Walden University
ScholarWorks

Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies

Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection

2020

Servant Leadership and the Contemporary Emergency Manager in a Multisector Collaborative Organization

Phillip William Caponigro
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations

Part of the Public Policy Commons

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Phillip William Caponigro

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Stephen Morreale, Committee Chairperson,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Karel Kurst-Swanger, Committee Member,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Tanya Settles, University Reviewer,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer and Provost
Sue Subocz, Ph.D.

Walden University
2020

Abstract

Servant Leadership and the Contemporary Emergency Manager in a Multisector Collaborative Organization

by

Phillip William Caponigro

MA, Walden University, 2008

BS, Benedictine University, 1972

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy

Walden University

February 2020

Abstract

Emergency management (EM) leaders must relate to group members with whom they have no organizational relationship. However, little is known about whether certain leadership approaches are more conducive to a successful EM organization. The purpose of this correlational study was to explore whether emergency managers (EMs) who employ a servant leadership style instill greater confidence in emergency team members than EMs who employ a traditional paramilitary style of leadership. Data were collected from 82 members of Safeguard Iowa partners through the Laub Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument. These data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, Pearson's correlation coefficient, and Spearman's rho. Results showed a high perceived presence of servant leadership in the EM team and there was a statistically significant correlation between the perceived presence of servant leadership and perceived effectiveness of the EM organization ($p = <.001$). There was not a statistically significant difference in perceived SL and gender, educational level, type of organization, position, age, and years in the group with the exception of Asian ethnicity ($p = <.0040$) and position of middle management in the organization ($p = <.026$). These findings suggest that a SL style may be an effective leadership approach for EM organizations as compared to a more authoritarian, paramilitary leadership structure. This knowledge might encourage the design of better leadership training programs for managers and for the recruitment of personnel who have the requisite leadership qualities needed in contemporary emergency management.

Servant Leadership and the Contemporary Emergency Manager in a Multisector Collaborative Organization

by

Phillip William Caponigro

MA, Walden University, 2008

BS, Benedictine University, 1972

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy

Walden University

February 2020

Dedication

This work is dedicated to many academics who helped me throughout the years and to the many social science researchers from whom I have learned so much. The late Dr. Alan Loy McGinnis inspired me to reach beyond my previous career to accomplish much in the final third of my life. Most importantly, I dedicate this work to my wife who spent a great deal of time as my editor in chief, and without whom I would never have had the stamina to complete this study.

Acknowledgments

There are so many people who helped me with this journey, teachers and fellow students alike. Dr. Stephen A. Morreale and Dr. Karel Kurst-Swanger from Walden University were of immense assistance as mentors and committee members. Dr. Phillip Nufrio, from New York University, from whom I learned to never give up and just simply write your thoughts. Michael Orticelle spent countless hours with me discussing my project and reviewing various drafts prior to their submission. My editor, Stephanie Bosco-Ruggiero was of immense help, not only with scholarly writing but also helping me to decipher the many intricacies of the SPSS software. Finally, my wife Carolyn, who not only patiently spent nights and weekends alone while I pursued my dream, but who also shared her grammatical prowess while helping to make my writing more coherent.

Table of Contents

List of Tables v

List of Figures vi

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study 1

Introduction 1

Background 3

Problem Statement 8

Purpose of the Study 11

Research Questions and Hypotheses 13

Research Questions 13

Hypotheses 13

Theoretical Framework 14

Nature of the Study 15

Operational Definitions 17

Co-Independent Variable Definitions 18

Assumptions 20

Scope and Delimitations 20

Limitations 22

Significance 23

Summary 24

Chapter 2: Literature Review 27

Introduction 27

Literature Search Strategy 28

Theoretical Foundation 29
The History of Leadership Studies 31
Leadership Traits 32
The Skills Model 34
The Style Approach 36
Situational Leadership 38
Transformational Leadership 40
The Servant Leader 44
Servant Leadership and Emergency Management 72
Literature Review Related to Key Variables and/or Concepts 74
Laub's Study and the OLA 75
Summary and Conclusions 79
Chapter 3: Research Methodology 80
Introduction 80
Research Design and Rationale 80
Population 82
Sample 82
Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs 83
Laub's Study and the OLA 84
Threats to Validity 89
Research Questions 91
Hypotheses 92
Independent and Dependent Variables 92

Operational Definitions for the Variables 92
Data Collection Procedures 94
Data Analysis 95
Ethical Procedures 96
The Potential for Positive Social Change 97
Summary 97
Chapter 4: Results 99
Introduction 99
Data Collection 100
Results 103
Research Question One 103
Research Question Two 106
Research Question Three 106
Summary 111
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations 113
Introduction 113
Key Findings 114
Interpretation of Findings 115
Theoretical Framework 116
Limitations of the Study 116
Recommendations 117
Implications 118
Conclusion 119

References.....121

Appendix A: Laub Training Model 137

Appendix B: The OLA.....140

List of Tables

Table 1. OLA Studies in Diverse Types of Organizations 78

Table 2. Six Key Variables and OLA Items 87

Table 3. Mean Results.....102

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics.....104

Table 5. Cronbach's Alpha 105

Table 6. Job Satisfaction 105

Table 7. Skewness Statistics 107

Table 8. K-W S Significance Statistics.....109

Table 9. K-W S Hypothesis Test 110

Table 10. K-W S Hypothesis Tests.....111

List of Figures

Figure 1. The Leadership Grid.....37

Figure 2. Situational leadership model 39

Figure 3. Means scores for organizational levels.....103

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

In a post 9/11 world, emergency managers (EMs) must operate under a new paradigm (Chertoff, 2008). Under the current National Incident Management System (NIMS), the EM must lead within and outside of the traditional emergency management organization. The EM must include private, public, and non-profit members as partners. In so doing, the emergency management leader must relate to group members with whom they have no organizational relationship and certainly can no longer manage under a dictatorial paradigm (Department of Homeland Security, 2018a).

Leadership skill took an interesting turn for EMs in general and for incident commanders specifically. Both the National Incident Management System (NIMS) and the National Response Framework (NRF) have, at their core, the inclusion of various nongovernment organizations (NGOs) and private sector organizations during the planning process, as well as during an actual emergency (Department of Homeland Security, 2008).

The inclusion of team members from the private and nonprofit sectors may have created a meaningful change in the leadership skills required for emergency and incident managers. Although previous managers worked within a paramilitary organizational structure, the inclusion of NGOs and private sector organizations required much more than a paramilitary management style (Department of Homeland Security, 2018a).

Several questions may arise from these new paradigms, such as, “Does the recruitment and selection process used for EMs include an evaluation of the candidate leadership skills?;” “If leadership skills are a requirement for the EM, what type of leadership model is most appropriate and when should the organization provide the training?” (Department of Homeland Security, 2018b); and “If EMs are indeed public servants, is the servant leadership (SL) model the most appropriate for the EM?”

The purpose of this study was to explore whether EMs who employ a SL style instill greater confidence in emergency team members than EMs who employ a traditional paramilitary style of leadership. The research question was, “Is the SL model viable for the new emergency management leadership paradigm wherein the emergency manager must interact with all economic sectors when preparing and implementing emergency mitigation plans?”

The Laub Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) research questionnaire was used to gather data on the leadership style of EMs. The survey was distributed to leader, peer, and subordinate members of Safeguard Iowa Partner (SIP), each of whom are members of the emergency management team.

The results of this study added knowledge to the literature about the type of leadership currently exhibited by EMs and how leadership teams reacted to different emergency management leadership styles. This study has the potential to incur positive changes in the way EMs are trained and how they approach their management responsibilities. In the event SL emerges as the most viable model of leadership for the

field, better training can be developed for EMs. The results of this study might also encourage other researchers to examine emergency management leadership, thus adding even more knowledge and data on the subject.

In this chapter, I reviewed the traditional approach to emergency management leadership which is paramilitary in nature and what is known about the use of SL in emergency management services. I discussed the central aim of the study and described research questions and hypotheses. This was an observational study that employed a quantitative methodology. The methodology was described, as well as the instrument used in this study—the Laub OLA.

Background

The goal of this research project was to ascertain if the SL model is viable for the new emergency management leadership paradigm wherein EMs must interact with all economic sectors when preparing and implementing emergency mitigation plans (Department of Homeland Security, 2018b). In this study, I used the Laub OLA research questionnaire. The sample included all members of SIP which consists of 752 individuals from more than 200 organizations and all three economic sectors.

Approval to conduct this study on this sample of individuals was obtained from SIP. I was willing to accept an error level of + or – 5%. Isreal (1992) recommends a sample size of 255 with a population total of 700, but where the population is very small the researcher should consider using the entire population (Isreal, 1992). Because the cost

of disseminating the survey to the entire population is not appreciably impacted, the survey was distributed to all 700 members.

The NIMS and NRF have incorporated the inclusion of all partners, including NGOs and private sector organizations, in the disaster planning process and in the actual response to disasters (Department of Homeland Security, 2013). Problems with the inclusion of other than public sector emergency management personnel occur when the EM or incident commander has little or no leadership skills or values in interacting outside of the typical paramilitary structure of the government emergency management environment (Waugh & Streib, 2006). To manage incidents effectively, the EM must have a different skill set from most other managers (Waugh & Streib, 2006).

In the past, EMs employed positional power during emergencies, but the new paradigm recognizes positional power can often become counterproductive (Bass, 2008). EMs often lead teams composed of individuals from both within and outside their organization, who may have different goals and objectives. The EM needs to be both firm and flexible, and the characteristics necessary to successfully lead these cross-sector teams go well beyond the skill set required for a paramilitary organization (Demiroz & Kapucu, 2012). Will an EM who is a servant leader better interact with members from all three sectors?

Demiroz and Kapucu (2012) found that one of the most often cited reasons for EM failure is the inability to manage inter-sector collaborative efforts. The differences among sectors, and failing to prioritize specific team members, can cause the team to

react negatively during both the preparation period and an actual emergency. When a leader unwisely delegates power or fails to delegate when it is appropriate to do so, the incident can rapidly deteriorate into loss of life or additional damages (Alexander, 2002). If the incident commander is overconfident or fails to analyze the incident appropriately, he or she risks losing the respect of the organization and incurring additional losses the mitigation plan seeks to reduce (Alexander, 2002). The incident command model, under the new paradigm, requires the leader to be much more than dictatorial, and, as such, requires qualities heretofore considered unnecessary for the incident commander.

Public administrators and business leaders should be cognizant of future manufactured disasters as they often misread or fail to recognize such impending disasters. Unlike natural disasters, wherein the business management has a predilection to prepare for the potential event, the EM must convince these leaders to plan for man-made disasters so the leader can respond appropriately (Boin & Hart, 2003). While many public administrators become comfortable with top-down intra-organizational circumstance, disasters often occur in situations involving other than inter-organizational circumstances. The need to work with people from all sectors is of paramount importance to political and business leaders and EMs alike (Boin & Hart, 2003).

A collaborative EM is a necessity when dealing with manufactured and natural disasters. A new leadership paradigm has collaboration as the key characteristics for successful emergency management (Waugh & Streib, 2006). The typical top-down hierarchy must be replaced by a leader that garners power from effective strategies based

upon an impactful vision for the future (Waugh & Streib, 2006). The EM's responsibility goes well beyond disaster management to include disaster mitigation, disaster preparedness, and post-disaster recovery.

