o 1: mu1_Humility_Union = mu2_Humility_Union: There is no significant mean difference in the average humility dimension composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H_a 1: mu1_Humility_Union = mu2_Humility_ Union: There is a significant mean difference in the average humility composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted: Union (*n* = 327, *M* = 1.68, *SD* = .281) versus Nonunion (*n* = 319, *M* = 1.64, *SD* = .268). As displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the humility composite variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the independent sample *t*-test and viewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variances with the Levene's *F*-test, $F(644) = 1.066$, $p = .302$. The independent sample *t*-test revealed a significant association, $t(644) = 2.11$, $p = .036$. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association

between union versus nonunion workers on the humility SLS dimension. The Cohen's *d*

calculation is .166, which is a very small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines.

> ***Stewardship.***

>> Hypothesis: H_o 1: mu1_Stewardship_Union = mu2_Stewardship_Union: There

>> is no significant mean difference in the average stewardship dimension

>> composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

>> Alternate hypothesis: H_a 1: mu1_ Stewardship _Union = mu2_ Stewardship _

>> Union: There is a significant mean difference in the stewardship

>> composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted: Union (*n*

= 327, *M* = .40, *SD* = .175) versus Nonunion (*n* = 319, *M* = .35, *SD* = .166). As displayed

in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the stewardship composite variable

satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the

independent sample *t*-test and viewed the results to satisfy the assumption of

homogeneity of variances with the Levene's *F*-test, $F(644) = 2.055$, $p = .152$. The

independent sample *t*-test revealed a significant association, $t(644) = 3.32$, $p = .001$. As a

result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association

between union versus nonunion workers on the stewardship SLS dimension. The Cohen's

d calculation is -.261, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines.

> ***Forgiveness.***

Hypothesis: H$_o$ 1: mu1_Forgiveness_Union = mu2_ Forgiveness _Union: There

is no significant mean difference in the average forgiveness dimension

composite measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H$_a$ 1: mu1_ Forgiveness _Union = mu2_ Forgiveness _

Union: There is a significant mean difference in the forgiveness composite

measure based on the union status of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted: Union (*n*

= 327, *M* = 2.91, *SD* = 1.08) versus Nonunion (*n* = 319, *M* = 3.21, *SD* = 1.02). As

displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the forgiveness composite

variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the

independent sample *t*-test and viewed the results to satisfy the assumption of

homogeneity of variances with the Levene's *F*-test, $F(644) = .986$, $p = .321$. The

independent sample *t*-test revealed a significant association, $t(644) = -3.65$, $p = .000$. As a

result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association

between union versus nonunion workers on the forgiveness SLS dimension. The Cohen's

d calculation is .29, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines.

One-way ANOVA (five demographic groups). The one-way ANOVA

between groups tests ran with eight SLS composite variables and five

demographic variables produced no significant relationships the generation,

education, and tenure demographic variables; therefore, I accepted the null

hypotheses. The department demographic variable tests produced significant results across the accountability and forgiveness SLS composite variables. The region demographic variable generated significant results across seven of the eight SLS composite variables (except for empowerment). For post hoc tests, Field (2009, p. 388) suggested the Hochberg's GT2 test when sample group sizes are different. The following section presents the one-way ANOVA research results.

Department demographic variable.

Accountability.

Null hypothesis: H_o 1: mu1_Accountability_Department =

mu2_Accountability_Department = mu3_Accountability_Department = mu4_Accountability_Department = mu5_Accountability_Department: There is no significant mean difference in the average accountability dimension composite measure based on the department of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H_a 1: mu1_ Accountability _ Department = mu2_ Accountability _ Department = mu3_ Accountability _ Department = mu4_Accountability_Department = mu5_Accountability_Department: There is a significant mean difference in the average accountability dimension composite measure based on the department of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (n), means, and standard deviations are noted: Front Office/Call Center Departments ($n = 115$, $M = 1.31$, $SD = .23$), Housekeeping/Public Areas Departments ($n = 273$, $M = 1.36$, $SD = .23$), Bell Service ($n = 37$, $M = 1.41$, $SD = .26$), Concierge ($n = 33$, $M = 1.39$, $SD = .24$), and Food & Beverage ($n = 188$, $M = 1.41$, $SD = .22$). As displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the accountability composite variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the one-way ANOVA between groups test and reviewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variances with the Levene's F-test, $F(4, 641) = 3.95$, $p = .257$. The one-way ANOVA between groups test revealed a significant association, $F(4, 641) = 3.95$, $p = .004$, $\eta^2 = .024$. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association in the variance between accountability and the departments of 2.4% (partial eta squared), a very small effect size. Next, a Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test revealed a significant relationship in accountability between workers in the Food & Beverage Department ($M = 1.41$, $SD = .22$, $p = .002$) when compared to the Front Office/Call Center Departments ($M = 1.31$, $SD = .23$). The Cohen's d between Front Office/Call Center Departments and Food & Beverage Department was calculated at -.454, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines. There were no statistically significant relationships between the other departments.

Forgiveness.

Null hypothesis: H$_o$ 1: mu1_Forgiveness_Department =

mu2_Forgiveness_Department = mu3_Forgiveness_Department =

mu4_Forgiveness_Department = mu5_Forgiveness_Department: There is

no significant mean difference in the average forgiveness composite

measure based on the department of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H$_a$ 1: mu1_ Forgiveness _ Department = mu2_ Forgiveness

_ Department = mu3_ Forgiveness _ Department=

mu4_Forgiveness_Department = mu5_Forgiveness_Department: There is

a significant mean difference in the average forgiveness dimension

composite measure based on the department of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted: Front

Office/Call Center Departments (*n* = 115, *M* = 1.31, *SD* = .23), Housekeeping/Public

Areas Departments (*n* = 273, *M* = 1.36, *SD* =.23) Bell Service (*n* = 37, *M* = 1.41, *SD* =

.26), Concierge (*n* = 33, *M* = 1.39, *SD* = .24), and Food & Beverage Departments (*n* =

188, *M* = 1.41, *SD* = .22). As displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for

the forgiveness composite variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider

et al., 2010). First, I ran the one-way ANOVA between groups test and reviewed the

results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variances with the Levene's *F*-test,

$F(4, 641) = 4.75$, *p* = .341. The one-way ANOVA between groups test revealed a

significant association, $F(4, 641) = .75$, *p* = .001, η^2 = .029. As a result, I rejected the null

hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association in the variance between

forgiveness and the departments of 2.9% (partial eta squared), a very small effect size.

Next, a Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test revealed a significant relationship in forgiveness

between workers in the Housekeeping/Public Areas Departments (M = 1.36, SD =.23, p =

.002) when compared to the Front Office/Call Center Departments (M = 1.31, SD = .23)

The Cohen's d calculation between Front Office/Call Center Departments and

Housekeeping/Public Areas Departments is .424, which is a small effect size based on

Cohen's (1992) guidelines. There were no statistically significant relationships between

the other departments.

Region demographic variable.

Standing back.

Null hypothesis: H$_o$ 1: mu1_ Standing back _Region = mu2_ Standing back

Region = mu3 Standing back _Region: There is no significant mean

difference in the average standing back dimension composite measure

based on the region of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H$_a$ 1: mu1_ Standing back _Region = mu2_ Standing back

Region = mu3 Standing back _Region: There is a significant mean

difference in the average standing back dimension composite measure

based on the region of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted:

Nassau/Paradise Island (*n* = 413, *M* = 1.69, *SD* = .27), Grand Bahama Island (*n* = 87, *M* =

1.74, *SD* = .28) and the Out Islands (*n* = 146, *M* = 1.57, *SD* = .28). As displayed in Table

14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the standing back composite variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the one-way ANOVA between groups test and reviewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variances with the Levene's F-test, $F(2, 643) = 13.01$, $p = .639$. The one-way ANOVA between groups test revealed a significant association, $F(2, 643) = .97$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .039$. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association in the variance between standing back and the region of 3.9% (partial eta squared), a very small effect size. Next, A Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test revealed a significant relationship in standing back between workers in the Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.69$, $SD = .27$, $p = .000$) and Grand Bahama Island ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .28$, $p = .000$) workers, when compared to the Out Islands ($M = 1.57$, $SD = .28$). The Cohen's d calculation between Grand Bahama Island ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .28$) and the Out Islands ($M = 1.57$, $SD = .28$) is .58, which is a medium effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines. The Cohen's d calculation between Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.69$, $SD = .27$, $p = .000$) and the Out Islands ($M = 1.57$, $SD = .28$) is .43, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines. There was no statistically significant relationship between the Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.69$, $SD = .27$, $p = .449$) and Grand Bahama Island ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .28$, $p = .449$) regional workers.

Courage.

Null hypothesis: H_o 1: mu1_ Courage _Region = mu2_ Courage _Region = mu3_ Courage _Region: There is no significant mean difference in the average

courage dimension composite measure based on the region of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H$_a$ 1: mu1_ Courage _Region = mu2_ Courage _Region = mu3_ Courage _Region: There is a significant mean difference in the average courage dimension composite measure based on the region of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted: Nassau/Paradise Island (*n* = 413, *M* = 1.66, *SD* = .29), Grand Bahama Island (*n* = 87, *M* = 1.64, *SD* = .30) and the Out Islands (*n* = 146, *M* = 1.58, *SD* = .28). As displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the courage composite variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the one-way ANOVA between groups test and reviewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variances with the Levene's *F*-test, *F*(2, 643) = 4.63, *p* = .359. The one-way ANOVA between groups test revealed a significant association, *F*(2, 643) = 4.63, *p* = .010, η^2 = .015. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association in the variance between courage and the region of 1.5% (partial eta squared), a very small effect size. Next, a Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test revealed a significant relationship in courage between workers in the Nassau/Paradise Island (*M* = 1.66, *SD* = .29, *p* = .007) when compared to the Out Islands (*M* = 1.58, *SD* = .27). The Cohen's *d* calculation between Nassau/Paradise Island (*M* = 1.66, *SD* = .29, *p* = .007) and the Out Islands (*M* = 1.57, *SD* = .28) is .26, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992)

guidelines. There was no statistically significant relationship between Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.69$, $SD = .27$, $p = .921$) when compared to Grand Bahama Island ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .28$) regional workers. There was no statistically significant relationship between the Out Islands ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .26$, $p = .26$) when compared to Grand Bahama Island ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .28$) regional workers.

Authenticity.

Null hypothesis: H_o 1: mu1_ Authenticity _Region = mu2_ Authenticity _Region = mu3_ Authenticity _Region: There is no significant mean difference in the average authenticity dimension composite measure based on the region of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H_a 1: mu1_ Authenticity _Region = mu2_ Authenticity _Region = mu3_ Authenticity _Region: There is a significant mean difference in the average authenticity dimension composite measure based on the region of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (n), means, and standard deviations are noted: Nassau/Paradise Island ($n = 413$, $M = 1.65$, $SD = .24$), Grand Bahama Island ($n = 87$, $M = 1.68$, $SD = .27$) and the Out Islands ($n = 146$, $M = 1.58$, $SD = .25$). As displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the authenticity composite variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the one-way ANOVA between groups test and reviewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variances with the Levene's F-test, $F(2, 643) = 5.49$, $p = .690$. The one-way ANOVA

between groups test revealed a significant association, $F(2, 643) = 5.49$, $p = .004$, $\eta^2 = .017$. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association in the variance between authenticity and the region of 1.7% (partial eta squared), a very small effect size. Next, a Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test revealed a significant relationship in authenticity between workers in the Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.66$, $SD = .29$, $p = .007$), and Grand Bahama Island region ($M = 1.68$, $SD = .27$, $p = .015$) when compared to the Out Islands ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .27$). The Cohen's d calculation between Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.66$, $SD = .29$, $p = .007$, $p = .010$) and the Out Islands ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .25$) is .29, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines. The Cohen's d calculation between Grand Bahama Island ($M = 1.68$, $SD = .27$, $p = .015$) and the Out Islands ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .25$) is .37, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines. There was no statistically significant relationship between Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.69$, $SD = .27$, $p = .921$) when compared to Grand Bahama Island ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .28$) regional workers.

Humility.

Null hypothesis: H$_o$ 1: mu1_ Humility _Region = mu2_ Humility _Region = mu3_ Humility _Region: There is no significant mean difference in the average humility dimension composite measure based on the region of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H$_a$ 1: mu1_ Humility _Region = mu2_ Humility _Region = mu3_ Humility _Region: There is a significant mean difference in the

average humility dimension composite measure based on the region of

hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (n), means, and standard deviations are noted:

Nassau/Paradise Island ($n = 413$, $M = 1.67$, $SD = .27$), Grand Bahama Island ($n = 87$, $M =$

1.74, $SD = .30$) and the Out Islands ($n = 146$, $M = 1.58$, $SD = .24$). As displayed in Table

14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the humility composite variable satisfied the

normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the one-way ANOVA

between groups test and reviewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of

variances with the Levene's F-test, $F(2, 643) = 10.48$, $p = .191$. The one-way ANOVA

between groups test revealed a significant association, $F(2, 643) = 10.48$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 =$

.032. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant

association in the variance between humility and the region of 3.2 % (partial eta squared),

a very small effect size. Next, a Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test revealed a significant

relationship in authenticity between workers in the Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.67$, SD

$= .27$, $p = .001$), and Grand Bahama Island region ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .30$, $p = .000$) when

compared to the Out Islands ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .24$). The Cohen's d calculation between

Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.67$, $SD = .27$, $p = .007$, $p = .001$) and the Out Islands ($M =$

1.58, $SD = .24$) is .36, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines.

The Cohen's d calculation between Grand Bahama Island ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .30$, $p = .000$)

and the Out Islands ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .24$) is .58, which is a medium effect size based on

Cohen's (1992) guidelines.   There was no statistically significant relationship between

Nassau/Paradise Island ($M = 1.67$, $SD = .27$, $p = .133$) when compared to Grand Bahama

Island ($M = 1.74$, $SD = .30$) regional workers.

> *Stewardship*.

> > Null hypothesis: H$_o$ 1: mu1_ Stewardship _Region = mu2_ Stewardship _Region

> > = mu3_ Stewardship _Region: There is no significant mean difference in

> > the average stewardship dimension composite measure based on the

> > region of hotel front-line workers.

> > Alternate hypothesis: H$_a$ 1: mu1_ Stewardship _Region = mu2_ Stewardship

> > _Region = mu3_ Stewardship _Region: There is a significant mean

> > difference in the average stewardship dimension composite measure based

> > on the region of hotel front-line workers.

> The related samples sizes (n), means, and standard deviations are noted:

Nassau/Paradise Island ($n = 413$, $M = .39$, $SD = .17$), Grand Bahama Island ($n = 87$, $M =$

.40, $SD = .19$) and the Out Islands ($n = 146$, $M = .32$, $SD = .59$). As displayed in Table

14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the stewardship composite variable satisfied the

normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the one-way ANOVA

between groups test and reviewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of

variances with the Levene's F-test, $F(2, 643) = 9.91$, $p = .06$. The one-way ANOVA

between groups test revealed a significant association, $F(2, 643) = 9.91$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 =$

.030. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant

association in the variance between stewardship and the region of 3.0 % (partial eta

squared), a very small effect size. Next, a Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test revealed a

significant relationship in stewardship between workers in the Nassau/Paradise Island (*M*

= .39, *SD* = .17, *p* = .000), and Grand Bahama Island region (*M* = .40, *SD* = .19, *p* = .001)

when compared to the Out Islands (*M* = .32, *SD* = .59). The Cohen's *d* calculation

between Nassau/Paradise Island (*M* = .39, *SD* = .17, *p* = .007, *p* = .001) and the Out

Islands (*M* = .32, *SD* = .59) is .41, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992)

guidelines. The Cohen's *d* calculation between Grand Bahama Island (*M* = .40, *SD* = .19,

p = .000) and the Out Islands (*M* = .32, *SD* = .59) is .46, which is a small effect size based

on Cohen's (1992) guidelines. There was no statistically significant relationship between

Nassau/Paradise Island (*M* = .39, *SD* = .17, *p* = .874) when compared to Grand Bahama

Island (*M* = .40, *SD* = .19) regional workers.

Accountability.

Null hypothesis: H$_o$ 1: mu1_ Accountability _Region = mu2_ Accountability

Region = mu3 Accountability _Region: There is no significant mean

difference in the average accountability dimension composite measure

based on the region of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H$_a$ 1: mu1_ Accountability _Region = mu2_ Accountability

Region = mu3 Accountability _Region: There is a significant mean

difference in the average accountability dimension composite measure

based on the region of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (*n*), means, and standard deviations are noted:

Nassau/Paradise Island (*n* = 413, *M* = 1.39, *SD* = .23), Grand Bahama Island (*n* = 87, *M* = 1.33, *SD* = .22) and the Out Islands (*n* = 146, *M* = 1.33, *SD* = .24). As displayed in Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the accountability composite variable satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the one-way ANOVA between groups test and reviewed the results to satisfy the assumption of homogeneity of variances with the Levene's *F*-test, *F*(2, 643) = 5.07, *p* = .235. The one-way ANOVA between groups test revealed a significant association, *F*(2, 643) = 5.07, *p* = .007, η^2 = .016. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically significant association in the variance between accountability and the region of 1.6 % (partial eta squared), a very small effect size. Next, a Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test revealed a significant relationship in stewardship between workers in Nassau/Paradise Island (*M* = 1.39, *SD* = .23, *p* = .02) when compared to the Out Islands (*M* = .32, *SD* = .59). The Cohen's *d* calculation between Nassau/Paradise Island (*M* = .39, *SD* = .17, *p* = .007, *p* = .001) and the Out Islands (*M* = .32, *SD* = .59) is .08, which is a very small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines. There was no statistically significant relationship between Nassau/Paradise Island (*M* = 1.39, *SD* = .23, *p* = .080) when compared to Grand Bahama Island (*M* = 1.33, *SD* = .22) regional workers. There was no statistically significant relationship between The Out Islands (*M* = 1.33, *SD* = .24, *p* = 1.000) when compared to Grand Bahama Island (*M* = 1.33, *SD* = .22) regional workers.

Forgiveness.

Null hypothesis: H$_o$ 1: mu1_ Forgiveness _Region = mu2_ Forgiveness _Region

= mu3_ Forgiveness _Region: There is no significant mean difference in

the average forgiveness dimension composite measure based on the region

of hotel front-line workers.

Alternate hypothesis: H$_a$ 1: mu1_ Forgiveness _Region = mu2_ Forgiveness

Region = mu3 Forgiveness _Region: There is a significant mean

difference in the average forgiveness dimension composite measure based

on the region of hotel front-line workers.

The related samples sizes (n), means, and standard deviations are noted:

Nassau/Paradise Island ($n = 413$, $M = 3.00$, $SD = 1.05$), Grand Bahama Island ($n = 87$, M

$= 2.97$, $SD = 1.18$) and the Out Islands ($n = 146$, $M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.00$). As displayed in

Table 14, the skewness and kurtosis scores for the forgiveness composite variable

satisfied the normality assumption criteria (Schmider et al., 2010). First, I ran the one-

way ANOVA between groups test and reviewed the results to satisfy the assumption of

homogeneity of variances with the Levene's F-test, $F(2, 643) = 5.07$, $p = .235$. The one-

way ANOVA between groups test revealed a significant association, $F(2, 643) = 5.07$, p

$= .007$, $\eta^2 = .016$. As a result, I rejected the null hypothesis. There is a statistically

significant association in the variance between forgiveness and the region of 1.6 %

(partial eta squared), a very small effect size. Next, a Hochberg's GT2 post hoc test

revealed a significant relationship in forgiveness workers in Nassau/Paradise Island ($M =$

3.00, $SD = 1.05$, $p = .032$) when compared to the Out Islands ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.00$). The

Cohen's *d* calculation between Nassau/Paradise Island (*M* = 3.00, *SD* = 1.05, *p* = .032) and the Out Islands (*M* = .32, *SD* = .59) is -.26, which is a small effect size based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines. There was no statistically significant relationship between Nassau/Paradise Island (*M* = 3.00, *SD* = 1.05, *p* = .080) when compared to Grand Bahama Island (*M* = 2.97, *SD* = 1.18) regional workers. There was no statistically significant relationship between The Out Islands (*M* = 3.26, *SD* = 1.00, *p* = .126) when compared to Grand Bahama Island (*M* = 2.97, *SD* = 1.18) regional workers.

Research Question 2

RQ2: Can the sampled population be grouped into a minimum number of heterogeneous groups that characterizes each group by a homogeneous group of cohorts regarding their affinity score for servant leadership?

Cluster analysis evaluation. In this section, applying the k-means cluster analysis (non-hierarchal) statistical process answers RQ2. Answering RQ2 requires four steps to execute the k-means cluster analysis process. First, I tested the eight composite variables for Kaiser-Meyer-Olin (KMO) sampling adequacy before performing k-means cluster analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olin (KMO) sampling adequacy statistic is .879. According to Navidpour et al. (2016), the KMO score is measured from 0 to 1 therefore; the higher the score is to one the more reliable the cluster analysis results. This is an excellent KMO score making the sample data adequate for cluster analysis. Second, I ran a scree plot (to view the elbow joint) and selected the appropriate number of clusters (See Appendix V

for scree plot). The scree plot generated shows a distinct *elbow bend* at the second

component, therefore; I performed k-means cluster analysis with two (2) groups

for interpretation (see Table 15). Then, I validated the cluster component number

chosen by reviewing the cluster iteration table that stabilized at zero after eight

iterations (See Appendix W). For further validation, I performed k-means cluster

analysis with 3,4, and 5 cohorts and checked all practical considerations; and

confirmed the two (2) selection for analysis. Third, I performed the k-means

cluster analysis and interpreted the final cluster dimension average mean results.

Fourth, I described the new cluster groups based on the final cluster centers.

Table 15

K-Means SLS Composite Variable and Demographics Final Cluster Centers

	Cluster	
Dimension	1	2
Empowerment	3.84	2.51
Standing back	3.54	2.39
Forgiveness	3.34	2.55
Courage	3.60	2.62
Authenticity	3.55	2.71
Humility	3.67	2.28
Stewardship	3.97	2.52
Accountability	4.24	3.76

SSPS V23 generated a two-cluster model (CL2) for analysis. The CL2

membership includes the significant SLS composite variables that contribute greatest to

the separation of the groups. In addition, Table 16 shows that all eight SLS composite

variables are significant and highlights the *F* values contributions to the overall cluster

model. The four strongest SLS dimension contributors are humility ($F = 715.48$),

stewardship ($F = 621.62$), empowerment ($F = 613.14$), and standing back ($F = 357.09$).

The four weakest SLS composite variable contributors are authenticity ($F = 213.72$),

courage ($F = 213.49$), accountability ($F = 96.84$), forgiveness ($F = 94.25$).

Table 16

K-Means SSPS Cluster Variable ANOVA Table

	Cluster		Error			
Dimensions	Mean square	*df*	Mean square	*df*	*F*	Sig.
Empowerment	265.690	1	.433	644	613.138	.000
Standing back	196.505	1	.550	644	357.088	.000
Forgiveness	92.883	1	.986	644	94.249	.000
Courage	145.611	1	.682	644	213.485	.000
Authenticity	106.038	1	.496	644	213.721	.000
Humility	290.033	1	.405	644	715.479	.000
Stewardship	312.344	1	.502	644	621.622	.000
Accountability	34.044	1	.352	644	96.838	.000

Cluster Group 1. Cluster Group 1 represents (*n*) 412 participants or 63.8% of the

total population ($N = 646$), and seven of the eight SLS dimension average mean scores

range from 3.34 (forgiveness) to 3.97 (stewardship). One average mean score

(accountability = M (4.24) is above 4.0 (see Table 12), therefore; I named Cluster 1 the

"Undecideds" due to the average mean score being between the 3 (*undecided*) and 4

(*agree*) rating on the SLS instrument. The cluster demographic membership and

percentages (based on $N = 646$) across all composite variables are comprised of:

- Union membership (*n* = 187, 28.9%) and non-union members (*n* = 225,

  34.8%)

- Gender-males (n = 140, 21.7%) and females (n =272, 42.1%)

- Region-Nassau/Paradise Island (n = 249, 38.5%), Grand Bahama Island (n = 48, 7.4%), Out Islands (n =115, 17.8%)

- Tenure- 0-5 years (n = 159, 24.0%), 6-10 years (n = 99, 15.3%), 11-15 years (n = 38, 5.9%), 16+ years (n = 116, 18.0 %)

- Department-Front Office/Call Center (n = 79, 12.2%), Housekeeping/ Public Areas (n = 166, 25.7%), Bell Services (n = 22, 3.4%), Concierge (n = 23, 3.6%) Food & Beverage (n = 122, 18.9%)

- Education- High School (n = 299, 46.3%), Post Graduate (n = 55, 8.5%), Graduate School (n = 58, 9.0%)

- Generations- Baby Boomers (n = 59, 9.1%), Generation Y (n = 161, 24.9%), Generations X (n = 192, 29.7%)

Cluster Group 2. Cluster Group 2 represents (n) 234 participants or 36.2% of the total population (N = 646), and seven of the eight SLS dimension average mean scores range from 2.39 (standing back) to 2.71 (authenticity). One average mean score (accountability = M (3.76) is above 3.0 (see Table 12), therefore; I named Cluster 2 the "Dissenters" due to the average mean score being between the 2 (*disagree*) and 3 (*undecided*) rating on the SLS instrument. The cluster demographic membership and percentages (based on N = 646) across all composite variables are comprised of:

- Union membership (n = 140, 21.3%) and non-union members (n = 94, 14.6%)

- Gender-males (n = 86, 13.3%) and females (n =148, 22.9%)