While 9/11 and Hurricane Katrina resulted in a move back to control and command leadership model, this move is in direct conflict with the NIMS, which calls for a more nuanced paradigm in which the EM works across sectors to manage diverse organizations (Waugh & Streib, 2006).

For the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA, 2011) to answer the call to catastrophic disasters in an efficient manner, more accountability must be assumed by state and local governments, private sector and not-for-profit organizations, as well as the local citizenry (Bucci, S., Inserra, D., Lesser, J., Mayer, M., Slattery, B., Spencer, J.S., & Tubb, K., 2013). Many local citizens responded to Hurricane Sandy by helping those afflicted in any way they could, but the EM did not provide these citizens with training (Bucci et al., 2013).

Disaster preparedness must first allow citizens to care for each other with no interference from the government. For example, during Sandy, neighbors helped deliver a baby using flashlights and glow sticks because first responders were not immediately available (Bucci et al., 2013). Only after local constituents have provided initial response should emergency responders step in because approximately 85% of critical infrastructure is managed by the private sector. Private sector organizations must be convinced to assess risks accurately in order to provide the real initial response to

disasters (Bucci et al., 2013). These NGOs are critical to providing resources necessary for the first stage in successful mitigation efforts (Bucci et al., 2013).

Although there has been significant research on public sector leadership in general, there have been limited studies on the SL model and emergency management. Greenleaf (1977) and Burns (1978) pioneered the study of SL, with explorations of the effect of the moral behavior of leaders on group results. More recently, through the efforts of the Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership and researchers such as Bethal, Blanchard, Frick, Spears, and Laub, the literature has focused significantly on servant leadership's impact on organizational outcomes (Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2018).

The new multisector collaborative environment the EM encounters in a post 9/11 world necessitates the need for a new style of leadership that focuses on the ability to lead and not merely manage the environment during critical incidents (Boin & Hart, 2003; Bucci et al., 2013; Demiroz & Kapucu, 2012; Waugh & Streib, 2006).

EMs need a new way of thinking about their own leadership style and management practices. Effective emergency management leadership is vital for the modern public-sector organization (Laub, 2000). There is consensus that the new multisector collaborative environment the EM encounters in a post 9/11 world necessitates the need for a new style of leadership that focuses on the ability to lead, not merely manage, the environment during critical incidents (Boin & Hart, 2003; Bucci et al., 2013; Demiroz & Kapucu, 2012; Waugh & Streib, 2006). Through this

research, I addressed a gap in the literature on the leadership style required of emergency services professionals as they work across sectors in a post 9/11 world. Little attention had been given by researchers and professionals to the changing requirements of leadership in contemporary emergency services management. SL had not been thoroughly investigated as a potential model for emergency services leadership and deserves further consideration.

Through the results of this study I added knowledge about whether the SL style is appropriate for the changing nature of emergency services management. There had been few studies that provided empirical data on what style of leadership EMs currently employ and effect SL had on perceptions of effectiveness by the management team. This knowledge is needed to enable the field to design better leadership training programs for managers and to recruit personnel who have the requisite leadership qualities needed in contemporary emergency management.

Problem Statement

The purpose of this study was to address the problem of leadership capacity in emergency management. Questions that guided the literature search and development of this study included, “Are emergency managers still largely using the outmoded paramilitary style of leadership?;” “If not, what style of leadership are they employing?;” and “Is SL a mode of leadership commonly employed and if so, does this style of leadership lead to greater team effectiveness?”

Problems with the inclusion of other than public sector emergency management personnel occur when the EM or incident commander has little or no leadership skills or values in interacting outside of the typical paramilitary structure of the government emergency management environment (Waugh & Streib, 2006). Because 85% of the nation's critical infrastructure is owned and controlled by the private sector it is no longer possible for the emergency management organization to mitigate damage to or destruction of the country's infrastructure without the help of the other sectors (Chalfant, 2017; FEMA, 2011). This will create an organization that cannot adequately protect the nation's critical infrastructure.

EMs can have either a positive or negative effect on outcomes after a disaster. The EM must practice circumstances that may occur in an emergency. In addition to the typical government organizations involved in these exercises, the EM must include members of the private and non-profit sectors (McEntire & Myers, 2004). Collaborative efforts such as these require the EM to possess skills not typical of a paramilitary organization. EMs must possess the ability to motivate all involved in the incident, as well as to compromise, mediate, and facilitate. Further, the EM must be able to clearly communicate to all involved in the incident, whether it be during a practice session or a real disaster (McEntire & Myers, 2004).

Padilla (2015) posited that the position of EM, unlike others in the public sector, has few leadership prerequisites. There is a need for a more structured set of leadership criterion across the United States to recruit proficient emergency management across

multiple sectors. Successful multi-sector partnerships that are based upon cooperation rather than competition employ a strategic long-term view in decision making. These groups share common goals and involve all team members in the decision-making process. The need for multi-sector collaborative groups is accentuated when solving complex problems in a global environment (see Padilla, 2015).

Bryson, Crosby, and Middleton (2015) proposed the need for a multi-sector collaborative effort to create an environment in which the independence of the project and resources needed are recognized by executive leadership from all members. The EM should recognize the interdependence of all members of the team and work to eliminate preconceived notions by members of the team about other members. The EM often operates in a contrarian environment (Waugh & Streib, 2006). The EM must prepare with a detail unlike most other leaders yet still be nimbly instinctive when responding to a changing environment. The EM must be a collaborative leader who is able to work with all sectors to mitigate the effects of disasters in their community (Waugh & Streib, 2006).

Whereas Wooten and James (2008) studied corporate leadership, their results are useful in considering how the EM relates to public sector leadership. The authors opined that there are five phases in a crisis: “signal detection, preparation and prevention, damage control and containment, business recovery, and reflection and learning” (Wooten & James, 2008, pp. 355-356). The EM must prepare for these five phases.

Russell, Broome, and Prince’s (2016) findings support the theory that SL fits well in the emergency management environment. They found the traditional top-down form of

leadership within firefighting organization causes internal strife and often leads to poor morale among firefighters. They found that firefighters believed the EM should first serve their team, develop followers, meet the team member's needs, and listen to their apprehensions. These attributes reflect the SL mode. The authors suggest there is a need to introduce SL into the EM's training programs (see Russell et al., 2016).

Few research studies were located that examined SL in the new emergency management organization. There were thousands of articles about SL in the public-sector. However, when further limiting the results to SL studies specific to the emergency management organization, there were only three. None of these studies investigated SL in emergency management. Rather, they looked at emergency management leaders' propensity for paramilitary style leadership. There was no literature on the presence of SL in emergency management organizations or how the EM's leadership style affects the perceived effectiveness of the emergency management organization by management team members. I addressed this gap in understanding how common SL is in emergency management and the effect of different leadership styles on team members' perceived effectiveness of the organization.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a relationship between the perceived presence of SL and perceived organizational effectiveness, in emergency management, as perceived by emergency managers and personnel who belong to SIP. Effective emergency management leadership is vital for the modern public-sector

organization (Laub, 2000). The OLA (see Appendix B) was designed specifically to measure perceived SL and organizational effectiveness (Laub, 1999). The OLA includes 66 questions with Likert scale responses ranging from one to five. Respondents are asked for their level of agreement with each question. The OLA described six dimensions of leadership and asks the respondent to rate the organization's effectiveness.

The independent variable in this study was perceived presence of SL and the dependent variable was perceived organizational effectiveness. The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a relationship between perceived leadership style and perceived organizational effectiveness and to examine differences in the strength of the relationships by position in the organization (e.g., manager, team member, etc.). In addition, mean subscale scores were contrasted based upon the demographic covariables of gender, educational level, type of organization, position, age, and years in the group.

Each member of SIP received an email inviting them to complete the survey and a letter of participation making each member aware of the voluntary nature of their participation. Once respondents returned their responses to the OLA group, the data were analyzed using Pearson's correlation, Spearman's rho, Mann-Whitney u or the Kruskal-Wallis H test of association. Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated to determine reliability of the subscales and responses (see Yilmaz et al., 2016).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Since Laub first introduced the OLA, numerous researchers have analyzed the relationship between perceived presence of SL and perceived organizational effectiveness, as measured as job satisfaction. The measure has demonstrated strong reliability and validity. Several studies found a positive association between perceived job satisfaction and the perceived presence of SL (Wilson, 2013). However, no studies have examined this relationship using a sample of emergency managers (Wilson, 2013).

Research Questions

RQ1: Do members of the Safeguard Iowa Partners perceive the presence of SL within local emergency management organizations?

RQ2: Is there an association between the perceived presence of SL and perceived effectiveness of the emergency management organization as reported by members of the Safeguard Iowa Partners?

RQ3: Is there a difference in mean subscale scores by demographic covariables. (Yilmaz, 2013)

Hypotheses

H1 1: There is perceived SL within the emergency management organizations.

H1 2: There is an association between the perceived presence of SL and perceived organizational effectiveness in the emergency management organization.

H1 3: There is no difference in mean subscale scores by covariables.

Theoretical Framework

The SL framework provided a theoretical foundation for this study. SL is more than merely a leadership style; it changes the leadership paradigm when the leader sees her or himself as a servant who places the best interests of the team members first (Laub, 2000). The SL finds it easy to first serve the follower. An obvious difference between the SL and other leadership models is the former must first become concerned with the needs of followers, and in so doing, followers become wiser, freer, more autonomous, and even more likely to become leaders themselves (Greenleaf, 1977).

Through this study, I attempted to ascertain whether this new paradigm of leadership might produce a more efficient emergency management team within the multi-sector emergency management organization. While working within the multi-sector organization, does the emergency management team operate at a higher level? (see Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2018). I further endeavored to determine if this morality-based style increased perceptions of a more efficient organization.

Additionally, Greenleaf's theory of servant leadership was based on the idea that in order to change an organization the leader must produce enough followers willing to help in a morally acceptable way (Greenleaf, 1970). SL enhances the performance of organizations because employees or members are more apt to follow the leader. Laub (1999) found significant correlation between SL and employee performance due to the employee's propensity to follow leadership as an example.

Previously dominant paradigms of leadership seemed to be entwined with power, authority, status, and position within the organization (Laub, 2000). The servant leader, however, believes service is a more efficient way of achieving the shared objectives of the team as well as the organization. In so doing, the servant leader uses positional power to benefit the individual team member not the team leader (Laub, 2000).

It is thought that SL results in a more just organization when the leader acts first as a servant to the team members (Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2018). The servant leader has a natural predilection first to serve and then to lead. Questions asked by Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) about SL included: "Are some persons more content with SL and therefore more likely to follow the servant leader?;" "Can SL values be scientifically measured?;" and "What values more likely to advance the application and success of SL?" The OLA answered these questions in the affirmative and was used as the primary vehicle for this study.

Nature of the Study

I employed a quantitative, research methodology and used a positivist theoretical framework to determine associations between the independent and dependent variables (see Bryman, 2017). Quantitative studies explain events using quantifiable data and statistical analyses and all research designs have four pieces, including (a) Which paradigm is needed to provide the information needed, (b) Who or what is examined, (c) What strategy is needed, and (d) How the data will be collected (Yilmaz, 2013). Quantitative studies use quantifiable data to analyze relationships between variables.