- Region-Nassau/Paradise Island ($n = 164$, 25.4%), Grand Bahama Island ($n = 39$, 7.4%), Out Islands ($n = 31$, 17.8%)

- Tenure- 0-5 years ($n = 64$, 9.9%), 6-10 years ($n = 63$, 9.8%), 11-15 years ($n = 40$, 6.2%), 16+ years ($n = 67$, 10.4%)

- Department-Front Office/Call Center ($n = 36$, 5.6 %), Housekeeping/ Public Areas ($n = 107$, 16.6%), Bell Services ($n = 15$, 2.3%), Concierge ($n = 10$, .02%) Food & Beverage ($n = 66$, 10.2%)

- Education- High School ($n = 164$, 25.2%), Post Graduate ($n = 38$, 5.9%), Graduate School ($n = 32$, 5.0%)

- Generations- Baby Boomers ($n = 33$, 5.1%), Generation Y ($n = 100$, 15.5%), Generations X ($n = 101$, 15.6%)

Summary

Chapter 4 contains three sections. First, the data collection and recruitment processes, followed by the research sample population ($N = 646$) SLS descriptive statistics and analysis. Before executing the *t* test and one-way ANOVA tests, I reviewed the steps taken to satisfy the specific test assumptions. Second, I performed RQ1 *t* test and one-way ANOVA hypotheses tests and reported the significant between group results. Most noteworthy, the *union versus nonunion* and *region* demographic groups produced significant results across seven of the eight SLS composite variable dimensions, with small to medium effect sizes based on Cohen's (1992) guidelines. Next, a review of RQ2 k-means cluster analysis results produced a two-cluster model based on the eight

SLS composite variables. From the ANOVA table generated, I highlighted the SLS

dimension F-values that influenced the cluster model, and are critical to developing a

new industry leadership model. Finally, I named the two cluster groups "The

Undecideds" ($n = 412$) and "The Dissenters" ($n = 234$) based on the SLS composite

variable overall average mean scores. Next, I described their demographic cluster

membership. In Chapter 5, I present an evaluation and interpretation of the Chapter 4

research results.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this comparative quantitative cross-sectional survey study was to investigate the strength of eight fundamental servant leadership dimensions as viewed by Bahamian front-line hotel workers toward their management and current work environment. In this research, I focused on answering two research questions using inferential statistics and a *k*-means cluster analysis. This research was significant because there are no known studies on servant leadership in the Bahamian tourism industry. Tourism is the primary industry in the Bahamas (Makhlouf, 2012; Sullivan-Sealey & Cushion, 2009), and recent declining arrivals of stopover visitors have been linked to negative staff attitudes that tourists have encountered. As a result, there is a need to develop a leadership model to improve front-line hotel worker motivation to enhance visitor experiences, and by extension reduce the number of negative staff attitude comments reported. I completed this research to provide information to hoteliers, government, and tourism support industries on the potential positive effects of applying servant leadership (Chen, Zhu, & Zhou, 2015; Jaramillo, Bande, & Varela, 2015; Jones, 2012; Liu, Hu, & Cheng, 2015; Schwepker & Schultz, 2015).

The findings of this research revealed significant associations between the eight SLS dimensions and seven of the union versus nonunion and region demographics. There were also predictive associations discovered with two SLS dimensions and the departmental demographic. The k-means analysis two-cluster model provides the support

to apply servant leadership in the industry. Additionally, the *k*-means analysis SLS dimension *F* values provide foundational information to develop a new industry leadership profile. In Chapter 5, I provide an interpretation of the findings by research question. I then present the limitations of the study and recommendations for future researchers. Next, I offer implications of the research outcomes for theory, practice, and social change. Finally, I conclude the study.

<div align="center">**Interpretation of the Findings**</div>

This study involved the analysis of two research questions. RQ1 served to investigate the relationship between eight composite SLS dimensions and seven demographic variables with *t* tests and one-way ANOVA statistics. RQ2 served to cluster the eight SLS composite dimensions and front-line hotel worker demographics to analyze the data for patterns. The next section includes the research findings based on previously published literature, organized by research question.

Research Question 1

Independent sample *t* tests were used to generate research results for two front-line hotel worker groups: gender and union versus nonunion. The research findings showed that based on gender, no front-line hotel worker group produced significant *t*-test results versus the eight SLS composite variables; therefore, I accepted the null hypotheses. The union versus nonunion front-line worker group generated significant results across *seven* of the eight SLS composite variables; therefore, I rejected the null hypotheses (with the exception of accountability). The significant *p* values ($p < .05$) and

Cohen's *d* effect sizes by dimension were as follows: empowerment ($p = .000$, $d = .394$),

standing back ($p = .005$, $d = .220$), courage ($p = .001$, $d = .220$), authenticity ($p = .036$, d

$= .166$), humility ($p = .036$, $d = .166$), stewardship ($p = .001$, $d = -.26$), and forgiveness (p

$= .000$, $d = .29$). Next, I interpreted the *t* test demographic results.

Demographic analysis: *t* test.

Gender. The nonsignificant statistical results generated (noted above) for the

gender demographic group across the eight SLS variables were not consistent with the

previous research noted in Chapter 2. Rodriguez-Rubio and Kiser (2013) previously

determined that women in Mexico and the United States showed a greater affinity for

servant leadership principles than men. As a result, that research result led to an interest

in servant leadership by other volunteer organizations (Rodriguez-Rubio & Kiser, 2013).

In this research, the front-line hotel worker population was significantly skewed toward

females ($n = 420$; 65%) versus males ($n = 226$; 35%). However, the nonsignificant test

results suggest general servant leadership acceptance by both genders.

Union. The significant statistical results (noted above) generated for the union

demographic group across seven of the eight SLS variables were consistent with the

previous studies noted in Chapter 2. Creating trusting work environments establishes the

framework for effective union and management negotiations, and previous research

supports the notion that servant leadership implementation can lead to this end. A

previous study by Chatbury, Beaty, and Kriek (2011) revealed statistically significant

associations between servant leadership and interpersonal trust using Spearman's *r*-value

of 0.664 ($p < 0.05$). In this research, there were seven of eight SLS dimensions with

significant p values ($p = < .05$) and Cohen's d scores ranging from -.260 to .394 (small

effect sizes based on Cohen's [1992] guidelines) but revealing a general interest in the

overall concept. Additionally, Rezaei, Salehi, Shafiei, and Sabet (2012) confirmed the

connection between organizational trust and the servant leadership style in a for-profit

business environment. In summary, the significant SLS dimension test results could be

the start of improved union-versus-management relations if implemented in the

workplace.

RQ1. I used one-way ANOVA tests to generate research results for five front-line

hotel worker groups: generation, tenure, education, department, and region. The research

findings showed that based on the generation, education, and tenure front-line hotel

worker groups, there were no significant test results versus the eight SLS composite

variables; therefore, I accepted the null hypotheses. The department and region front-line

worker groups generated significant test results (with post hoc testing) across two and

seven of the eight SLS composite variables, respectively; therefore, I rejected the null

hypothesis on each test. For the department demographic group, the significant p values

and Cohen's d effect sizes were as follows: accountability ($p = .002$, $d = -.454$) and

forgiveness ($p = .002$, $d = .424$). For the region demographic group, the significant p

values and Cohen's d effect sizes by dimension were the following: empowerment ($p =$

.000, $d = .394$), standing back ($p = .005$, $d = .220$), courage ($p = .001$, $d = .220$),

authenticity ($p = .036$, $d = .166$), humility ($p = .036$, $d = .166$), stewardship ($p = .001$, $d =$

-.26), and forgiveness ($p = .000$, $d = .29$). Next, I interpreted the one-way ANOVA demographic results.

Demographic analysis: One-way ANOVA.

Generation. The nonsignificant generation demographic test results across the eight SLS dimensions were not consistent with previous research data in Chapter 2. In fact, Balda (2011) concluded that leading the Millennial generation requires a collaborative culture that harnesses technology, and servant leadership provides a platform for this new paradigm. The Millennials want leaders who serve them, promote two-way conversations, and act as role models (Balda, 2011)—like servant leaders. In this research population, the Generation X (45.2%) and Millennial (40.6%) groups represented 85.8% of the total population (with Baby Boomers at 14.2%), hence the need to create a new leadership focus. To increase the knowledge on leadership motivators for the Millennial and Generation X generations, more research is needed because worker generational differences create an array of perspectives, approaches, and experiences. To design work environments and encourage employee participation, more research on worker generational expectations amasses mission-critical data for servant leadership acceptance and application.

Tenure. There was no significant association between tenure and the eight SLS dimensions in this research. In other words, the tenure demographic test results were not consistent with previous research data in Chapter 2. Shaw and Newton (2014) previously studied the impact of servant leadership and job satisfaction and purported positive

connections between the concept and teacher retention. Likewise, Williams and Hatch

(2012) previously investigated and reported how servant leadership directly correlates to

increased employee tenure by reducing fear in work environments by building employee

trust, encouraging two-way communications, and demonstrating confidence in their

employee abilities. According to the researchers, performing these competencies led to

employees extending their tenures based on the servant leader's behaviors (Williams &

Hatch, 2012). To remain profitable in the increasingly competitive Bahamian tourism

industry, and amidst the consistent movement between jobs by Generation X and

Millennial workers, these findings could influence hoteliers to request more research on

the servant leadership dimensions that impact front-line hotel worker tenure decisions.

Education. The servant leadership concept can improve educational mentorship

in the workplace based on the notion that employee needs come first. There were no

significant results across the eight SLS composite variables based on the education

demographic. Hoteliers constantly seek to improve communications and collaboration

among departments, and servant leadership inspires community thinking and knowledge

sharing among worker groups (Burch, Swails, & Mills, 2015; Lynch & Friedman, 2013).

In fact, the diversity of modern work environments directs managers to account for

sociodemographics (i.e., worker education) as part of the human capital strategy. With

71.7% of the front-line hotel population having a high school education, hoteliers remain

challenged to find leadership styles that support and motivate an increasingly young

front-line hotel workforce. Thus, there is a need for a two-way communicative leadership style like servant leadership that focuses on the unique needs of its followers.

Region. The multidimensional usage of servant leadership makes the concept adaptable to varying business needs. The region demographic group generated significant statistical results across seven of the eight SLS composite variables. There is limited research on servant leadership and regional studies; however, the concept is gaining traction in for-profit regional businesses (Chan, McBey, & Scott-Ladd, 2011; Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011). Hence, more research is needed on the impact of the servant leadership concept across the Nassau/Paradise Island, Grand Bahama Island, and Out Islands zones. Developing the concept based on the specific needs of the three zones challenges hoteliers to develop a new leadership model that motivates front-line hotel employees to achieve improved visitor satisfaction scores by creating a greater sense of *place* for Bahamian tourists. A sense of place is critical to tourists choosing one destination for vacation versus another (Mehmetoglu, 2012; Pesonen, 2012; Yousefi & Marzuki, 2012). Therefore, applying the servant leadership concept across the three hotel zones and accounting for regional differences could lead to improved vacation experiences.

Department. Implementing servant leadership in the workplace can lead to improved work relationships between departments that face the customer daily. There were significant results found between the department and two SLS composite dimensions (accountability and forgiveness). Based on the significant accountability and

forgiveness dimension test results, the Cohen's *d* between the front office/call center and

food and beverage departments was calculated at -.454 and .424, respectively, small

effect sizes created by Cohen's (1992) guidelines. The front office/call center (staffed

primarily with Millennials) and food and beverage departments are crucial guest

interaction areas that communicate daily with all guests and business units in the hotel.

Therefore, developing servant leaders who motivate workers cross-functionally is

essential to efficient business operations locally and internationally. In past research,

Balda (2011) concluded that leading the Millennial generation requires a collaborative

culture that harnesses technology to achieve company and departmental goals. In this

research, the Millennials represent 45.4% of the total departmental population (and

growing); thus, specifically addressing their leadership needs is mission critical to

motivating front-line hotel employees. In summary, the cross-functional communication

needs of dependent hotel departments make the servant leadership concept intriguing due

to its adaptability across diverse worker groups.

Research Question 2

On average, the cluster data trends in the CL2 model suggest that the Undecideds

(Cluster 1, *n* = 412, 63.8%) and the Dissenters (Cluster 2, *n* = 234, 36.2%) are cautiously

optimistic or disagree on applying the servant leadership concept in the workplace. This

research confirmed the potential of k-means cluster analysis in identifying tourism trends

for decision making from a data base (Gupta & Chopra, 2014; Martínez-Péreza, García-

Villaverde, & Elchea, 2015; Ro, Lee, & Mattila, 2013; Vareiro, Remoaldo, Cadima, &

António, 2013) and using a multistep approach to segment information (Vareira et al., 2013).

From the two-cluster k-means model generated, the Undecideds represent 63.8% of the total research population, and each of the seven demographic groups has its largest population in the cohort, especially the Out Islands, with 79% of its total participants represented. In the Undecideds cluster, the average accountability composite variable mean of 4.24 is the only composite segment above a 4.0 (agree) instrument rating. The top four composite variable means are stewardship (3.97), empowerment (3.84), humility (3.67), and courage (3.60); with stewardship, empowerment, and humility contributing heavily to the overall cluster formation (see Table 16). In summary, the Undecideds have a strong cluster membership and direct the notion of cautious acceptance of servant leadership in the Bahamian tourism industry.

The Dissenters represent 36.2% of the total research population, and like the Undecideds, the accountability composite variable has the highest average mean score (3.76). The top four average composite variable means are authenticity (2.71), courage (2.62), forgiveness (2.55), and stewardship (2.52), with stewardship being the only heavily weighted composite variable that influences the overall model (see Table 16). Interestingly, the accountability, stewardship, and courage composite variables rank in the top four dimensions of the Undecideds and the Dissenters. This could mean that without direct applications of servant leadership in the workplace, front-line hotel workers are open to leaders who hold themselves and others accountable, demonstrate an

affinity for developing community and looking out for the broader group (stewardship), and possess the courage to stand up for others even when doing so is not popular.

The k-means cluster analysis ANOVA results can help hoteliers to make leadership decisions based on applying the SLS dimensions in the leadership hiring and development process. Vareira et al. (2013) previously used cluster analysis results to form tourism policies, and this study's results can assist hoteliers in building a new tourism leadership model based on the k-means analysis of the SLS dimensions. The ANOVA table (Table 16) shows the F values for the SLS dimensions, which represent the strength of the dimension contribution to the overall cluster model. Although all eight SLS dimensions were significant in the CL2 model, the four strongest SLS dimension contributors were humility ($F = 715.48$), stewardship ($F = 621.62$), empowerment ($F = 613.13$), and standing back ($F = 357.09$). Udani and Lorenzo-Molo (2013) pointed out the intelligence and importance of *humble* leaders. Thumma and Beene (2015) studied judges as *stewards* in the community and highlighted how their leadership role was to focus on "the whole" and not on individual gain. Finely (2012) previously concluded that empowered employees would be more motivated if not exposed to work environments driven by leaders who manage through fear. In fact, Ţebeian (2012) studied the value of teamwork and worker motivation in the workplace and asked the question of "who serves who" in the leader-follower relationship (p. 315), to challenge leaders to stand back and allow workers to lead the way. The four weakest SLS composite variable contributors

were authenticity ($F = 213.72$), courage ($F = 213.48$), accountability ($F = 96.84$), and

forgiveness ($F = 94.24$), with each significant across the cluster model.

Limitations of the Study

The first limitation of the study is the nature of cross-sectional research, which

measures perceptions a moment in time. In contrast, a longitudinal study allows

researchers to view the behaviors of participants over time. Longitudinal research could

be the next step in implementing servant leadership dimension in the Bahamian hotel

industry to influence hoteliers towards the concept. Second, a number of the persons in

the large sample ($N = 646$) may not have experienced or had limited knowledge of the

servant leadership concept before the research. Limited servant leadership exposure could

influence survey responses based on experiences from other leadership styles. For

example, participants may only have exposure to the autocratic and transactional

leadership styles practiced prominently in the Bahamas, thus; I relied on the introspection

of the hotel employees. Third, the ethnicity of the participants is highly homogenous,

hence; the results are only generalizable to the specific front-line hotel worker sample.

Furthermore, there are other front-line hotel staff service departments, back of house

support staff, and management staff levels outside the research limits. The survey

execution process followed the Chapter 3 methodology, and each participant read the

study's informed consent form before completing the instrument.

Recommendations

Future researchers should further enhance servant leadership theory with additional studies on the Bahamian front-line hotel worker population. The first opportunity for future research is in evaluating the longitudinal effectiveness of Servant leadership in the Bahamian tourism based on the industry union and regional context. This study exposed with inferential tests that significant *union versus nonunion* and *regional* differences exist towards the servant leadership phenomenon. Central to the union and management work relationship is the need for trust. Several servant leadership researchers previously highlighted improved levels of communications and worker trust when applying the concept in dynamic work environments with union versus management issues (Chatbury, Beaty, & Kriek, 2011; Rezaei, Salehi, Shafiei, & Sabet, 2012). Therefore, hoteliers should consider more research on servant leadership competencies to complement existing concepts, and create trusting work environments between unions and management across the archipelago.

This research highlighted significant regional differences between front-line hotel worker opinions of servant leadership in the Out Islands versus Nassau/ Paradise Island and Grand Bahama Island. In fact, regional perception differences were significant for front-line hotel workers across seven of the eight SLS dimensions (except empowerment). Interestingly, the one-way ANOVA post hoc tests (Hochberg's GT2) revealed that significant differences exist in servant leadership perceptions when comparing Nassau/Paradise Island and Grand Bahama Island to The Out Islands across

four dimensions: standing back, authenticity, humility, and stewardship. Additionally, there were significant differences in servant leadership perceptions between Nassau/Paradise Island and when compared to the Out Islands across three dimensions; courage, accountability, and forgiveness. Intriguingly, there were *no* significant test results when comparing Nassau/Paradise Island to Grand Bahama Island across the seven significant SLS dimensions; therefore, it can be deduced that the Nassau/Paradise Island and Grand Bahama Island participant perceptions are homogeneous in relation to servant leadership. I recommend more research on servant leadership across the three regions to tailor leadership strategies based employee needs, and by extension maximize employee motivation.

More servant leadership research at the departmental level can help to identify the dimensions that have the greatest impact on front-line hotel worker motivation. There were significant relationships found at the departmental level between Food/Beverage and Front Office/Call Centers based on the accountability and forgiveness composite variables. The Food/Beverage and Front Office/Call Center work relationship touches practically all hotel guests, therefore requires staff that is engaging and knowledgeable (Mehmetoglu, 2012; Pesonen, 2012; Yousefi & Marzuki, 2012), empowered, motivated, and ready to create memorable guest experiences. In fact, Dierendonck and Patterson (2015) concluded that a key servant leadership inspired employee motivator is forgiveness, which leads to greater accountability and employee motivation. Additionally, I recommend replicating this study in hotel support departments (e.g.

kitchens, administrative areas, human resources, stewarding), and at all management levels that support front-line hotel workers.

I suggest utilizing longitudinal studies to apply the servant leadership dimensions identified by F value from the k-means cluster analysis, to measure worker motivation improvements. First, this research could include adding the SLS dimensions to company core values to measure employee engagement improvements. Second, the research can incorporate tracking the SLS dimension implementation in operations versus customer service metric report results (e.g., guest surveys, social media comments). Third, researching the impact of servant leadership dimensions on management training programs, employee training, and community relations efforts benefit all stakeholders.

The uniqueness of the demographic tourism segments makes researching the cluster analysis dimension F values intriguing in for developing existing and future hoteliers. Future research could include implementing the SLS dimensions in the work place to complement the existing styles, and increase the movement towards collaborative leadership versus the legacy top-down approach. I recommend servant leadership research on applying the dimensions identified (by F value) to employment screening and operational evaluation instruments to bolster the creation of a new tourism leadership profile. Additionally, I suggest more research on the impact of servant leadership dimensions on company mentoring programs to create more management buy-in and capitalize on the influence of mentor to mentee relationships.

Finally, there were no noted significant associations based on the *generation*, *education*, *gender* and *tenure* demographics. Based on the study limitations, these findings suggest caution and relative ease in applying servant leadership to these demographic groups. Furthermore, the k-means cluster analysis highlighted 63.8% of the front-line hotel workers as undecided about the concept. Therefore, I recommend specific research on the impact of servant leadership on the generations, education, gender, and tenure demographic groups. First, the Millennial worker need for networking, collaboration, social connections, technology savvy, and expected free flowing communications (Balda & Mora, 2011), requires more study to ensure that Millennial leaders sustain the tourism product in the future. Second, research knowledge centered round employee *education* levels requires immediate attention with the large disparity of industry workers with a high school education (71.7%) versus post-graduate (14.4%) and graduate (13.9%) employees. Third, the hotelier growing concern for a leadership concept flexible enough to address workplace *gender* diversity requires research on the dynamics of an increasing female worker population (65%) and a decreasing male (35%) employee workforce annually. Females are flourishing in more management and non-traditional roles like security guards, engineers, and transportation roles; and tend to have longer tenures than their male counterparts. Previously, Rodriguez-Rubio and Kiser (2013) completed studies that show significant differences in how women and men respond to the servant leadership style. Hence, I recommend more servant leadership research based on *gender* and *tenure* as women continue to prosper in all tourism roles.

Implications

Theory

      This research result has implications for the theoretical framework, practice, and social change. For the theoretical framework, the significant findings in this study in the union versus nonunion and region demographic groups (across seven of eight groups) support previous research results, and suggest that applying servant leadership in Bahamian tourism industry could lead to improved management-employee communications and more motivated hotel front-line workers (Chatbury, Beaty, & Kriek, 2011; Doraiswamy, 2012). Additionally, the k-means cluster analysis *F*-values generated from the servant leadership dimensions provide a ranking of leadership characteristics crucial to Bahamian front-line hotel worker motivation. The standing back, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, stewardship, accountability, empowerment, and humility dimensions generated significant test results against the SLS composite variables, with small to medium effect sizes. These research results support previous servant leadership theoretical studies. Udani and Lorenzo-Molo (2013) reported on the importance of leaders who *stand back* and give their employees recognition and credit. Dierendonck and Patterson (2015) proposed that servant leaders show more *forgiveness* towards their followers to encourage a greater sense of community, and Thumma and Beene (2015) highlighted the *courage* servant leaders need to fight for employee rights. Additionally, Doraiswamy (2012) proposed *authenticity* as one of six dimensions important for servant leadership ("be who you is"), Gupta (2013) and Thumma and Beene (2015) previously

highlighted the magnitude of *stewardship* and developing a sense of community in the workplace. Mehta and Pillay (2011) earlier focused on leadership accountability and role modeling. Likewise, Dierendonck and Patterson (2015) suggested that more leadership forgiveness can lead to *empowered* workers, and highlighted *humility* as a cornerstone of servant leadership (Chung, 2011; Mehta & Pillay, 2011; Udani & Lorenzo-Molo, 2013). In summary, there is general interest in servant leadership theory and potential practical applications in the Bahamian tourism industry based on the union versus non-union, region, department, and cluster analysis worker perceptions.

Practical Application

There are practical applications of the servant leadership inferential and k-means cluster analysis results in the Bahamian tourism industry. As previously noted, a commitment to applying servant leadership in the workplace could lead to more servant leaders in the hotel, government, and the local community (Mehta & Pillay, 2011). First, the Bahamian tourism and related industries are heavily unionized, and utilizing the servant leadership concept could lead to improved work relations by instilling greater levels of trust in communications (Rezaei, Salehi, Shafiei, & Sabet, 2012. Second, the region inferential test results suggest interest in servant leadership across the Nassau/Paradise Island, Grand Bahama Island, and Out Island zones. Third, enhancing employee motivation can come from utilizing the k-means cluster analysis *F* value results to provide a framework for developing a new leadership profile versus the autocratic and transactional leadership primarily practiced in the tourism industry. Then, I suggest

adding the SLS dimensions as categories to hotel annual leadership evaluations, employment profile testing, and company core values. In summary, initiating practical applications of servant leadership in daily operations can cause greater acceptance of the concept due to social change in the workplace and broader community.

Social Change

Implementing servant leadership dimensions in the Bahamian hospitality industry can lead to radical social change. Servant leadership social change starts with leaders holding themselves to a higher level of personal accountability while standing back and allowing their associates to be recognized (Mehta & Pillay, 2011). Savage-Austin and Honeycutt (2011) suggested that developing servant leaders equates to creating a cadre of leaders strong in character and that promote selflessness over selfishness, and by extension motivating workers to improved levels of engagement. First, add servant leadership as a complementary style to the autocratic and transactional concepts presently practiced in the Bahamian tourism domain to reduce the punitive nature of the top-down leadership. Second, support servant leaders who dare to fight for the rights of associates in the face of criticism (Thumma & Beene, 2015). With tourism as the number one industry in the future, developing more servant leaders in the workplace is mission-critical to establishing a base of employees dedicated to providing superior customer service, empowered to make decisions, and who possess greater moral standing in the business and local community.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the servant leadership dimensions that motivate Bahamians front-line hotel workers. The empirical research findings revealed significant findings across seven of the eight SLS dimensions in the union versus nonunion and regional demographic groups. Additionally, there were significant research results found in the department demographic group across the accountability and forgiveness SLS dimensions. The non-significant test results in the gender, generation, education, and tenure demographic groups demonstrated general front-line hotel worker openness to the servant leadership concept. The k-means cluster analysis highlighted cautious optimism towards servant leadership and the SLS dimension F-values that could form a new tourism leadership profile. Overall, this research provides policy makers in hotels, government, and the Bahamian society with a base of servant leadership dimensions for acceptance and application in the workplace, community, or future longitudinal studies.

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Appendix A: Permission for Usage of Bahamas Ministry of Tourism Data

From: Stuart Bowe smbowe@gmail.com   9/24/13

To: djohnson@bahamas.com

Mr. Johnson,

Hope that you are well. I am completing a PhD on a tourism topic and need approval to use the above data in my research. The statistical data is located on the Tourism Today website.