Because there were no open-ended questions in the survey, the research methodology in this study was quantitative and not mixed methods (Yilmaz, 2013). In addition, it is understood that the variables can be operationalized, and I had hypotheses that (a) could be proven false, (b) could be grounded on empirical evidence, and (c) were subject to vigorous testing (see Hjorland, 2016).

The OLA, as designed and tested by James Laub, Ph.D., was created to test an organization's propensity toward SL as perceived by the organization's members. Specifically, the OLA features a Likert style set of questions to assess perception of SL and the relative perception of satisfaction with the emergency management organization (Laub, 2000). Using bivariate analyses, the relationship between key variables were analyzed to test the hypotheses.

The sample population was 752 management and team members from (a) emergency management teams, (b) non-profit partners, and (c) private sector partners. All were members of SIP, a non-profit group organized to bring together all involved in the emergency disaster mitigation and preparation industry. I obtained approval from SIP and included a letter of permission from the group's leadership.

The independent variable was the perceived presence of SL in an organization. SL was measured by calculating sub-scale scores for six domains of organizational and leadership practices that reflect SL: (a) shares leadership, (b) displays authenticity, (c) values people, (d) develops people, (e) builds community, and (f) provides leadership (see Laub, 1999).

The dependent variable was the perceived organizational effectiveness measured by calculating a sub-scale score for responses to questions related to this domain (see Laub, 1999). An additional dependent variable examined the satisfaction with the local emergency management team as measured by organizational effectiveness. Laub found that the presence of SL characteristics within organizations correlates positively with key organizational health factors: employee job satisfaction, trust in leaders and organizations, organizational safety, team effectiveness, and student achievement scores (Laub et al, 2019).

In this study, I also examined whether there were differences in OLA subscale scores by key demographic and organizational variables. Correlations were conducted to determine if the relationship between SL and organizational effectiveness remained when demographic covariates such as sex or ethnicity were included. Covariates included gender, age, ethnicity, educational background, position, and years involved in emergency management. Respondents included mangers, team members, and upper leadership of the SIP.

Operational Definitions

Emergency management: The supervisory model that provides the structure in the local community and is charged with the responsibility of preparing for and mitigating the damages resulting from disasters (Department of Homeland Security, 2018b).

Multi-sector collaborative project (MSCP): An alliance consisting of members from the public, private, and not-for-profit sectors formed to solve issues involving the community as a whole (Bucci et al., 2013).

National Incident Management System (NIMS): An inclusive national methodology for critical incident response that includes members of government at all levels, as well as all sectors of the U.S. economy (Department of Homeland Security, 2018b).

National Response Framework: A model designed to provide a scalable, and flexible response to critical incidents as identified in NIMS (Department of Homeland Security, 2013).

Servant leadership (SL): A belief and set of guidelines that creates improved organizations resulting in a more just world when the leader acts first as a servant to the team members (Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2018).

Co-Independent Variable Definitions

The OLA includes six co- variables of SL. These six subscale scores are compared to the organizational effectiveness score to determine organizational health. The six subscale scores are:

Builds community: The SL builds community when he or she encourages and builds the team member, enhances relationships with team members, relating well with team members, works in a collaborative manner with team members rather than being

dictatorial, and allows for a diversified workforce and understands individuality builds a well-versed organization (Laub, 2000).

Develops people: The SL develops people by providing team members with opportunities for advancement, uses power to benefit the team members, encourages a learning environment, leads by showing team members appropriate behaviors, and develops all team members to their upmost potential (Laub, 2000).

Displays authenticity: The SL displays authenticity by admitting personal limitations and errors in judgement, promotes open communications, is non-judgmental, and performs at the highest levels of honesty and integrity (Laub, 2000).

Provides leadership: The SL provides leadership by envisioning the future through foresight, encourages risk-takers to envision a future unseen by most, has a clear understanding of the tasks at hand but allows others to perform those tasks, and delineates a clear set of goals and objectives while also providing the team members with updates on the progress toward those goals (Laub, 2000).

Shares leadership: The manager who shares leadership (ShL) by sharing power and empowering team members; uses persuasion rather than coercion; is humble; does not seek special status (Laub, 2000).

Values people: The SL values people by respecting team members, showing appreciation for all efforts, actively listens to team members, and puts the needs of the team above their own (Laub, 2000).

Assumptions

For this study I assumed that (a) The respondents answered the question truthfully, (b) The OLA is a validated instrument for measuring the perceived presence of SL, (c) The OLA is a valid instrument for measuring the correlation between SL and job satisfaction, And (d) Survey respondents were representative of the emergency management community as a whole and SIP in particular

Scope and Delimitations

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between perceived SL in EM organizations and perceived organizational effectiveness. The OLA had been selected to precisely measure the presence of SL in organizations. Other types of leadership in the organization were not studied because this is beyond the scope of the research questions. While it may be interesting to look at the relationship of other types of leadership and perceived org effectiveness, there are too many different leadership models for the scope of this study. Furthermore, the presence of top-down or paramilitary leadership and management styles were measured, but it is possible that these leadership models are still dominant in some areas of the EM. It is possible that a different style of leadership is also associated with greater perceived organizational effectiveness (OE), but assessing this relationship was beyond the scope of the study.

A delimitation of the study was that it examined the relationship of perceived SL to organizational effectiveness and job satisfaction. The perceived presence of SL has been shown to have a relationship with perceived OE. I decided this was the best variable

to choose for the dependent variable because the Laub study results showed that these variables were correlated. Other outcome variables may also be associated with SL, but it was beyond the scope of this study to look at all other variables.

The OLA was distributed to all members of the SIP—a non-profit organization whose stated purpose is to act as a synergistic group that coordinates emergency management training and incident mitigation to relevant groups in the state of Iowa. Because the members are concerned with critical incident mitigation, each has a level of interaction with public sector emergency management organizations. As such, the membership's perception of the presence of SL and the relevant level of organizational effectiveness is seen as a bellwether. The only prerequisite is membership in SIP without regard to any other qualifier.

The study was expected to have high external validity because the OLA has been found to accurately measure SL and OE. It also was expected to have high internal reliability because Laub's studies have demonstrated the OLA has strong psychometrics. Conducting a reliability analysis on the data added evidence for the internal reliability of the OLA instrument. Because I employed a Likert scale, the data were considered practical, expedient, and easily understood (see Yilmaz et al., 2016).

The scope of this study was limited to SIP, but findings may be generalizable to emergency management teams in other states with similar demographic makeups and emergency management team structures. The findings are not generalizable to big city emergency management teams because the nature of the planning and mitigation work is

different. Findings are not generalizable to other public sector collaborative teams or other public-sector organizations because the nature of EM work is different.

Limitations

Generalizability of the data may be limited because only the Iowa emergency management organizations are included as participants. As such, emergency management teams from large metropolitan areas may not operate within the Iowa paradigm. The subjects of the study included the partners of SIP. Because all partners are, by their membership, more in tune with the emergency management organization, their opinions may not be indicative of the smaller private and non-profit sectors of the U.S. economy, as some do not have the resources to devote to disaster mitigation issues (Slater & Narver, 2000).

While it was assumed that SIP sponsorship may increase return percentages, it was possible that the time it took to complete the survey could negatively impact the participation rate (see Slater & Narver, 2000). It was also possible that the non-parametric design of the survey may not provide verifiable, empirical data within acceptable levels of confidence needed (see White & Sabarwal, 2014).

Another limitation of this study is that participants could have not been familiar with the intricacies of SL and therefore, may not have been capable of providing verifiable data (see Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005). Because this study was observational, the environment could not be controlled, as. is possible in an experimental design (see

White & Sabarwal, 2014). Additionally, while SL is instinctively credible, there was little agreement among SL scholars on which SL construct is best.

Finally, assuming results as interval-level could cause statistical anomalies in data (see White & Sabarwal, 2014). For example, while Norman (2010) stated parametric statistics without normal distribution may result in acceptable results with as little as four or five responses, I understood that this opinion was not necessarily a consensus view.

Significance

EMs are public servants. As servants of the public, they should also be servant leaders. The SL model provides guidelines for improving organizations, resulting in an improved environment for all team members when the leader acts first as a servant to the team members (Robert Greenleaf Center, 2018). In a post 9/11 world, the EM must operate in a collaborative environment that includes members from all economic sectors. This multi-sector alliance, consisting of members from the public, private and non-profit sectors, was formed to solve issues involving the community as a whole (Bucci et al., 2013). The emergency management community as a whole was represented by SIP members and was the unit of analysis for this study.

It may be that the form of leadership most conducive to a successful emergency management organization is the SL model. The lack of empirical evidence specific to the emergency management organization and SL indicated the significance of this study. The results of this research study could inform changes in the selection process for EMs

related to the candidates' leadership abilities. Most of the current selection processes are dependent upon the basic skill level of the appointee rather than leadership expertise.

Furthermore, establishing a relationship between perceived SL and perceived OE might lead to better training programs for emergency management team leaders and managers. It might also inspire the development of SL training programs for emergency management teams.

The potential social change resulting from this research may be the acceptance of a morality-based leadership modeling in the emergency manager selection process. Because there is a dearth of leadership studies including SL model, the results of this study may shed some light on its use in this arena. It could help the field of EM move from acceptance of the paramilitary leadership model toward a new model of SL in emergency management team that embraces collaboration and service to individual members with ethical behavior at its very core.

Summary

Since the 9/11 attacks, the leadership skill required by EMs has been largely reconsidered and reexamined. While EMs once served as a para-military directive manager, the new collaborative paradigm the EM operates within is considerably more complex. In order to adhere to NIMS or the NRF, the EM can no longer use positional power because the most often cited reason for EM failure is the inability to manage in a multi-sector collaborative environment (Demiroz & Kapucu, 2012).

While there is significant research in the public sector regarding leadership skill, there is little research on leadership skill in relation to the EM. Russell et al. (2016) proposed that the SL style fits well in the collaborative emergency management organizational paradigm. The authors argued that the EM should first serve the team, develop followers, meet other members' needs, then listen to their apprehensions. The presence of the six different domains of SL can be assessed using the OLA. In this study, I attempted to determine if there was a perceived presence of SL in the EM organization as determined by participants from all sectors involved in the planning or mitigation of critical incident preparedness in Iowa.

In this quantitative study, I employed a Likert scale questionnaire. Domains of SL were compared using Pearson's correlation. Internal reliability was measured by obtaining Cronbach's Alpha on each OLA subscale and the entire instrument. Some of the data were not normally distributed; therefore, a Kruskall-Wallis test was used to measure differences in means by various participant characteristics. I analyzed the data using SPSS, version 25.

The significance of this study lies in measuring the presence of morality-based organizations within the emergency management sector. The servant leader, acting first as servant to lead this multi-sector project created a public-sector/private sector partnership operating at a higher level. Discovering the association between the perceived presence of SL and the perceived effectiveness of the emergency management

organization might ultimately save lives as well as save significant resources for both the public and private sectors.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Laub (1999) found that the presence of SL in organizations correlated positively with key organizational health factors including employee job satisfaction, trust in leaders and organizations, organizational safety, team effectiveness, and student achievement scores.

The NIMS and the NRF have incorporated the inclusion of all partners, including NGOs and private sector organizations, in the disaster planning process and in the actual response to disasters. Problems with the inclusion of other than public sector emergency management personnel occur when the EM or incident commander has little or no leadership skills or values in interacting outside of the typical paramilitary structure of the government emergency management environment. Because 85% of the nation's critical infrastructure is owned and controlled by the private sector, it is no longer possible for the emergency management organization to mitigate damage to or destruction of the country's infrastructure without the help of the other sectors (Chalfant, 2017; FEMA, 2011).

The purpose of this study was to determine if there is a relationship between the perceived presence of SL in the EM's organization, among the various members of the emergency management team, and perceived organizational effectiveness. Effective emergency management leadership is vital for the modern public-sector organization (Laub, 2000). The OLA (see Appendix B) was designed specifically to lead the

researcher to these specific findings using a Likert scale style questionnaire, correlation analysis, and Kruskall-Wallis H test (Laub, 1999, 2019).

While there is a significant amount of research on public sector leadership in general, there have been relatively few studies regarding the SL model and emergency management. Greenleaf (1977) and Burns (1978) pioneered the study of the concept of SL with explorations of the effects of the moral behavior of leaders on group results (Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2018). More recently, through the efforts of the Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership and other researchers, including Bethal, Blanchard, Frick, Spears and Laub, the focus in the field has been on the impact of the servant leader on organizational outcomes (Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2018).

In this chapter, I reviewed the literature on leadership management styles within emergency service organizations and coalitions. This includes what has been written about SL and the more traditional paramilitary style leadership in emergency management. I discussed the role of transformational leadership in emergency services management. Finally, I review the theoretical foundation for this study, its key variables, the James Laub studies and the OLA tool. The chapter ended with a summary and conclusion.

Literature Search Strategy

As in any field, the work of several scholars considered experts in the field emerges. Such is the case with leadership. James MacGregor Burns and Bernard Bass are

arguably the preeminent voices on leadership today. As important as Burns' work appears to be, this project explored the works of many different scholarly approaches to leadership. Included in the discussion are a synopsis of each approach, each approach's strengths and weaknesses, and, finally, a review of the instruments that each approach employs.

This literature review was conducted using EBSCO and Google Scholar. Research terms included *servant leadership, multi-sector collaborative projects, leadership in the public sector,* and *leadership in emergency management organizations.* I used few filters to limit the results and, as a result, read through thousands of study abstracts to ascertain relevant data. In order to understand the historical significance of SL, I initially filtered the year of publication back to 2012 but subsequently expanded the search for studies back to 1999 when the OLA was first published. When examining studies regarding SL on the EBSCO data bases, I found tens of thousands of studies. When limiting the SL studies to the public-sector, thousands of results were uncovered and when further limiting the results to SL studies specific to emergency management organization, three studies were found.

Theoretical Foundation

Goffee and Jones (2011) proposed that a provocative question to quiet a room full of leaders might be, "Why would anyone want to be led by you?" (p. 79). The authors further asserted that scholars dating back to Plato have been wondering about leadership skills. However, the first attempt to quantify leadership theory did not occur until the

1920s when researchers began to study trait theory, followed by style theory in the 1940s. Eventually researchers discovered flaws in style theory and began to consider newer theories in their quest to discover the ultimate leadership model (Goffee & Jones, 2015).

Leaders can obtain their position in one of three ways, including (a) they can be appointed to the position by a person in a superior position, (b) be elected by constituents, or (c) be self-appointed. The inclination of the leader to become a transformative leader, and therefore have a lasting effect on the group, can often depend upon how the leadership position is obtained (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) developed and tested an instrument entitled the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS). The genesis of the SLS began with Greenleaf's original thesis "The Servant as Leader" (Greenleaf, 1970). In addition to the research of Spears (2004), the research of Laub, Russell and Stone, and Patterson contributed to the initial construction of the SLS questionnaire (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011).

The basic premise of Greenleaf's SL theory is that the servant leader has a natural feeling first to serve their followers (Greenleaf, 1977). The primary difference between SL and other leadership models is that, with the former, leaders first care for the needs of the followers. The SL model concentrates on the growth and development of the followers by ascertaining whether the followers "become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 6).

SL requires a particular belief system and a set of guidelines in which the leader acts first as a servant to the team members thereby creating a more efficient emergency

management organization (Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2018). The servant leader, acting in the best interests of the multi-sector emergency services coalition, may create a public-sector private sector partnership that operates at a higher level (Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2018). This is in comparison to an EM who uses a more traditional paramilitary style of leadership. In this study, I addressed the question of whether morality-based SL within emergency management services has a perceived effect on organizational effectiveness.

The History of Leadership Studies

Bass (2008) posited that leadership training can begin in childhood. The standards of behavior learned during this time can often give potential leaders an advantage over their peers. In addition, both on the job experience and classroom training can be very effective in producing effective leaders. Goffee and Jones (2015) identified four myths about leadership: First, anyone can be a leader; the reality is that many managers simply do not have the skill or personality to become a leader. Second, leaders' business results are always exemplary; many company cultures are such that management cannot produce exemplary results. Third, people who reach the pinnacle of success within an organization are always the best leaders; but the reality is that many of the organizations' chief executives attained their success because they are politically savvy rather than because they possess real leadership ability. Fourth, successful leaders are terrific coaches; the reality is that technical abilities rarely are part and parcel to the leader. In more cases than not, the leader inspires rather than teaches.

Lewan (2001) proposed three notions of leadership, including (a) vision, or conveying the mission to the entire group; (b) focusing the group's actions on the job at hand to accomplish the mission; and (c) influencing in order to obtain the trust of the group so the mission is achieved.

Leadership Traits

Among the first, and most venerable leadership approaches to receive the scrutiny of scholars in the twentieth century was the trait approach. This particular study attempted to ascertain why certain people appear to come to the fore when running organizations, while others seemed to languish in mediocrity (Ghasabeh, Soosay, & Reaiche, 2015). These theories became known as "great man" theories, as the research seemed to focus on the innate qualities and character of some of our social, military, and political leaders. The theory espoused that only people born with these qualities could ultimately lead, and only these specific traits differentiated leaders from followers (Ghasabeh et al, 2015).

While many of the modern leadership theory scholars have abandoned the trait approach, some have proposed that conceptual and methodological progress in psychology allows the researcher to add variables to the trait approach that were not available in the mid-twentieth century (Popper, Amit, Gal, Mishkal-Sinai, & Lisak, 2004). In addition, a number of researchers have recently proposed that there is a correlation between leadership's personality traits and the positive or negative perceptions of group members (Ghasabeh et al, 2015).

By the 1970s, leadership traits began to lose its efficacy as a leadership methodology. Bass (2008) narrowed the theory into two time periods. First, he examined the period from 1904 to 1970 then the period from 1970 to 2006. Bass (2008) found there are several key attributes the effective leader portrays including intelligence, scholarship, dependability, and being actively involved in various social events. In addition, originality, popularity, assertiveness, and a keen sense of humor were found to be correlated with effective leadership (Bass, 2008). Finally, among the various studies examined during this time, there appears to be several general trait categories applicable to effective leaders including capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, and situational traits (Bass, 2008).

During the second period reviewed (1970-2006), studies seemed to indicate a significant change in thinking about traits of leadership. While the research indicated a more refined and detailed set of traits, the primary difference in study results showed a reconsideration of the concept of nature vs. nurture. Are leaders born with the necessary traits to become good leaders or do socio-environmental conditions ultimately determine the quality of the leader (Bass, 2008)?

The trait approach has been in a period of decline for a number of years; however, recent research has given scholars a significant amount of data regarding the correlation of leadership models and employee work performance variables such as job satisfaction and motivation to perform (Popper et al., 2004). What is missing is information regarding the forces at work within the leader's psyche, such as what causes a leader's followers to

describe the leader as arousing or enthusiastic. While the authors called for additional research, empirical evidence suggests, to a certain extent, that the leader's traits do influence group performance (Popper et al., 2004).

The Skills Model

While various scholars have studied the skills approach to leadership, Mumford, Marks, Connelly, Zaccaro, and Reiter-Palmon (2000) began a series of studies on the approach and developed a comprehensive skill-based model. The skills model melds the leader's individual attributes, competencies, leadership outcomes, career expectations and environmental influences, from internal and external forces, as basic components of an operational model. The competencies include:

- Problem solving skills which Mumford et al (2000) generally defined as the leader's creative ability to solve problems
- Social judgment skills consider the leader's ability to understand people in the organizational societal setting
- Perspective taking describes the leader's ability to comprehend the follower's views on an issue
- Social perspective relates to the leader's understanding of other functional operations in the organization
- Social performance includes a wide array of competencies primarily having to do with leader/follower interactions and the leader's ability to

communicate her or his vision, the organizational goals, and the changes necessary to reach those milestones

- The knowledge to apply and implement the above skill sets in the organization (Mumford et al, 2000).

In addition to the above competencies, the leader needs a considerable number of individual attributes such as general cognitive ability, ability to retain information learned over time, motivation, and personality (Mumford et al, 2000).

Bass (2008) proposed another significant element to the skills model. The successful leader and follower experience similar values within the organization. The successful leader convinces the group to regard the same values as important to the organization (Bass, 2008).

Several studies found similar results regarding the skills-based model. Mumford el al. (2000) focused on leadership characteristics and complex problem-solving ability, social judgment, and knowledge specific to each organization. Connelly et al. (2000) examined the relationship between complex leader skills and knowledge, to problem solving and actual performance results, thereby ignoring Mumford et al.'s reliance on a de-emphasis of these as ultimate criteria.

Connelly et al. (2000) asserted that their study, in effect, provided empirical support for Mumford et al (2000) skills model in the private sector. The authors further concluded their study confirmed the reliability and validity of the construct in each study. While an Army study emphasized creative thinking, problem solving, and social

judgment skills, a civilian leadership study found a tendency toward the importance of personality and motivational skills in those results.

The Style Approach

According to Bass (2008) there are several stylistic approaches to the leader/follower continuum including: autocratic vs. democratic, directive vs. participative, task vs. relations and initiation vs. consideration. These considerations involve the level of participation in the decision-making process between the leader and follower.

Empirical evidence indicates that while initial results are better with the authoritarian style, long-term results, including job satisfaction, are significantly better with the participative democratic leader (Bass, 2008). Participative style leaders obtain the best results when the followers' commitment is of significance, while the directive type leader gets better results when the structure is of import (Bass, 2008).

While there have been a significant number of studies regarding the style model approach dating back to the mid-twentieth century, two major studies include the Ohio State University (OSU) study and the Michigan State University (MSU) study. OSU was conducted in the late 1940s and MSU was conducted in the early 1960s (Liu, Fellows, & Fang, 2003). The OSU studies detected two uncorrelated dimensions for measuring leader's task behaviors which included defining role responsibilities and consideration behaviors such as the leader's concern for relationships like camaraderie (Liu et al., 2003). Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) identified a sequence of leadership styles from

those centered on the leader to those centered on the employee. They further delineated this style as the freedom granted to the employee based upon the leader's personality (Liu et al., 2003).

Blake and McCanse (1991) designed the Leadership Grid to help organizations reach their objectives by understanding where the leader placed her or his style. For example, when the leader shows more concern for production, this indicates a task orientation, while more concern for the employee indicates an employee orientation (Blake & McCanse, 1991). Figure 1 shows how the grid is used, depending upon the needs of the leader.