Thanks in advance.

Approval for utilization:

From: djohnson@bahamas.com   9/24/13

To: Stuart Bowe smbowe@gmail.com

Stuart, I cannot imagine we would put anything up on Tourism Today that you are not free to use in your paper. Please feel free to proceed.

Regards,
David Johnson
Director General
The Bahamas Ministry of Tourism & Aviation
George & King Streets
P.O. Box N-3701 Nassau, Bahamas
Phone: 242-302-2032
Fax: 242-325-2384
www.bahamas.com
www.tourismtoday.com

Appendix B: Permission to Utilize the SLS Instrument from Developers

Request for permission to utilize the SLS instrument

From: Stuart Bowe smbowe@gmail.com   12/28/12

To: Dirk van Dierendonck dvandierendonck@rsm.nl

Dr. Dierendonck,

My Name is Stuart M. Bowe from Walden University and I would like to request permission to use your survey instrument in my dissertation project. The project is on applying servant leadership in the tourism industry and I intend to use your instrument to collect data and analyze the data with Cluster Analysis. This would be different from how the data was analyzed in the Journal of Psychology in 2011. In the article, you noted that the SLS instrument can be used by other scholars. Please advise at your earliest convenience.

Thank-you

Information:

Stuart M. Bowe

PhD student. Walden University

Approval for utilization:

From: Dirk van Dierendonck dvandierendonck@rsm.nl   1/2/13

To: Stuart Bowe smbowe@gmail.com

Dear Stuart,

Yes, you are welcome to use the instrument in your research. Good luck!

Kind regards,
Dirk van Dierendonck

Appendix C: Research Participation Request to General Managers or Owners

May 21, 2014

Mr. Patrick Drake,

I am Stuart Bowe, a Doctoral student at Walden University. I am writing for permission to conduct a servant leadership study in the field of management as a part of my doctoral program requirement at Walden University. The purpose of the study is to identify hotel front-line worker perceptions of servant leadership that may lead to future research based on significant attributes identified. The survey information collected from your workers will be very confidential and only I will have access to the data. The human resources department or owner will administer the survey. The goal is to complete the process 21 days from receipt of the instruments. Please see the attached administrator letter (Appendix F) on the survey process. Completion of the survey will be voluntary and all surveys will be administered during normal business hours. The study approval and completion process requires the following four steps (1) written approval from the survey site principal, (2) approval from the Walden University IRB (Internal Review Board), (3) a review of the random process of selection, and (4) execution and return of the surveys between the agreed dates. Thank-you for your participation and assistance.

Best regards,

Stuart M. Bowe.

Appendix D: Sample Hotel Survey Participation Acceptance E-mails

Sample 1

Stuart,

We will be happy to assist as best we can with the completion of these surveys.

Please confirm when it is the appropriate time to begin the process.

Thanks and best wishes.

RM

Russell Miller

CEO

MODALENA COMPANY LIMITED

East Atlantic Drive

P.O. Box F-44270

Freeport, Grand Bahama Island

Tel: 242-352-7770

Fax: 242-352-3702

Email: rmiller.modalena@coralwave.com

Sample 2

From: Magnus Alnebeck [mailto:Magnus.Alnebeck@pelicanbayhotel.com

Sent: Monday, June 02, 2014 08:59 PM

To: Stuart.Bowe

Subject: Re: Pelican Bay Hotel-General Manager-Phd survey confirmation

 Stuart,

I confirm that Pelican Bay would happily take part in this.

Please let me know if you need a more formal agreement.

Good luck in your studies,

Magnus

Magnus Alnebeck

General Manager

Pelican Bay At Lucaya

P.O. Box F-42654

Seahorse Road at Port Lucaya

Lucaya, Grand Bahama Island

The Bahamas

www.pelicanbayhotel.com

magnus.alnebeck@pelicanbayhotel.com

tel: + 1 242 373 9550

fax:+ 1 242 373 9551

Appendix E: SLS Sample Survey

Demographic Data

Gender:		Tenure: (years of service)	
Male ☐		0-5 years ☐	
Female ☐		6-10 years ☐	
		11-15 years ☐	
Union Membership:		16 + years ☐	
Union ☐			
Non-union ☐		**Region:**	
		☐ Nassau/Paradise Island	
Generation:		Grand Bahama Island ☐	
Baby Boomers - Born (1952-1964) ☐		Out Islands ☐	
Generation X - Born (1965-1979 ☐			
Generation Y: - Born (1980-2000) ☐		**Department:**	
		Front Office /Call Center ☐	
Education:		**Housekeeping/Public Areas** ☐	
High School ☐		**Bell Services** ☐	
Post Graduate ☐		**Concierge** ☐	
Graduate School ☐		**Food & Beverage** ☐	

Please complete all sections by choosing one option.

This survey is being utilized to describe the leadership style of your supervisor, as you perceive it, and is only used for academic purposes only. Your responses are confidential and anonymous. Please answer all questions on the questionnaire sheet. Using the rating scale below, please rate how each statement fits the person you are rating and the organization as well.

Please tick the appropriate number next to each question. The responses are rated 1-5. 1 = strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3 = undecided, 4= Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree.

EMPOWERMENT:

1. My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.

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

2. My manager encourages me to use my talents.

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

3. My manager helps me to further develop myself.

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

4. My manager encourages his/her staff to come up with new ideas.

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

5. My manager gives me the authority to take decisions which makes work easier for me.

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

6. My manager enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do.

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

7. My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.

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

STANDING BACK:

8. My manager keeps himself/herself in the background and gives credit to others.

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

9. My manager is not chasing recognition for the things he/she does for others.

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

10. My manager appears to enjoy his/her colleagues' success more than his/her own.

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

ACCOUNTABILITY:

11. My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out

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

12. I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.

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

13. My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.

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

FORGIVENESS:

14. My manager keeps criticizing people for the mistakes they have made in their work

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

15. My manager maintains a hard attitude towards people who have offended him/her at work.

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

16. My manager finds it difficult to forget things that went wrong in the past.

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

COURAGE:

17. My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.

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

18. My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.

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

AUTHENTICITY:

19. My manager is open about his/her limitations and weaknesses.

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

20. My manager is often touched by the things he/she happenings around her/him.

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

21. My manager is prepared to express his/her feelings even if this might have undesirable consequences.

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

22. My manager shows his/her true feelings to his/her staff.

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

HUMILITY:

23. My manager learns from criticism.

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

24. My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.

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

25. My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/superior.

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

26. My manager learns from different views and opinions of others.

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

27. If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.

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

STEWARDSHIP:

28. My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.

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

29. My manager has a long-term vision.

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

30. My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility or our work.

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

Appendix F: Administrator Cover Letter
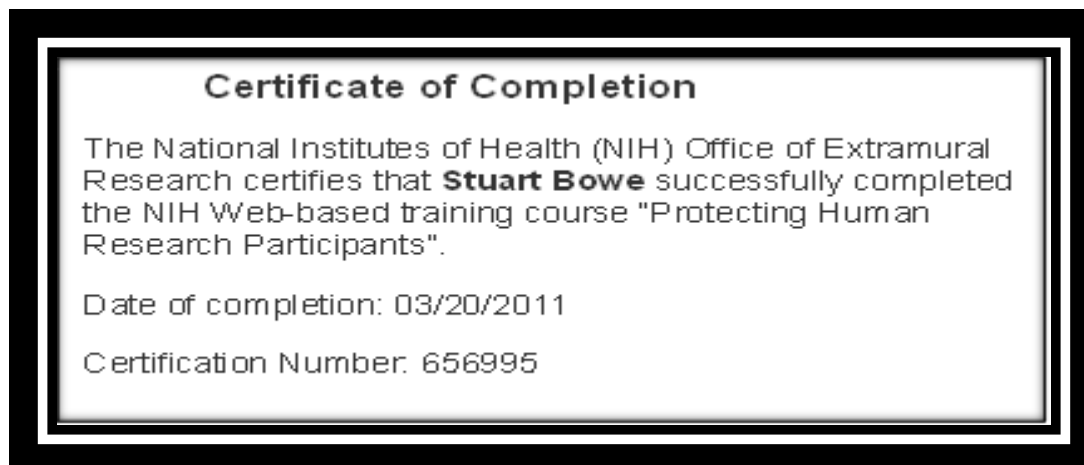
Dear Administrator,

I am Stuart Bowe, a Doctoral student at Walden University. I am conducting a servant leadership study in the field of management as a part of my doctoral program requirement at Walden University. Enclosed are the surveys and instructions for completion. Please execute a random selection process by utilizing existing payroll registers and selecting every 2nd employee (starting with the 2nd employee on each department's register) to complete the survey in the following five departments (a) front office (including call centers), (b) housekeeping, (c) food and beverage (front of house workers only), (d) bell services, and (e) the concierge department. The survey is voluntary and for hotel front-line non-management workers only. Workers can be union or non-union employees and allowed to discontinue to survey at any time. Please ensure that participants complete the survey during normal working hours and deposit the completed surveys in the lock boxes provided. The goal is to complete the process in 21 days from receipt of the instruments. Thank-you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Stuart M. Bowe.

Walden PhD student

Appendix G: NIH Certification

Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Stuart Bowe** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants".

Date of completion: 03/20/2011
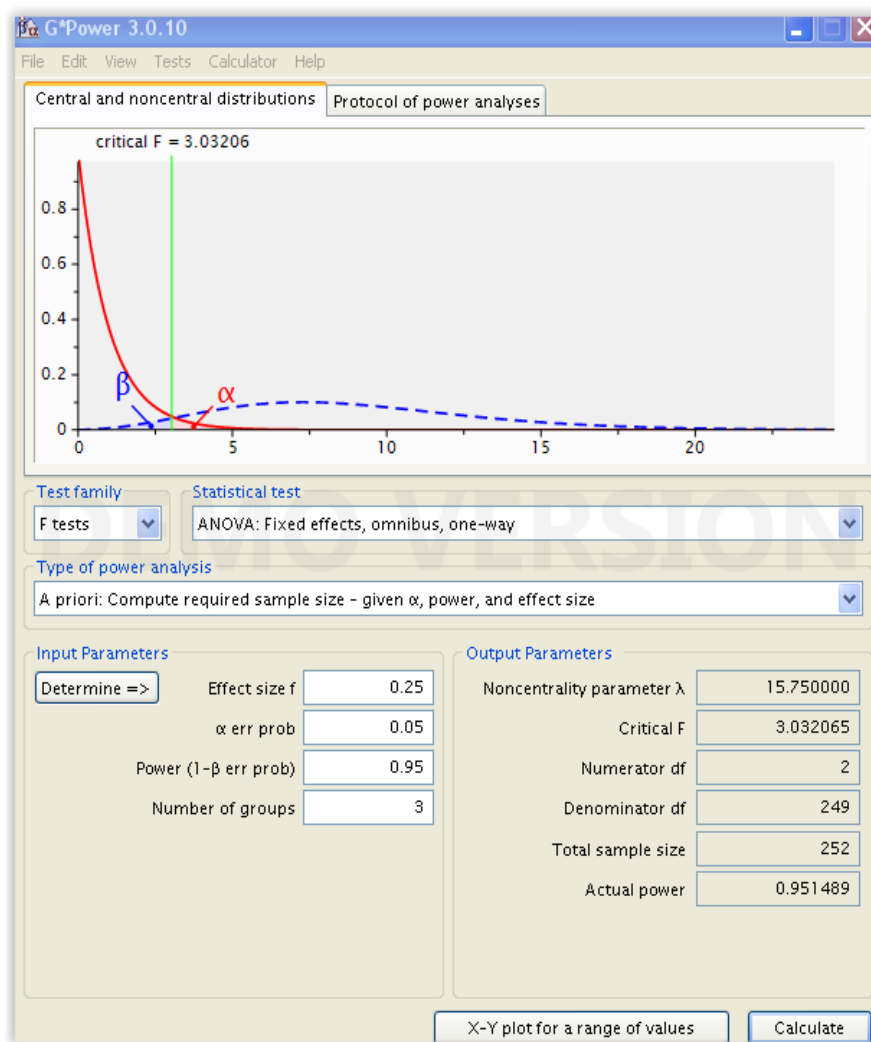
Certification Number: 656995