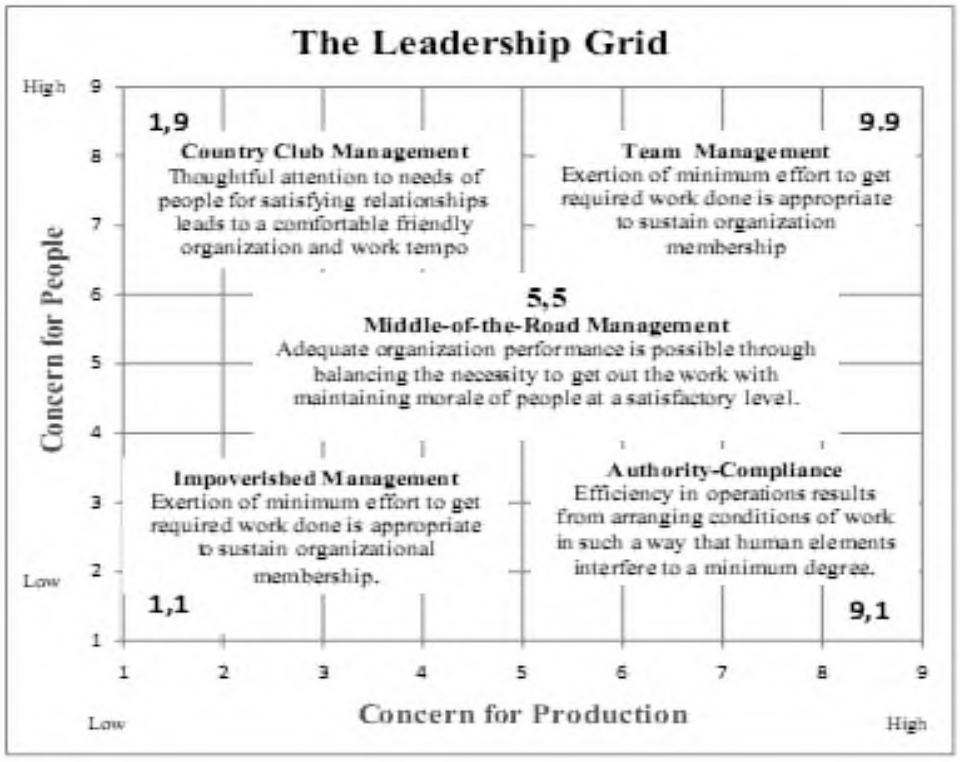

Figure 1. The Leadership Grid. Adapted from "Leadership Dilemmas--Grid Solutions," by R. R. Blake and A. A. McCanse, 1991, pp 29, 36. Copyright 1991 by Gulf Professional Publishing.

Situational Leadership

Blanchard, Zigrami & Zigami(1985) proposed "there is nothing so (sic) unequal as the equal treatment of unequal's (sic)" (p. 32). The authors identified as the most basic premise of their model that each employee is necessarily treated in a different fashion. There is a direct relationship between the directing style of the leader and the development level of the group member. For example, when the member is relatively new to the task and has a high level of commitment to the task but low task competence, the leader should direct the actions to be taken by the member and closely supervise the person. Conversely, the group member who has a high level of commitment and a high level of task competence should be managed from a distance by turning over the primary decision-making responsibility to the employee with an occasional meeting to ascertain progress (Blanchard, Zigarmi, Zigami, 2013).

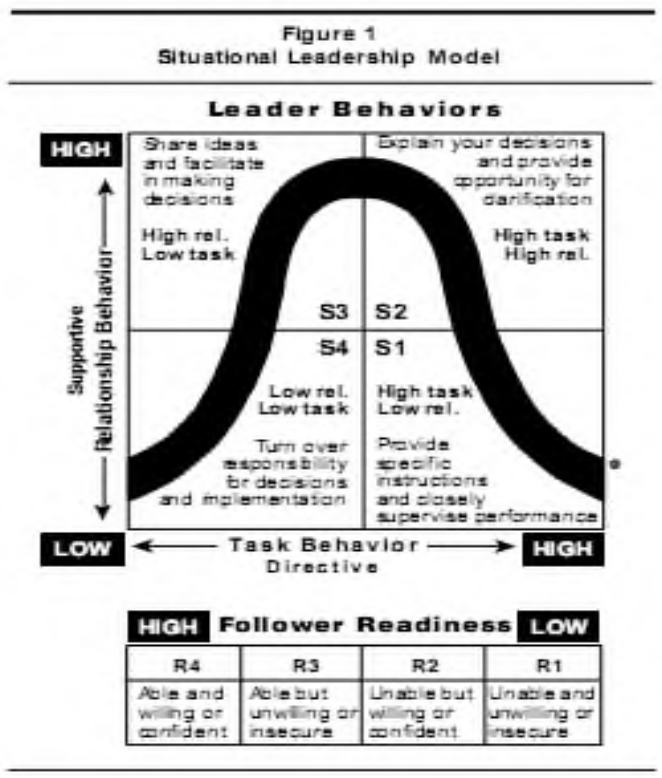

Figure 2. Situational Leadership Model "Adapted from Leadership and the One Minute Manager" by K. Blanchard, D. Zigami and P. Zigami, Copyright 1985, 2013 by Harper Publishing.

Hersey, one of the pioneers of the situational leadership model, was asked how important diagnosis skills are to the manager when trying to ascertain the appropriate quadrant for the member. This last statement is where the situational leader really becomes the type of manager that members will enthusiastically follow (Schermerhorn, 1997).

Knowing when the follower is ready to be treated as an R_4, able and willing to independently perform tasks assigned is an important part of the process of allowing the

leader a wider span of control (Schermerhorn, 1997). Critiques of the model include a relatively small number of scholarly studies testing the validity of the model. Secondly, there is a certain level of ambiguity within the model itself. Vecchio studied high school teachers and their principals. The results showed a tendency of newer teachers, treated as primarily in the S_1 quadrant, to perform well in that highly structured environment. As the teachers progressed to quadrants two, three, and four, the research was not convincing (Vecchio, 1987).

Transformational Leadership

While the transactional leader primarily uses reward or punishment in the leader/subordinate relationship, the transformational leader inspires the subordinate to move beyond their own self-interest to serve the higher purpose of the group or organization and often see the organization as more of a family (Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders generally move beyond the reward toward loyalty to the leader (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The consideration given to the development of the follower gives the transformative leader an advantage on both the laissez-faire and the transactional leader (Bass & Riggio, 2006). While the laissez-faire and transactional leader is found at the top of the organization, the transformative leader can reside anywhere within the organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Goffee and Jones (2015) posit an interesting theory by asking a room of leaders "Why would anyone want to be led by you?" The authors further asserted that there are qualities common to inspirational leaders: (a) Not concerned with showing their

weaknesses thereby making the leader seem more approachable, (b) Act intuitively when determining the appropriate course of action (c) Lead using compassion yet care about results (d) Emphasize their individuality and what is unique about the leader (Goffee & Jones, 2015).

In evaluating the transformational leadership model there emerged three basic components as measured in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), and intellectual stimulation (IS) (Bass, 2008). While effective leaders can be either or both transactional or transformational, there is empirical evidence that the transformational leader may be more effective for certain types of organizations (Bass, 2008).

Bass (2000) supported the concept of the six-factor model of transformational/transactional leadership's utility in increasing organizational satisfaction. Since research on transformational leadership began, results of studies have indicated a link between this leadership model and organizational satisfaction (Bass, 2000). Some leaders are both transactional and transformational, and therefore their performance can be rated separately by each domain. In other words, a leader can be rated exceptional as a transactional leader yet be considered average as a transformational leader. The transformational leader can improve awareness of the organization's needs while the transactional leader elicits the self-interest motivation of the follower (Bass, 2000).

One of the more significant issues involving transformational leadership is the link between theory and results (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & Spangler, 2004). Dionne et al. (2004) created a model consisting of four parts, beginning with the transformational leader looking for immediate outcomes, to team leader interaction (teamwork), to leading to team performance outcomes. This conceptualization moves the transformational leadership model from the theoretical to the practical by providing a practical format to lead the team from vision to performance outcomes (Dionne et al, 2004). As previously mentioned however, creating the format is sometimes a long way from explaining the how to (Pablo, Reay, Dewald, & Casebeer, 2007).

The transformational leadership construct includes three primary elements: (a) promotes an esteemed future and how that future might be attained; (b) allows the follower to think outside the box; (c) challenges the norm and tries to improve processes by trying new methodologies. As with Avolio's fourth primary behavior, the transformational element of Bass' construct allows for individualized treatment based upon the follower's needs (see Bass, 2000). The transactional elements of the construct include contingent reward, management by exception, and laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 2000).

Four initial constructs for transformational leadership are: (a) idealized influence where the leader leads by example; (b) inspirational motivation in which the leader inspires the follower to imagine an appealing future; (c) intellectual stimulation wherein the leader expects critical evaluations and thinking outside the norm; and (d) individual

considerations to the follower's need for acknowledgement of their achievements (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004).

In contrast, servant leaders primarily focus on the needs of the followers with little empirical evidence and defined systems (Stone et al., 2004). Stone et al. (2004) established a realistic and interconnected model outlining the SL paradigm. The most significant delineation between the servant and the transformational leader is the concentration of the leader. The servant leader concentrates on the subordinates with the organization's concerns as secondary, while the transformational leader's primary concern is the organization and through the leader's attitudinal actions followers are sutured to the organization (Stone et al., 2004). The transformational leader's character is of utmost concern. Elements of character includes a steadfast commitment to obtain the best results no matter the complexity along with an ethics-based values behavior system which is of upmost importance to the successful manager (Johnson, 2005, pp. 65, 69, 84, 85).

The transformational leader concentrates her or his actions based upon the needs of the organization using the employee/employer interaction to increase the concerns of the follower toward the organization, therefore encouraging the employee to become more concerned with the organization's wellbeing than their own (Stone et al., 2004). The four primary behaviors commensurate with the transformational leader as follows: idealized influence with the leader as a role model; inspirational motivation, where the leader spurs followers to subordinate their own concerns to that of the organization's;

intellectual stimulation: the leader motivates followers to think “outside the box” to increase innovation; and individualized consideration: like the servant leader, the transformational leader allocates attention to followers based upon their own needs (Stone et al., 2004).

The transformational leadership model is related to several other theories. The charismatic leadership model is arguably the closest to the transformational model. The transformational leader can also exhibit some of the same traits as a directive or participative leader and the leader-member exchange, because of its emphasis on the relationship between the leader and the follower, can also exhibit many of the same elements of the transformational leadership model (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The literature indicates that while all servant leaders are transformative, not all transformative leaders are servant leaders. Stone et al (2004) asserted that SL lacks empirical evidence and is not as well defined as is other leadership theories. The primary difference between SL and transformational leadership models is the sincere and honest concern with followers within the SL model, compared to the primary concern for organizational objectives within the transformational leadership model (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011)

The Servant Leader

There has been a significant increase in interest in the SL model as originally espoused by Greenleaf (Spears, 2002). The turn of the 21st century has seen previously accepted leadership styles move from the monocratic to those that emphasize the

participative, ethical, caring, and enhancement of personal growth leadership style. While the words SL are sometimes considered an oxymoron, the idea of SL is synchronic at its very core. As the need for team-oriented leadership where there is no real autocratic figure head increased, the concept of leader as a servant first begins to make more sense (Spears, 2002).

The original concept of the servant leader emanated from the book *Journey to the East* (Hesse, 1968). From this novel, Greenleaf spawned the idea that the journey to greatness occurred when the leader portends the role of servant to bring the group toward greatness (Greenleaf, 1991).

Greenleaf identified 10 basic tenets of SL:

- Listening: While the servant leader does need good communication and decision-making skills, he or she also needs to listen to the wants and needs of the follower.
- Empathy: The servant leader needs to show compassion for the follower, be aware of their concerns, and become an empathetic listener.
- Healing: The servant leader can recognize emotional harm and help heal the follower once hurt.
- Awareness: Helps the servant leader see issues involving the ethics and values of the organization. As posited by Greenleaf (1970), “the able leaders are sharply awake and reasonably disturbed.”

- Persuasion: Rather than relying on authoritarian or coercive power to convince followers, the servant leader builds consensus around a goal by allowing the followers to participate in decision making and planning.
- Conceptualization: The servant leader suggests individual idealism and allows the follower to see the euphoric future and guide them to that goal.
- Foresight: The servant leader learns from the past and present then applies those lessons to foresee potential pitfalls in the future.
- Stewardship: The servant leader holds the best interest of the group and institution in trust and only acts when the group and organization benefits.
- Commitment to the growth of people: The servant leader bolsters, sustains, and upholds the follower by encouraging involvement in group decisions making.
- Building community: The servant leader believes he or she can best lead by suggesting the group is more important than the organization, whenever making decisions. To lead the followers toward the community rather than the large institution, one works within (Spears, 2002).

Spears (2002) proposed that the SL model fits well in several different settings including the institution, educating and training trustees, community leadership programs, service and learning programs, leadership education, and personal transformation.

SL is intuitively credible but there is little agreement on the appropriate construct of an operational model. The servant leader has the ability to handle contradictory circumstances with relative ease. The servant leader creates leaders from followers more

often than other models. The real concern scholars have regarding the servant leader is the lack of agreed upon empirical evidence that the model works in real world circumstance (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006).

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) identified eleven attributes relative to the servant leader, and five to seven sub-items for each of these attributes. The resulting 56 items were then rewritten for clarity and grammar. Finally, the 56 revised items were tested for face validity using a qualitative study. Using a five-item Likert scale a leader and rater version were then tested for internal liability. After testing by comparison with transformational leadership and LMX models, a factor analysis reduced the eleven attributes to five unique subscales within the Barbuto and Wheeler instrument.

The first subscale is altruistic calling wherein the leader's calling is to make a favorable difference in the lives of followers. Secondly, emotional healing is the leader's ability to help followers recover from hardship or altercation. Third, wisdom combines cognizant and expectance of consequence to create favorable outcomes. Fourth, persuasive mapping portends the leader's ability to visualize outcomes from given current circumstances. Finally, organizational stewardship portends the leader's ability to make a positive outcome for the community as well as the organization (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006).

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) concluded that both the self and follower versions resulted in better outcomes than did LMX, and the psychometrics are validated within their study. However, the external validity needs further study for the private sector.

Being a leader is about giving much and receiving little (Lewan, 2001). Russell and Stone (2002) proposed that the servant leader obtains employee concurrence with organizational goals by serving first, thus allowing the followers to use their own abilities to better the organization itself (Stone et al., 2004). The leader must first consider themselves a servant. SL can change the very structure and appearance of the entity (Russell & Stone, 2002).

Because leadership, by its very nature, embodies the acquisition of power, it is conceivable that manipulation or corruption can negatively impact results for either the servant or transformational leader. The transformational leader often uses personal or charismatic power to actualize follower loyalty, thereby lessening the negativity normally associated with power of any kind. In contrast, the servant leader does not seek power per se. That does not preclude the servant leader from any negative result in the pursuit of results. Often the law of reciprocity can turn corrupt when the followers' acts of service turn toward the leader rather than the organization itself (Stone et al., 2004).

Stone et al. (2004) asserted there are significant similarities between the servant and transformational leader models in that both models establish leaders who beget significant trust between the leader and follower by becoming role models. While the transformational leader's focus is the organization, the servant leader's primary concern is the follower. Theoretically the follower then also becomes a servant and the cycle is complete.

Initially, the philosophy of leadership might best be uncovered through the use of qualitative methodology. Determining the differences in human behavioral complexities is of upmost importance. The researcher must first differentiate between, for example, management and leadership as phenomena (Barker, 2001). Cerff and Winston (2006) added hope as an element to be included in the SL model. As such, hope becomes a vital element in the development of the leader.

Vroom's expectancy theory includes three basic rudiments to motivation. First, effort will result in completion of the task. When the goal is achieved, reward will follow. Thirdly, the reward adds to job satisfaction (Cerff & Winston, 2006). Russell and Stone (2002) performed an extensive literature review to develop a researchable model for SL. The authors posit that existing SL models have functional as well as accompanying attributes. For example, the functional attribute of vision implies the leader foresees the organization with an idealized future. For that idealized vision to come to fruition that leader must impart that vision to the followers in such a way as to motivate them to accept that future as idealized. The key to success is to communicate the vision through consistent behavior as a servant first (Russell & Stone, 2002).

Servant leadership models.

A significant issue regarding the SL model seems to be a lack of empirical research on the subject. Despite the lack of viable research there is consensus on some basic characteristics common to existing models. Spears asserted that Greenleaf's initial ten characteristics are merely the beginning of the potential characteristics (Russell &

Stone, 2002). Further review of the literature concludes there are at least twenty characteristics common to the servant leader (Russell & Stone, 2002).

As we enter the new millennium there seems a trend from traditional monocratic leader centric leadership models toward one based upon teamwork and the entity as community “At its core, SL is a long term, transformational approach to life and work; in essence, a way of being that has the potential for creating positive change throughout our society” (Spears, 2002, p. 4).

Spears (2002) established 10 characteristics pertinent to Greenleaf’s SL modeling:

- Listening: Many leadership scholars have posited the need for excellent communication skills, including the ability for the leader to be an excellent listener
- Empathy: Spears proposed that the best leaders are those who have shown the ability to empathize with the followers’ ordeals
- Healing: Those considered exemplary servant leaders have shown a propensity toward helping to make the person whole after conflicts have occurred
- Awareness: Self-awareness invigorates the servant leader; it helps the servant leader better comprehend issues which includes ethical and values-based behavior
- Persuasion: The servant leader depends upon their ability to persuade rather than the authority given by stature

- Conceptualization: The servant leader tends to enhance her/his ability to foretell the future in such a way as to motivate the follower to see the organization's future in its best light
- Foresight: Allows the leader to merge past occurrences, present activities, and outcomes in order to ascertain the ultimate consequence
- Stewardship: The servant leader, as a steward for the group, serves the wants and needs of the follower
- Commitment to the growth of people: Assumes accountability for the long- term growth of followers, both professionally and spiritually
- Building community: The servant leader believes much can be accomplished by creating a community around the entity participants (Spears, 2002).

While Spears asserted this core group of SL characteristics can be expanded upon, these represent the core characteristics around which promise of SL can come to fruition (Spears & Lawrence, 2002). Spears equated the rise of the SL model at the expense of the authoritative type of leadership with turning the hierarchical pyramid upside down (Spears, 2002).

Russell and Stone (2002) reviewed existing literature and compiled a list of twenty characteristics of SL, of which nine are considered functional, with the remaining eleven accompanying characteristics were identified as accompanying attributes. The nine functional characteristics include:

- Vision: the ideal picture of the future not based on attainment of power

- Honesty: the truthfulness of the leader
- Integrity: fidelity to one set of values
- Trust: allows the servant leader to be vulnerable to the actions of followers based upon the expectations
- Service: the basic premise of the servant leader is service to others. The choice is between one's self-interest compared to the interest of the follower
- Modeling: personal example as a way of conveying the vision of the servant leader
- Pioneering: indicates the ability to convey the need for change to the follower
- Appreciation of others: expressing care for the follower
- Empowerment: authorizing the follower to perform tasks at their own volition (Russell & Stone, 2002).

The 11 accompanying characteristics are:

- Communication: once the vision is articulated it must be conveyed to followers
- Credibility: how the servant leader earns the trust of the follower
- Competence: performance sufficiency within the realm of the leader's area of responsibility
- Stewardship: the obligation to care for something entrusted to the care of another person
- Visibility: acting in concert with the follower as a means of emulating appropriate behavior

- Influence: the non-manipulative methodology of inspiring the followers
- Persuasion: convincing the follower to change without coercion
- Listening: dialog between the leader and follower in an active fashion
- Encouragement: empowers the follower so she/he feels a significant part of the enterprise
- Teaching: servant leaders develop followers within a learning environment
- Delegation: giving the authority to act in a participatory manner (Russell & Stone, 2002)

Other ancillary characteristics might be based upon the values and convictions of the servant leader. However, these 20 characteristics are the starting point upon which the various SL research models are based (Russell & Stone, 2002).

Empirical research on servant leadership.

Empirical research pertaining to SL is relatively neoteric. Laub, Russell, and Wong are generally considered to be early researchers in the development of questionnaires related to SL characteristics and modeling (Stone et al., 2004).

Mahembe and Englebrecht (2013) performed a factor analysis using Barbuto and Wheeler's Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) to validate the SLQ on a South African sample of 288 educators. The authors found a logical consonant with five latent SL dimensions and concluded that the school district should incorporate the SLQ for all district management.

Poon (2006) studied the relationship between SL and a mentoring program to increase the effectiveness of the mentee. Three aspects in most mentoring relationships are the mentor/mentee relationship, a process of learning, and a successful mentoring program that can also be used for leadership development (Poon, 2006). Poon (2006) proposed that within the SL model the leader must complete the follower and always first and foremost have the best interest of the follower at heart. Thus, the relationship develops to the degree that the leader knows and understand how the follower "thinks, feels, believes and behaves" (Poon, 2006, p. 2). In essence, the power in both the mentor and SL relationship flows down to the follower/mentee (2006).

Winston and Hartsfield (2004) analyzed the relationship between SL and emotional intelligence. Of the five models cited, Winston and Hartfield identified the following common traits among the models:

- Moral Love: the essence of SL is deep concern and caring for followers thus the servant leader considers the wants and needs of the group and not the self-interest noted in most other leadership theories
- Humility: the SL model, by its very nature, subordinates the narcissistic tendencies that are normally associated with power
- Altruism: the servant leader must repose his or her own self-interest to the follower, thinking only of the welfare of the followers
- Self-Awareness: entails not only the ability to be cognitively aware of ones-self but also to understand why and what caused the feeling

- Authenticity: entails knowing and acting within one's values including subordinated values such as humility, security, integrity, vulnerability, and accountability
- Integrity: the servant leader must be incorruptible in adherence to one's values
- Trust: when the leader operates in an open and honest manner, trust manifests itself throughout the entire operation
- Empowerment: occurs when the leader allows his or her followers to develop into a servant leader, thereby reaching their potential
- Service: as previously stated, the essence of SL is the leader as a servant first, devoid of direct power (Winston & Hartsfield, 2004).

The positive correlation between SL and a successful mentorship program includes common traits between the two models. These traits include love, humility and altruism, self-awareness and authenticity, integrity and trust, and empowerment and trust (Poon, 2006). Poon (2006) concluded a positive correlation between self-efficacy and SL and in turn, confirmed the results from Pillai and Williams with SL and mentorship modeling (Poon, 2006).

Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) developed and tested an instrument called the Servant leadership survey (SLS). The genesis of the SLQ began with Greenleaf's original thesis "The Servant as Leader" (1970). In addition to the works of Spears (2004), Laub, Russell, and Stone and Patterson were included in the initial construct of this questionnaire (2011).