Appendix H: G-Power *T* Test Bitmap: Gender and Union Versus Nonunion

(Dimensions)—Two Group Levels
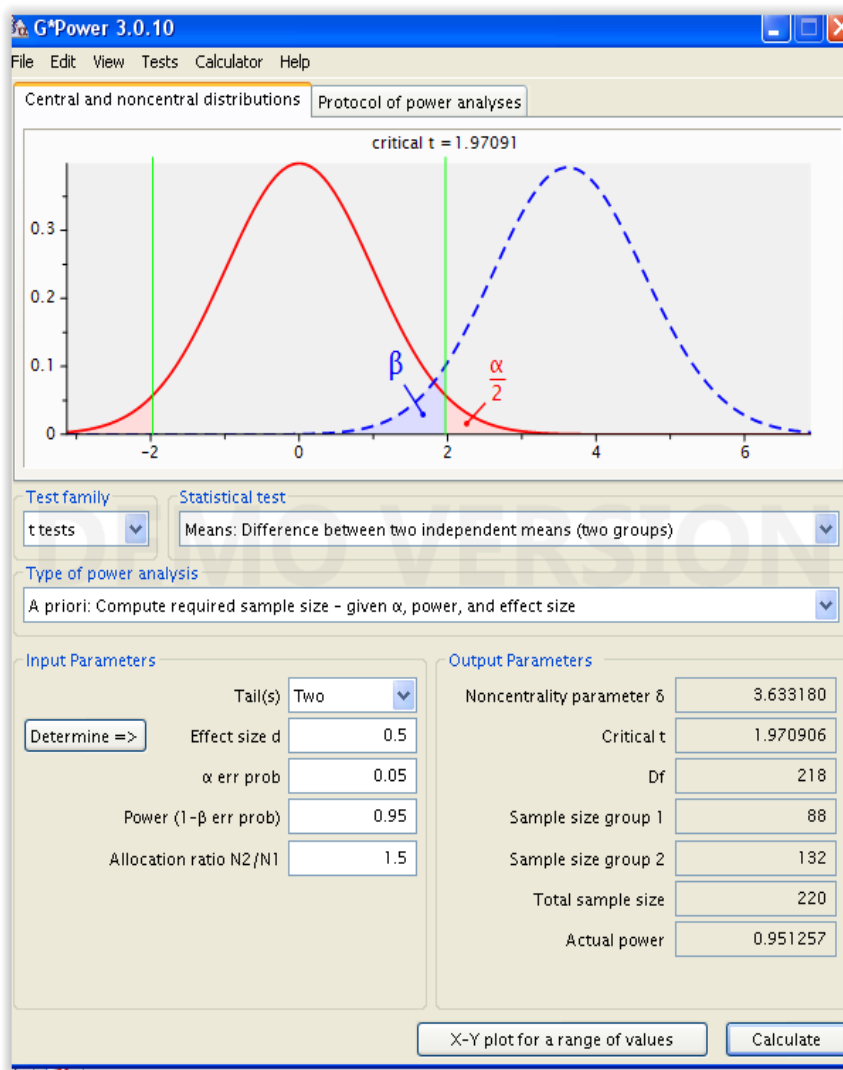
T test G-Power minimum sample size calculation (gender and union versus non-union- 2 groups each).

Appendix I: G-Power One-Way ANOVA Bitmap: Region, Education, and Generations

(Dimensions)—Three Group Levels

One-Way ANOVA G-Power minimum sample size calculation (region, education, and

generations- 3 groups each).

Appendix J: G-Power One-Way ANOVA Bitmap—Tenure (Dimension)
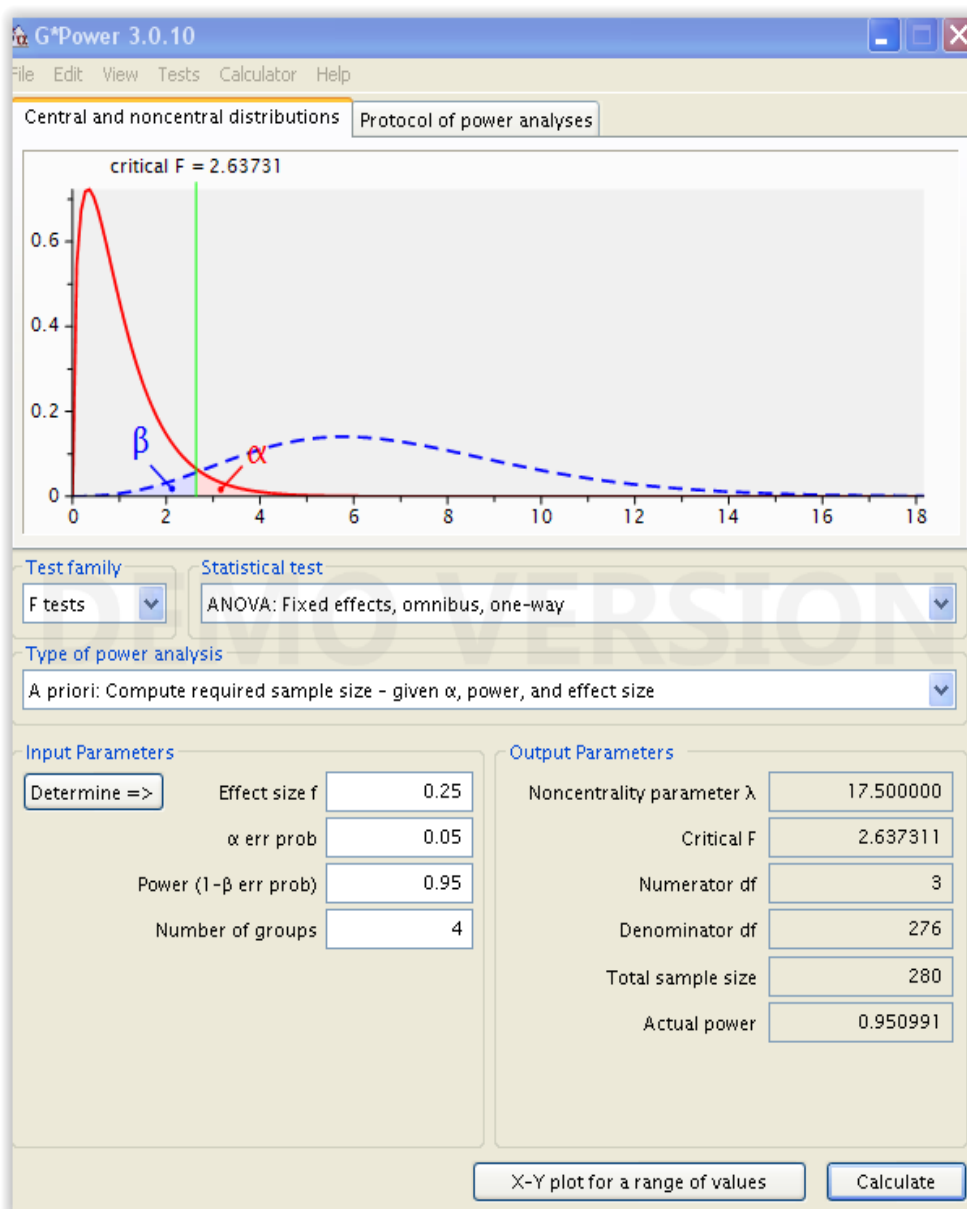
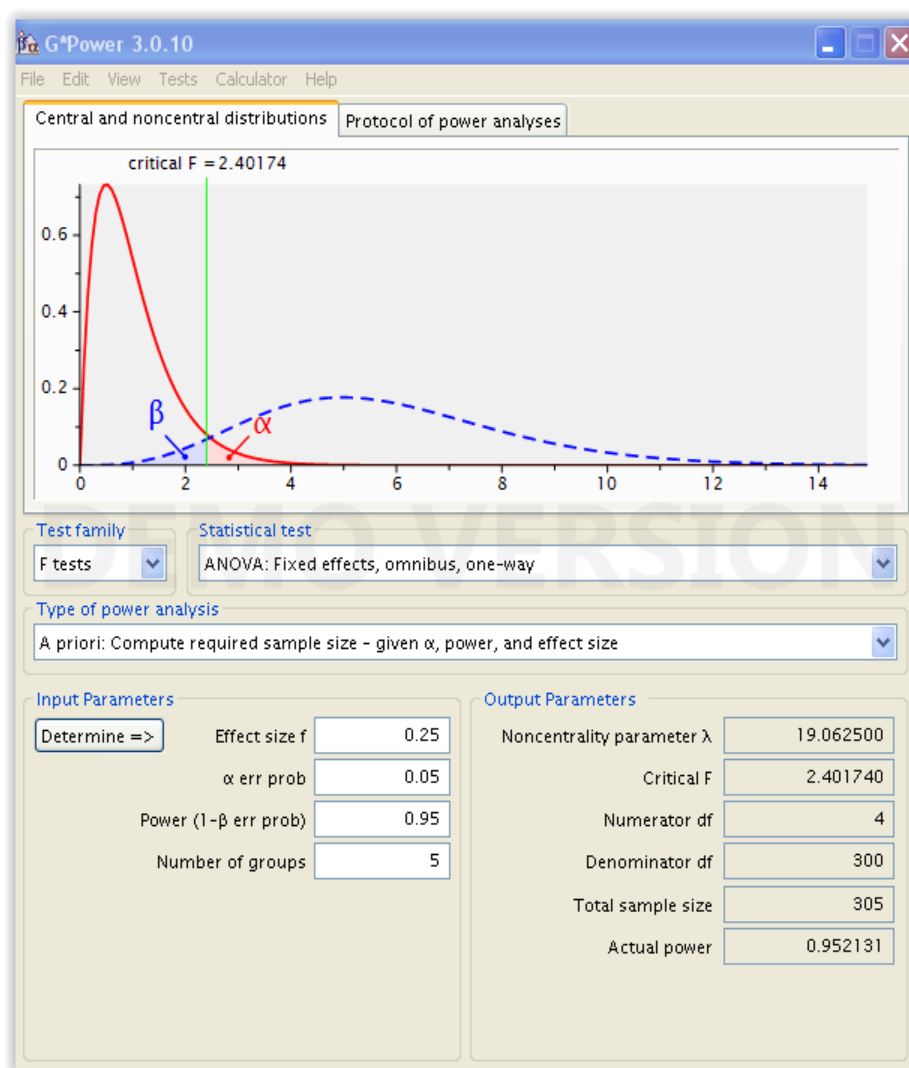One-Way ANOVA G-Power minimum sample size calculation (tenure- 4 groups).

Appendix K: G-Power One-Way ANOVA Bitmap—Department (Dimension)

One-Way ANOVA G-Power minimum sample size calculation (department- 5 groups).

Appendix L: Survey—Participating Hotels

	Hotel	Zone	Consent to Participate	Estimated front-line workers	Percentage of survey population
1	Bayview Suites-Nas.	NPI	Y	14	.5%
2	Atlantis-Paradise Isl.	NPI	Y	1335	57%
3	Courtyard Marriott	NPI	Y	160	7%
4	Castaways Resorts	GB	Y	40	2%
5	Our Lucaya-Lighthouse Pointe	GB	Y	126	6%
6	Pelican Bay Resorts	GB	Y	30	1%
7	Bimini Big Lodge	OI	Y	230	10%
8	ResortsWorld-Bim.	OI	Y	146	6%
9	Treasure Cay Resort	OI	Y	120	5%
10	Bakers Bay Hotel	OI	Y	40	2%
11	Hope Town Harbor	OI	Y	35	2%
12	Swains Cay Lodge	OI	Y	15	.5%
13	Cape Eleuthera	OI	Y	14	.5%
14	Valentines Club	OI	y	25	1%
Totals				2330	100%

Note. Displays a listing of survey participating hotels across three hotel operating zones. Nassau/Paradise Island (NPI), Grand Bahama (GB), and the Out Islands (OI). Adopted from BMOTRS (2012b) data. Copyright 2014 by Bahamas Ministry of Tourism**.** Utilized with permission.

Appendix M: Breakdown of Survey Distribution by Participating Hotel

	Hotel	Percentage of survey population	Target Population	Target Population at 50%
1	Bayview Suites-Nas.	.5%	7	3.5
2	Atlantis-Paradise Isl.	57%	667.5	334
3	Courtyard Marriott	7%	80	40
4	Castaways Resorts	2%	20	10
5	Our Lucaya-Lighthouse Pointe	6%	63	31.5
6	Pelican Bay	1%	15	7.5
7	Bimini Big Lodge	10%	115	57.5
8	ResortsWorld-Bim	6%	73	36.5
9	Treasure Cay Resort	5%	60	30
10	Bakers Bay Hotel	2%	20	10
11	Hope Town Harbor	2%	18	9
12	Swains Cay Lodge	.5%	7	3.5
13	Cape Eleuthera	.5%	7	3.5
14	Valentines Club	1%	12.5	6
Totals		100%	1165	583

Note. Table displays a listing of survey distribution by participating hotels. Participating hotel listing from BMOTRS (2012b) data. Copyright 2014 by Bahamas Ministry of Tourism**.** Utilized with permission.

Appendix N: SSPS Steps for Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Coefficients, and SLS

Composite Variables

Step 1. To produce descriptive statistics, first, enter the SLS instrument socio-demographic and question data into SSPS V23. The first descriptive statistics will have two sections. For section one, in SSPS choose Analyze > Descriptive Statistics > Frequencies > move the socio-demographic factors to the Variables box > select Statistics > click mean, standard deviation, and range > click Continue > click Ok to start analysis. For descriptive purposes, display the (a) socio-demographic category and participant totals (e.g. gender-male-100 and female-100), (b) percentiles for each category group (e.g. males-50%, females 50%), and (c) totals for each category. Second, generate the participant response data to get more familiar with the information. In SSPS choose Analyze > Descriptive Statistics > Frequencies > select and move the 30 Likert survey rating items to the Variables box > select Statistics > click mean, standard deviation, and range > click Continue > click Ok to start the analysis. For descriptive purposes, display the specific question, frequencies, means, and standard deviations.