Page and Wong (2000) developed the Servant Leadership Profile (SLP), ultimately settling on a five-dimension questionnaire. Dennis and Winston (2003) brought the number of dimensions down to three, whereas Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) developed a 23-item five-dimension survey. Finally, Dennis and Bocarnea tried to replicate Patterson, using a five-dimension instrument (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011).

Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) asserted that the previous instruments emphasize the people side of SL at the expense of the leadership responsibilities of the servant leader. For example, the servant leader must be able to hold their followers accountable for the results of the operation. The servant leader must have the courage to hold the follower accountable for the continued prosperity of the entity. The tertiary objective of the SLS is to review the essential portions of the servant leader, be easy to apply and be psychometrically valid and reliable (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). The authors settled on a survey with eight dimensions and thirty individual items. Van Dierendonck and Nuijten found that the results show construct validity and superiority over other instruments with the inclusion of accountability, courage, and forgiveness as essential items to be measured.

SL and industry.

As the SL model has become more popular, its fundamentals have been applied to different major areas of modern life. In addition to a number of industries, SL is now making inroads into the boards of directors and trustees and community training

including those from both the public and non-profit sectors; educational institutions including pre- and post-secondary facilities; and personal transformational organizations (Spears, 2002).

The SL model is notable as one of the very few models that is first concerned with employee needs, often being compared with the transformational or authentic approach in that regard. Several respected companies have absorbed the SL model into their own corporate culture. Companies such as Southwest Air, Starbucks, Steak-n-Shake, Synovus, and TDI, attribute much of their success to approaching their leadership training using SL. In addition, Chick-fil-A has touted SL as the major reason for its success (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011).

Since the inception of the SL model, Fortune Magazine recognized TD Industries (TDI) as one of the 100 best companies to work for (Fry, Matherly, Whittington, & Winston, 2007). TDI reflects four elements of the SL model: leader as servant first, serve by listening, serve by building up your employees, and serve by creating new leaders from followers (Fry et al., 2007).

Irving and McIntosh (2010) studied the SL model in South America. While SL has become more mainstream in North America and Europe, it has not made the same inroads in South America (Irving & McIntosh, 2010). Roadblocks to efficacious implementation in South America's evangelical society are many but primarily are social in nature. The implementation of SL in Latin America will depend upon the evolution of

cultural norms as well as concentrating implementation in areas where there is disenchantment with current leadership models (Irving & McIntosh, 2010).

Marcus, Dorn, and Henderson (2006) found that the meta-leader uses their many attributes to create a strategy to accomplish their preparedness goals within a diverse organization. While it is impossible to prevent all disasters (man-made or other), the meta-leader can bring diverse organizations together with the common goal of mitigating damage in a community wrought by a disaster.

Trust is a key ingredient among servant leaders. The servant leader is what is Greenleaf commonly referred to as "first among equals" (Reinke, 2004). Reinke is among the many researchers who have postulated that there is little empirical evidence conducted on the SL model. Reinke believes her SL inventory questionnaire is woefully simple with little chance for empirical persuasiveness (Reinke, 2004).

SL instruments.

In a 2007 Irving and Longbotham, study, the authors administered three different instruments to ascertain which domains of the SL model had the strongest relationship to perceived team effectiveness. Using a regression analysis with a 5% p-value, the authors concluded the following: three of the four independent variables were related to SL. The strongest predictors of team effectiveness were the servant leader's effect at the organizational level. The next strongest predictors were the effects of love at the individual level. Third was the effects of the leader's organizational vision. The study supports the idea that there is a relationship between team effectiveness and SL (p =

.0001) (Irving & Longbotham, 2007). As is the case with many SL studies, Irving and Longbotham (2007) recommended continued use of the instrument to verify its validity with different organizations.

Winston and Hartsfield (2004) postulated that there is a rather direct relationship between four-factor emotional intelligence (EI) and the SL model. Taking four of the more prominent SL scholars, Sendjaya and Sarros (2002), Page and Wong (2000), Russell and Stone (2002), and Laub (1999), Winston and Hartsfield (2004) discovered strong ties among three of the four EI factors. The authors found a strong relationship between the EI attributes of ability to appraise and express emotions, the cognitive intendance of emotion, and the use of emotion to ameliorate decision making, and SL. The authors, however, found no significant relationship between SL and the fourth EI factor: ability to ascertain and deconstruct emotions (Winston & Hartsfield, 2004).

Waddell (2006) found a rather strong relationship between SL and a tendency toward selfless love, humility, vision, trust, empowerment, and introversion as measured by MBTI. The leader that identifies with and uses the values of the servant leader will have a stronger propensity toward an introverted view regarding interaction outside of the organization.

Leadership researchers have for many years tried to discover the likely distinctions, styles, and other discerning portents that may explain leadership. Savage-Austin and Honeycutt (2011) conducted a search of the literature and found signs of disjointed and often contradictory findings with no common elucidation among the

researchers. After reviewing available theories, the authors concluded none included the assertion that leaders are servants first nor did the research show how the theory brings the follower toward achieving organizational success (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011).

According to Savage-Austin and Honeycutt (2011), in the 21st-century business milieu, organizations search for more than profits in the race for competitive advantage. In order to ensure a competitive advantage, organizations must also inspire employees, so they are willing to give the organization even more. In so doing, some leaders have devolved into practices that injure employer/employee relationships (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011).

The devolution of strategic management decisions such as reengineering to downsize, outsourcing employment internationally, mergers and acquisitions that created behemoth organizations and leadership misconduct, have had a deleterious effect on employee morale (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011). This leads us to asking, “Are we raising the right kind of leaders for a complex and uncertain future?” (Wong & Davey, 2007).

Savage-Austin and Honeycutt (2011) concluded the best indicators of a servant leader’s effectiveness is whether he or she can show traits or values. Are they allowed to show their values such as commitment to the growth of their followers, stewardship, and building community? Merely permitting the leader to freely communicate with followers creates trust, the open exchange of information and ideas, and increased commitment to

the organization. In addition, they found that while much of the literature shows many benefits associated with the use of SL principles, without the full support of the entire organization -including the executive level as well as the board of directors, board of trustees or commissions and authorities in governmental bodies - SL cannot reach its full potential.

From an accumulation of more than 200 factors, Page and Wong distilled the number of items down to 99 factors currently used in their questionnaire. The factors were placed in twelve categories: (a) integrity (b) humility (c) servanthood (d) caring for others (e) empowering others (f) developing others (g) visioning (h) goal setting (i) leading (j) modeling (k) team building and (l) shared decision making (p. 456). Each category has from five to eleven items each (Dennis & Winston, 2003).

After conducting a study of 100 associates of Regent University, the authors concluded Page and Wong's (2000) tool can be used as effectively for training new and existing personnel in of SL (Dennis & Winston, 2003). The nexus of organizational leadership must change from that of operation and profitability to followers and the future. Three basic issues for leadership are: (a) train workers to unlock creativity, (b) effectuate favorable surroundings to hire and keep knowledge employees, and (c) reward creativity and perilous ideas in a changing environment. Through the three main sectors there are examples of inappropriate leadership and behavior which creates issues harmful to the organization (Wong & Davey, 2007).

The servant leader is a rather substantial fit to this new paradigm as it accentuates the following attributes:

- Leaders have a posture toward the unassuming and selfless leader
- Leaders' focal point is on training and keeping followers
- Leaders produce an atmosphere in which security and creativity are paramount to cultivate innovative and innate motivation
- Leaders create an environment that is more appealing to followers with esteem
- Leaders earn confidence when they place the needs of followers above their own
- Leaders receive the esteem of followers when the best interest of the followers takes precedence over organizational success
- Leaders hear followers' concerns with a receptive ear
- Leaders develop good relationships with followers through SL leader characteristics of empathy, kindness, healing, and emotional intelligence
- Leaders gain esteem through valuing team building and involving followers in the decision-making process
- Leaders pursue organizational objectives by growing and advancing human capital over monetary capital (Wong & Davey, 2007).

The primary difference between the more traditional leadership models and SL is threefold: "(a) the humble and ethical use of power as the servant leader (b) cultivating a genuine relationship between leaders and followers, and (c) creating a supportive and

positive work environment" (Wong & Davey, 2007, p.3). This allows servant leaders to use any leadership model beyond command and control (2007).

Dennis and Winston (2003) proposed that among all possible leadership essentials, the primary essentials are service and empowerment and both are part of the SL model. They compared Page and Wong's (2000) study with Russell, Stone and Laub's study and agreed with Page and Wong's conclusion: service and empowerment are the most essential characteristics of leadership (Dennis & Winston, 2003). Each of the four domains can have a favorable impact on organizational culture.

Criticisms of SL articulated by some scholars include:

- Constituencies of the servant leader will take advantage of the leader's kindness if its perceived as enervation
- SL may be impractical in many situations, especially those of a paramilitary nature
- SL is too limiting as many attributes other than those espoused by SL are necessary for the successful leader
- SL may be too closely associated with Christianity and its spirituality as it is unrealistic to assume one might mimic Christ's demeanor without being Him
- The leader claiming to be a disciple of SL often acts in a more dogmatic style
- Scholars and leaders themselves often believe it impossible to function as a true servant leader (Wong & Davey, 2007).

Servant leaders are capable of flexibility depending upon circumstances as they are no longer concerned with the exercise of traditional power and control; rather they now exercise legitimate power (Blanchard & Hodges, 2003). Wong and Page (2003) reworked their SLP and determined there were seven primary factors of (a) empowerment and development; (b) power and pride; (c) serving others; (d) open participatory leadership; (e) inspiring leadership; (f) visionary leadership; and (g) courageous leadership (integrity and authenticity).

More recently the research indicates five revealing and firm factors: (a) a servant's heart (humility & selflessness) - (who we are (self-identity)); (b) serving and developing others - why we want to lead (motive); (c) consulting and involving others- how we lead (method); (d) inspiring and influencing others - what effects we have (impact); and (e) modeling integrity and authenticity - how others see us (character) (Wong & Davey, 2007).

No matter your style, be it a charismatic intuitive leader or a down to earth methodical leader, SL principles can effectively be used by the leader. In addition, SL can make reengineering less stressful for the follower, as change can be inevitable yet positive if the follower can help navigate through the process (Wong & Davey, 2007). Wong and Davey observed research indicating SL may be significantly better than other leadership models for the following reasons:

- Rather than being concerned about typical egocentric concerns, SL leaders concern themselves with developing followers and building the organization

- SL leaders believe in the followers, if they are allowed to grow
- SL leaders are interested in the well-being of the individual and therefore bring out the best in them
- SL leaders believe the absence of power allows the follower to manage their own activity and production
- SL leaders oversee the organization taking care to do whatever is apropos to maximize their effectiveness
- SL leaders concentrate their attention on the follower thereby producing leaders while others produce mediocre employees
- SL is the remedy for abuse of power
- SL reduces lassitude and helps to create an emotionally sound organization
- SL pinpoints ingrained motivation by inspiring followers to believe in the innate abilities and welcome the vision of the organization
- SL fits perfectly with the millennials as they are pessimistic of authority
- SL is best suited for knowledge workers used to working by themselves or with small autonomous groups
- SL sees leadership as a follower centric process, best suited for team building
- The SL is engrained in humane, spiritual and ethical values
- The SL is considered by its proponents as the most efficacious and thorough approach to HR management and the development organizations (Wong & Davey, 2007).