Step 2. After reverse-scoring items (forgiveness dimension only), calculate the reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha). In SSPS, choose Analyze > Scale > Reliability Analysis > select the 30 summated survey questions and move to the Items box > ensure that the model default is on Alpha > click on Statistics > click on item, scale, scale if item deleted option and correlations > click Continue > click Ok to run the analysis. For the reliability analysis, the Alpha value goal is .7 and above for adequate reliability. If the

Alpha score is less than .7, review the "scale if item deleted" and "correlations" data grids to improve the overall instrument reliability values. Delete or maintain survey items to achieve the acceptable alpha levels described above.

   Step 3. Compute the overall and eight composite variables (by dimension) from the SLS data. In SSPS select Transform > Compute Variable > Name the new variable > select the questions that relate to each specific dimension. Move each item to the Name New Variable field and select the "+" sign after each question is transferred until all related items are included/ total number of questions in each dimension (e.g. Empowerment = 7 questions) > click Ok to start the summation process. There will be nine composite variables created, one for the overall SLS instrument, and one composite variable for the summated eight SLS dimensions.

Appendix O: SSPS Steps for *T* Test Assumptions and Hypotheses Testing

Step 1. The six steps listed below address the assumption criteria for *t* tests prior to

testing RQ1 hypotheses:

1. The SLS instrument (dependent variable) measures servant leadership

    perceptions on an interval rating scale from 1-5.

2. The independent variables should consist of two categorical, independent

    groups. The study groups are gender (male/female) and union versus non-

    union employees.

3. There is independence of observations with each hotel front-line worker

    completing the SLS instrument separately. Applying the systematic random

    sampling method and survey administration procedures will satisfy the

    assumption.

4. There should be no significant outliers in the data**.** Outliers can skew the data

    and affect the accuracy of the results. I will utilize the outlier-labeling rule to

    detect outliers. In SSPS, choose Analyze > Descriptive > Explore > move

    composite variable to the Dependent list > click on Plots > unclick stem/leaf

    and click Histograms > click Continue > go to Statistics > click Descriptives

    and click Percentiles and other > click Continue > click Ok to start analysis.

    View the histogram for a normal bell curve distribution and potential outliers.

    To check for numerical outliers, view the data distribution percentile

    information to establish the Q1 (25th percentile), median, and Q3 (75th

percentile) values. Calculate the difference between the Q1 and Q3 (Q3-Q1 = range factor g). Multiply g by 2.3 (Hoaglin, Iglewicz, & Tukey, 1986) and subtract g from the Q1 value and add g to Q3 value to establish the lower and upper boundary values. Review the SSPS data ranges for items outside the upper and lower range. Use the missing data command or delete process to remove outliers identified.

5. The SLS instrument data (independent variable) should be approximately normally distributed for each group of hotel worker demographics (dependent variables). I will utilize numerical and visual observations to establish data normality. The numerical tests include the skewness and kurtosis z-values, and the Shapiro-Wilk test p-value (should be above .05). The visual tests include histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and Box plots. First are the numerical tests. In SSPS, click on Analyze > Descriptive Statistics > Explore > move the SLS composite variable to the Dependent list box > move the independent variable to the factor list > click on Plots and select histograms and normality plots with tests > click Continue > click Ok and start the analysis. Then calculate the skewness and kurtosis z-value for each socio-demographic group by dividing the statistic/standard error. Ideally, skewness and kurtosis scores should be as close to zero as possible (i.e., Skewness < [2] and Kurtosis < [9]; Schmider, Ziegler, Danay, Beyer, & Buhner, 2010). Confirm approximate normality. Second, check the Shapiro-Wilk test p-value to accept or reject the

null hypothesis that the *p*-value is not significant for each independent variable category. A number greater than .05 confirms approximate data normality. Third, view the histograms for each independent variable group for a normal curve distribution. Fourth, view the Q-Q plot to verify the dots grouped along the line confirm approximate normality. Fifth, view the Box plots for approximate symmetry. After completing the above tests for each hypothesis, assume a normal data distribution.

6. There should be homogeneity of variances between the independent variable means. This assumption utilizes the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances. The homogeneity of variances criteria will be addressed in Step 2 below as part of the SSPS *t* test analysis.

Step 2. Begin the *t* test statistical analysis after the data passes the above assumption tests. In SSPS select Analyze > Compare means > independent samples *t* test > choose the dependent variable and move the SLS instrument data (by composite dimension group) to the test variable box > move the respective independent variable to the grouping variable box > click on Define groups and assign numbers to the independent variable groups > click OK to start the analysis. If the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances is not significant, then interpret the data significance number for a two-tailed distribution. As noted above, test each composite dimension variable versus the applicable independent variables (2 groups- gender and union versus nonunion employees) to identify significance. The *t* test descriptive statistics will include the

specific SLS composite dimension, independent variable mean by group, degrees of

freedom within groups, and significance level.

Appendix P: SSPS Steps for one-way ANOVA Assumptions and Hypotheses Testing

The six steps listed below address the assumption criteria for one-way ANOVA

analysis prior to testing RQ1 hypotheses:

Step 1. The SLS instrument (dependent variable) measures servant leadership

perceptions on an interval rating scale from 1-5.

1. There are three or more categorical and independent sample groups (e.g. generations' group includes baby boomers, generation Y, and generation X members). The project's independent variables are generations (3 groups), region (3 groups), education (4 groups), tenure (4 groups), and department (5 groups).

2. There is independence of observations with each hotel front-line worker completing the SLS instrument separately. In addition, application of the systematic random sampling method and survey administration procedures will satisfy the assumption.

3. There should be no significant outliers in the data**.** Outliers can skew the data and affect the accuracy of the results. I will utilize the outlier-labeling rule to detect outliers. In SSPS, choose Analyze > Descriptive > Explore > move composite variable to the Dependent list > click on Plots > unclick stem/leaf and click Histograms > click Continue > go to Statistics > click Descriptives and click Percentiles and other > click Continue > click Ok to start analysis. View the histogram for a normal bell curve distribution and potential outliers. To check for numerical outliers, view the data distribution percentile information to establish

the Q1 (25th percentile), median, and Q3 (75th percentile) values. Calculate the

difference between the Q1 and Q3 (Q3-Q1 = range factor *g*). Multiply *g* by 2.3

(Hoaglin, Iglewicz, & Tukey, 1986) and subtract *g* from the Q1 value and add *g* to

Q3 value to establish the lower and upper boundary values. Review the SSPS data

ranges for items outside the upper and lower range. Utilize the missing data

command or delete process to remove outliers identified.

4. The SLS instrument data (dependent variable) should be approximately normally

distributed for each group of hotel worker demographics (independent variables).

Utilize numerical and visual observations to establish data normality. The

numerical tests include the skewness and kurtosis *z*-values. The visual tests

include histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and Box plots. First are the numerical tests.

In SSPS, click on Analyze > Descriptive Statistics > Explore > move the SLS

composite variable to the Dependent list box > move the independent variable to

the Factor list box > click on Plots and select histograms and normality plots with

tests > click Continue > click Ok and start the analysis. Then, calculate the

skewness and kurtosis z-value for each socio-demographic group by dividing the

statistic/standard error. Ideally, skewness and kurtosis scores should be as close to

zero as possible (i.e., Skewness < [2] and Kurtosis < [9]; Schmider, Ziegler,

Danay, Beyer, & Buhner, 2010). Confirm approximate normality. Second, check

the Shapiro-Wilk test *p*-value to accept or reject the null hypothesis that the *p*-

value is not significant for each independent variable category. A number greater

than .05 confirms approximate data normality. Third, view the histogram for a normal curve distribution. Fourth, view the Q-Q plot to verify the dots grouped along the line confirm approximate normality.

5. Fifth, view the Box plots for approximate symmetry. After completing the above tests for each hypothesis, assume a normal data distribution.

6. Sixth- There should be homogeneity of variances between the independent variable means. Utilize the Brown and Forsythe test of homogeneity of variances versus the Levene's test. According to Garson (2012), the Brown and Forsythe test of homogeneity of variances is more robust than the Levene's test, especially when groups are unequal in size. The Brown and Forsythe test compares the median versus the mean (Garson, 2012). The homogeneity of variances criteria will be addressed in Step 4 below as part of the SSPS one-way ANOVA test analysis.

Step 2. After completing the SLS data normality tests, run the one-way ANOVA analysis. In SSPS select Analyze > Compare means > one-way ANOVA > choose the composite dependent variable and move to the dependent list box > move the respective independent variable to the factor box. Next, click on Options > click on Descriptives, Homogeneity of variances tests, Brown and Forsythe test, Means plot, exclude cases analyze by analyze > click Continue > click on Post hoc > click on the Hochberg's GT2 test and ensure the significance level is set at .05. > click Continue > click OK to start the analysis. Field (2009) suggested the use of Hochberg's GT2 test when the sample sizes

are significantly different. If the homogeneity of variances value is not significant, then the post hoc test (Hochberg's GT2) is not necessary. If significant differences exist between the independent group's means, then review the post hoc results to identify where the differences between groups exist. As noted above, test each composite dimension versus the five independent variables (generation, department, region, education, and tenure) to identify significance. The one-way ANOVA descriptive statistics will include the specific composite dimension scores, the independent variable mean by group, F ratio, degrees of freedom between groups, and significance level.

Appendix Q: SSPS Steps for KMO, Scree Plot Generation,

and K-Means Cluster Analysis Testing

Step 1. Perform the KMO on the eight composite SLS dimensions created. In SSPS select Analyze > Dimension Reduction > Factor > select the eight composite dimensions and move to the Variables box on the right > click on the Descriptives button > select initial solutions, coefficient, and KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity > click Continue > click OK to start the analysis. The minimum of .5 is acceptable for cluster analysis sampling adequacy (Sharma, 2012), however, Field (2009, p. 647) reported that test scores ranging from 0.7 and 0.8 are acceptable, and values between 0.8 and 0.9 are excellent. Once the sampling score passes the minimum standard, in a two-step process, perform k-means cluster analysis to identify and define the final clusters.

Step 2. To generate a scree plot, click Analyze > Dimension Reduction > Factor. Then select the eight SLS composite variables and transfer items to the variables box > place the number of clusters in the box > change eigenvalues to 1. Click continue and select Extraction and click on the scree plot. Click continue and then OK. View the output and select the number of factors where the elbow joint is pronounced to identify k^* (i.e. 3 or 4). Next, perform k-means cluster analysis with k^* selected in step 3.

Step 3. For k-means cluster analysis, in SSPS select Analyze > Classify > K-Means Cluster > Indicate number of cluster cases (e.g. 3) and check both statistics and plots. Then select the eight SLS composite variables and transfer items to the variables

box > place the number of clusters in the box > Click continue > Choose "iterates and classify" and check the method box. Press the iterate button to establish the criteria for updating the cluster centers. By default, 10 iterations and convergence criterion zero are given > click Continue > click the Save button and select the cluster membership of each object (cluster membership) and distance from the cluster center for each object (distance from luster center) fields > click Continue. Click Ok to start the data analysis. Next, analyze each cluster (profiling) by object in SSPS to define the dimension patterns that predominantly comprise the cohort. Describe and name each cluster after the analysis.

Appendix R: Permission to Use BOLD Educational Software Writing the Assumptions

and Limitations Data

Thanks Dr. Dusick.

From**:** Dusick, Diane M. [mailto:ddusick@sbccd.cc.ca.us

Sent**:** Monday, June 15, 2015 6:20 PM

To: Stuart.Bowe

Subject**:** Re: Permission to utilize BOLD Educational Software Writing

the Assumptions and Limitations data

Stuart,

No need to ask permission - it's there for students to use!

Diane Dusick

From**:** Stuart.Bowe <Stuart.Bowe@AtlantisParadise.com

Sent**:** Sunday, June 14, 2015 2:59 PM

To**:** Dusick, Diane M.

Subject**:** Permission to utilize BOLD Educational Software Writing the

Assumptions and Limitations data

Dr. Dusick,

I am Stuart M. Bowe, a Walden University Student who would like your

permission to use some of the "Assumption

Criteria" elements in my paper (from the below educational software).

Please advise if I can utilize the information in my dissertation.

Elements from, "BOLD Educational Software Writing the Assumptions

and Limitations"

Thanks.

Appendix S: Calculation for the Sampling Frequency and Survey Response Rate

In survey research, there is typically a percentage of incomplete or non-participation that decreases the overall sample participants. To address both problems, this research utilizes the systematic random sampling formula and a sample size based on a 50% response rate (see Appendix M for projected hotel distribution). The formula for the overall survey sample size is n = largest minimum sample (cluster analysis) /.5 (forecasted response rate). $n = 512 /.5 = 1024$. The resulting systematic random sample formula is 2330/ 1024 = 2.27 (kth). Therefore, the systematic sampling frequency will be 2 (m). In practice, administrators will select the second person (s) as the starting point on each participating hotel's department payroll register and thereafter every 2nd employee until achieving the requisite sample. Utilizing the above approach satisfies the response rate concern and the minimum number of participants required for all (3) statistical techniques.

Appendix T: Sample Normality Assumption Test Criteria
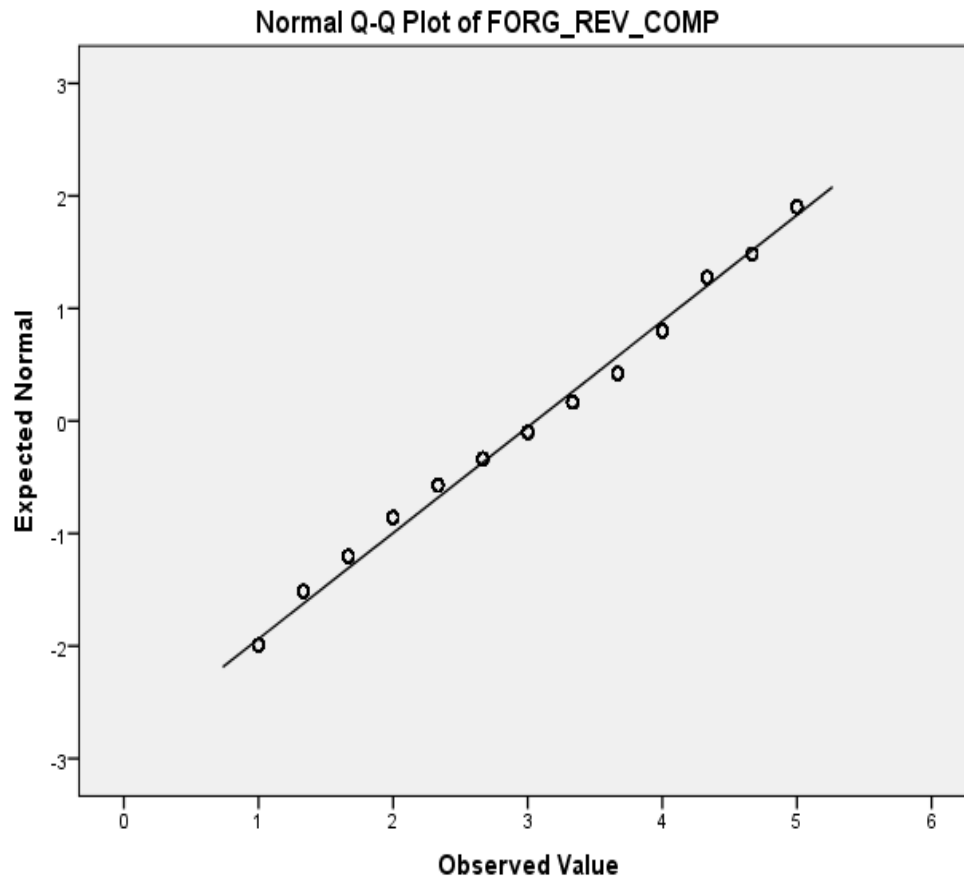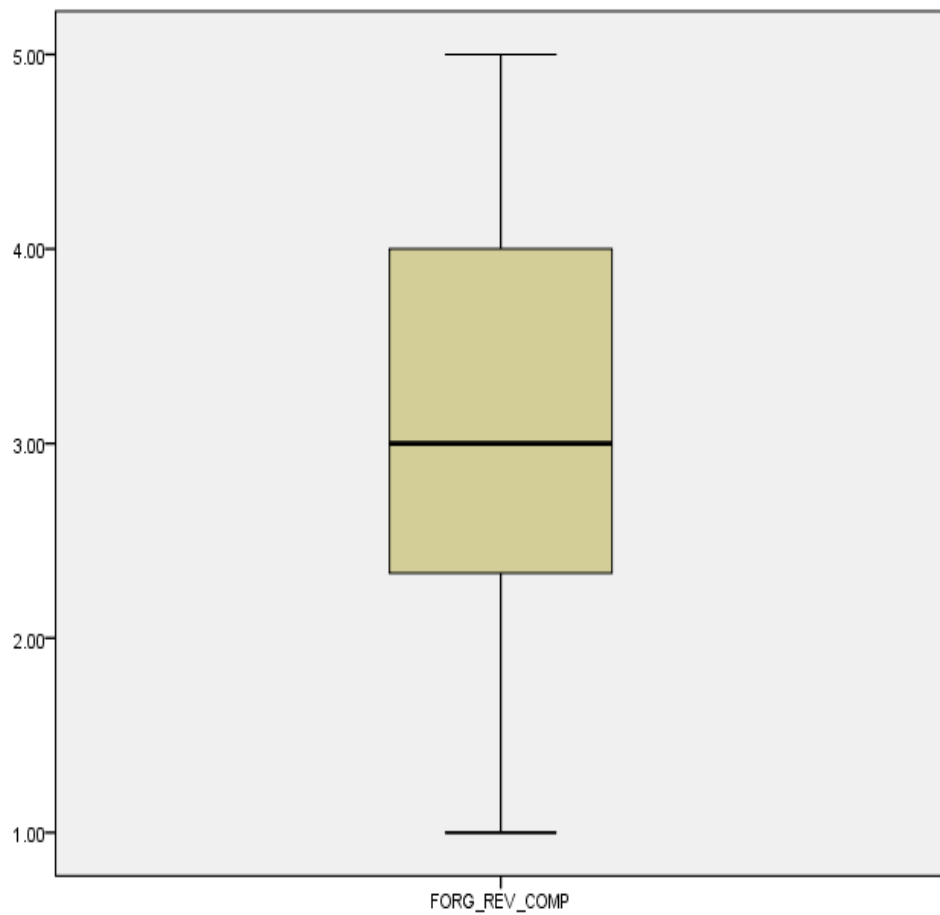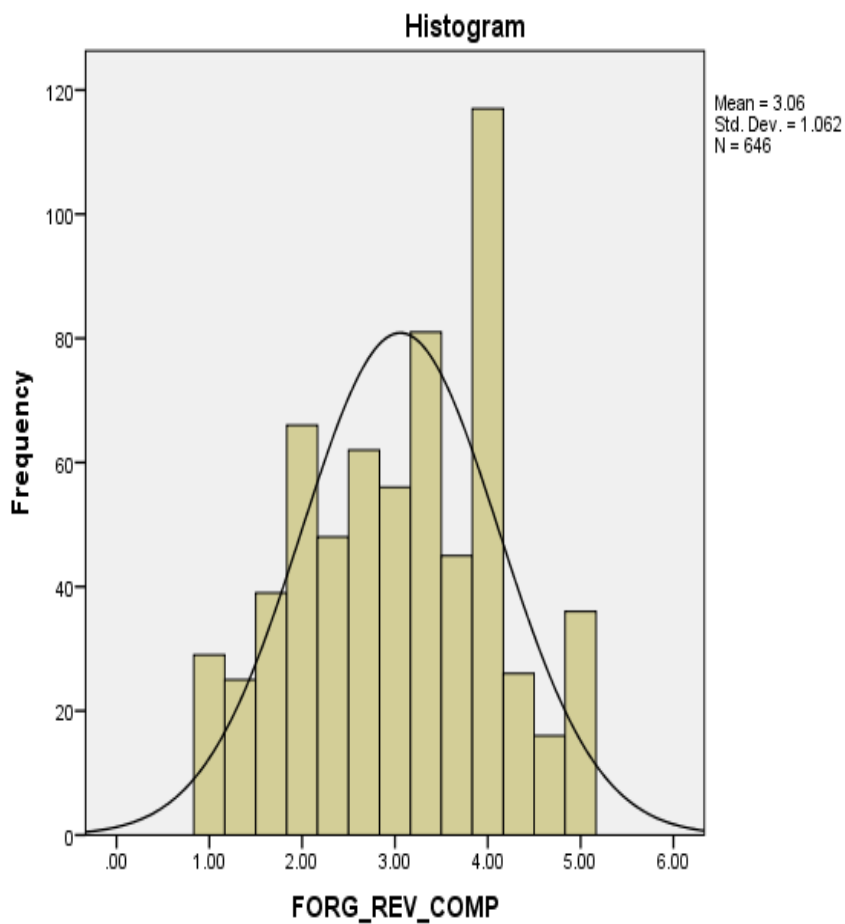
(Q-Q Plot, Box Plot, Histogram)

Figure U1. Sample assumption test Q-Q plot of the forgiveness composite variable.

Figure U2. Sample assumption test box plot of the forgiveness composite variable.

Figure U3. Sample assumption test histogram of the forgiveness composite variable.

Appendix U: Sample Negative Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. error
COUR_COMP	Mean		3.2454	.03747
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.1718	
		Upper Bound	3.3189	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.2709	
	Median		3.5000	
	Variance		.907	
	Std. Deviation		.95224	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.50	
	Skewness		-.474	.096
	Kurtosis		-.218	.192
HUMIL_COMP	Mean		3.1669	.03637
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.0955	
		Upper Bound	3.2383	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.1896	
	Median		3.2000	
	Variance		.854	
	Std. Deviation		.92434	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		4.00	
	Interquartile Range		1.40	
	Skewness		-.470	.096
	Kurtosis		-.255	.192

Appendix V: Cluster Analysis Scree Plot
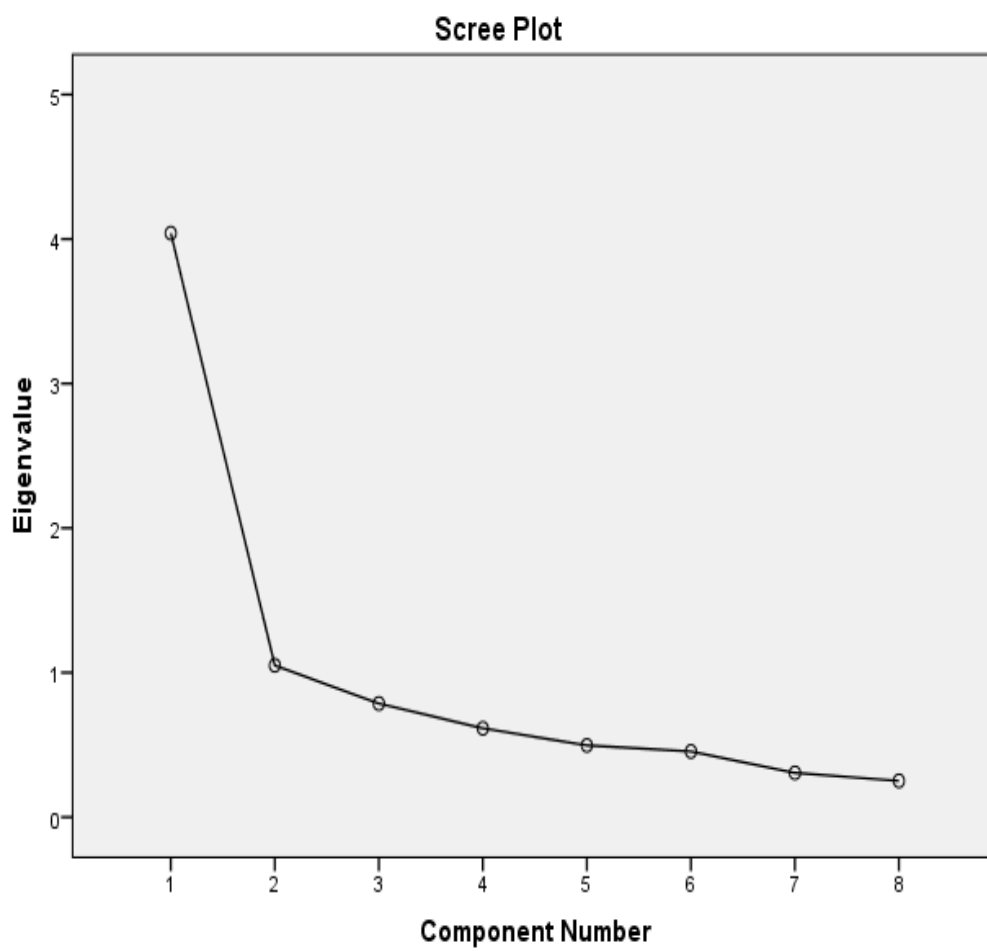
Appendix W: Cluster Model Iteration History

Iteration History[a]

Iteration	Change in Cluster Centers	
	1	2
1	4.032	4.087
2	.158	.240
3	.035	.062
4	.009	.016
5	.015	.027
6	.005	.008
7	.005	.009
8	.000	.000

a. Convergence achieved due to no or small change in cluster centers. The maximum absolute coordinate change for any center is .000. The current iteration is 8. The minimum distance between initial centers is 10.610.