A preliminary unit of best practices to help facilitate the five attributes of SL include: the right identity; seeing oneself as a servant is accomplished when the leader is a humble; selfless steward and has a sense of calling (Wong & Davey, 2007). The right motivation centers upon the leader as a helper, one who puts the followers first, and constantly tries to have followers perform at optimum levels. Right methods involve the leader relating to followers in a positive way by listening with empathy and openness, involving all in decision making, being a consummate team builder, and expressing confidence in the whole team (2007).

Barriers to SL.

There are barriers to SL but there is less research on what these barriers are. For example, few researchers have studied the effect of the silo mentality and other corporate barricades which tend to limit successful implementation of SL (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011).

Savage-Austin & Honeycutt (2011) studied organizational barriers often cited as primary hindrances preventing successful implementation of SL. The authors explored the expertise of fifteen senior business leaders regarding their experience with implementation and use of SL. The authors asked two questions: (a)What are the SL practices and experiences of business leaders within the organization? How do business leaders link their SL practices to organizational effectiveness within their organizations?

(b) What do business leaders perceive as organizational elements (barriers) that prevent SL practices and what impact do these elements have on the leader's ability to practice SL? (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011)

Participants in Savage-Austin and Honeycutt's study (2011) said barriers to SL practices include: (a) The organization's culture, (b) fear of change and (c) poor understanding of the SL philosophy and the implications thereof. Furthermore, Savage-Austin and Honeycutt (2011) observed wedges that typically occur in organizations, such as a silo mentality, often inhibit the leader's ability to fully implement SL and achieve the associated benefits. Additionally, these wedges may prevent the leader from collaborating with peers outside their inner circle, thereby keeping the benefits of SL from spreading to other divisions within the organization.

Servant leadership and spirituality.

Many of the constructs of the servant leader and the spiritual leader are analogous. Empowered teams need the inclusion of values and ethics to truly achieve results in a holistic environment (Fry, 2003). That said, SL is both values driven and performance oriented (Bass, 2000).

Some SL theorists have identified a link between the basic premise of the servant leader and the values of Christianity (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Non-empirical evidence seems to indicate the very concept of the servant as a leader is an oxymoron. It seems counter intuitive to conclude a leader can act as both the superior and servant (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002).

When one looks at the human condition it is important to note the human ability to observe one's own failings and, thus, use the proceedings to improve and emerge as a better person (Ferch, 2003). The traditional leadership model, a hierarchical construct with the emphasis on the chain of command, has led to a decline in virtues among leaders today. The SL model's use of vision and inclusiveness tends to produce results superior to more traditional models of leadership (Ferch, 2003).

Empirical studies involving forgiveness and restorative justice tend to produce results that validate ethical behavior as a means of greater efficiency in organizations. These studies tend to produce organizations with hope in the future along with an organization with meaning as its foremost value (Ferch, 2003).

Followers in the servant leader's organization tend to become "healthier, wiser, freer, and more autonomous" and they themselves tend to become servants themselves (Ferch, 2003, p. 3). Ferch (2003) argued there is a need for today's leader to be morally beyond reproach. The leader who looks to others for adulation tends to hide his or her faults and spends much of their time trying to please superiors, peers, and subordinates alike lest someone uncover the leader's faults and frailty. The author has observed that the people who influenced him most in his career were servant leaders though he initially had no formal training or much knowledge about the attributes of SL (Ferch, 2003).

The servant leader shows empathy for the follower and accepts the follower as a person but sometimes may need to point out imperfections in performance. The servant leader's tendency toward healing is not to heal the follower but to heal oneself. In so

doing the leader heals the community by serving first (Ferch, 2003). The leader must create an environment in which it is acceptable to forgive a person for his or her faults by the leader's own example. Like Martin Luther King Jr., the servant leader does not use the typical fight or flight methodology of dealing with an oppressor. Instead King and the servant leader use love as a means of dealing with the oppressor. While the oppressor never willingly gives up power, the use of love brings about the salvation of both the servant leader and the oppressor (Ferch, 2003).

Spiritual leadership theory (SLT) emphasizes a more holistic leadership style by including fundamental areas of concern for the organization including the physical, the mind, the heart, and the spirit. Spiritual Leadership Theory can lead to a new organizational paradigm which now includes the humanistic, spiritual, and natural as part of the same bailiwick (Fry, 2003).

The spiritual leadership paradigm and SL model can help maximize results for organizations that considers employee well-being and organizational success one and the same. The 21st-century leader must improve organizational results as well as create an environment that considers employee well-being of utmost importance. The inclusion of moral love, altruism, trust, and a commitment to the leader, in the SL and the spiritual leadership models require moral and inspirational leadership.

Fry et al. (2007) argued use of the SL model results in increased performance if the leader places a priority on the needs of followers over the needs of the organization. The servant leader is also a morally ethical leader who leads his or her followers toward

positive values and attitudes, and altruistic love. Neill, Hayward, and Peterson (2007) likened use of the SL model within the learning organization as a felicitous application of inter-professional care.

The right impact and inspiration to followers to serve the organization above themselves encourages the follower to mimic the organization's core values as their own. It shows love for the them above love for one's self, challenges all to live for a higher purpose, and asks all to inspire toward excellence (Wong & Davey, 2007).

After an exhaustive review of the literature, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) conducted a factor analysis reduced eleven potential SL dimensions to five factors. The eleven potential dimensions are: calling, listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, growth and community building.

SL and ethical considerations.

While there are a significant number of definitions and models for leadership, the real question may be what is good leadership? Here the word good refers to both ethical and competency considerations. Despite an overwhelming emphasis on ethical considerations in many models, scholarly writers have largely ignored ethics (Ciulla, 1995). In general, there was little attention paid to the ethics of leadership prior to the 1970s. While the literature has expanded since 1995, I have located few empirical studies specifically discussing leadership ethics, especially in the public sector.

Ciulla (1995) asserted that SL and transformational models both require moral behavior as precept to being a good leader. The advent of spiritual leadership and SL

have elevated ethics as an imperative the successful leader. Finally, many of the attributes of the servant leader, such as altruism are considered the basis for the ethical leader (Bass, 2008).

Ethical behavior is an often-overlooked issue for leadership models. The empirical writings and studies of ethics in leadership models has not been fully explored and the philosophical implications thereof needs additional analysis (Ciulla, 1998). In addition, the application of ethical considerations must be acceptant of ethics as a concern of our sodality (Ciulla, 1998).

Ethical considerations for leadership theory and research in general needs additional evidence. Moral philosophy, also known as ethics, is of special importance for a better understanding of both the transformational and the SL model. This can lead to a much better understanding of moral problems of the servant leader. (Ciulla,, 1998, p. 18).

> In conclusion, the territory of ethics lies at the heart of leadership studies and has veins in leadership research. Ethics also extends to territories waiting to be explored. As an area of applied ethics, leadership ethics needs to consider the research on leadership, and it should be responsive to the pressing ethical concerns of society. (Ciulla, 1998, p. 18)

The ethical leader negotiates with the followers regarding goals and objectives. When doing so, ethical considerations are important. The servant leader moves well beyond the fair treatment of the follower toward a greater level of morality (Bass, 2008). The servant leader must avoid the pitfalls of power and avoid toxic leadership by

avoiding the myopic view of one's self. Bass (2008) posited the ethical leader will do no harm, maintain the human right of all followers, nor will they play on the fears of their followers in order to benefit themselves. They will neither lie nor allow the contrarian his or her voice. The ethical leader will never engage in unethical or criminal activity. Finally, the ethical leader will never cling to power, blame others first nor will he or she avoid promoting their compatriots whenever it is appropriate (Bass, 2000).

Servant Leadership and Emergency Management

In a memo to colleagues, Marburger (2005) stressed the need to follow the NIMS. In so doing, the author reminded all involved with incident management to collaborate with all levels of government, as well as members of the private and the non-profit sectors, to reduce the overall costs and effects of catastrophes (Marburger, 2005).

The President's National Science and Technology Council created a six-point treatise it nomenclated Six Grand Challenges for disaster reduction. The report outlined four key criteria for communities to be considered disaster-resilient including: (a) local hazards are assimilated into the disaster plan; (b) communities are notified when danger is at hand; (c) individuals know where to shelter when an event occurs in these communities thorough preparedness; and (d) usually experiences minimum disruption to constituents once the disaster is over (Marburger, 2005). Marburger (2005) further concluded an emphasis on mitigating risk within a collaborative environment with public, private and non-profit sectors working together, is essential to a successful mitigation plan.

Though every emergency management project has unique complexity and therefore requires solutions be tailored to this complexity, Austin (2000) identified seven Cs of strategic collaboration: connection with purpose and people; clarity of purpose; congruency of mission strategy and values; creation of value; communication between partners; continual learning; and commitment to the partnership (Austin, 2000, pp. 173-185).

Appropriate leadership responses during a disaster can often mitigate the amount and severity of damages. On the other hand, the leader's reaction might also exacerbate the problem with an inappropriate response. Leadership sufficiency and skills appropriate for the successful EM include:

- Leadership and team building skills
- Networking and coordination skills
- Tactical, bureaucratic, and social discourse
- While the emergency manager must have vigorous protocols for all to follow, he or she must also be imaginative and able to improvise when appropriate
- Collaborative skills to work among the team members from different sectors so that team members share the mission and goals of the team
- Must be a change agent for the team and organization at the same time (Demiroz & Kapucu, 2012).

These competencies are related to needed characteristics for a successful EM: "decisiveness, flexibility informing, problem solving, managing innovation and

creativity, planning and organizing personnel, motivating, managing teams and team building, scanning the environment, strategic planning, networking and partnering and finally, decision making" (Demiroz & Kapucu, 2012, p. 98).

Conclusion

Finally, the right character of SL occurs when the leader maintains his or her own integrity and authenticity. The leader does as he says, stands for his beliefs, confronts even the most severe realities, and is toughest on his or her individual results (Wong & Davey, 2007).

SL has been a model since the days of Christ. It is about influence not control; inspiration not position; character and caring not skills; creating a climate of love not fear; focuses on others' strength not weakness; listens rather than give orders; serving rather than lording over others; about humility rather than pride; long range benefits rather than short term profits; about the big picture rather than self-interest; global vision rather than territorial interest; and creating new futures rather than the status quo. (Wong & Davey, 2007)

SL is the antithesis of type X and by combining the lessons learned from Types X, Y, and Z the type S leader gets the best results in the long term (Wong & Davey, 2007).

Literature Review Related to Key Variables and/or Concepts

Emergency managers can have either a positive or negative effect on outcomes after a disaster. The EM must practice circumstances that may occur in an emergency. In

addition to the typical government organizations involved with these exercises, the EM must include members of the private and not-for-profit sectors. Collaborative efforts, such as these, require the EM to possess skills not typical of a paramilitary organization. Emergency management must possess the ability to motivate all involved in the incident, as well as to compromise, mediate and facilitate during an incident. Further, the EM must be able to clearly communicate to all involved in the incident whether it be during a practice session or a real disaster (McEntire & Myers, 2004).

While one might consider the active manager as more conducive to the transformational leader than the inactive manage that is not always the case (Bass & Bass, 2008). Promoting one individual over another requires the use of assessment tools. The efficacy of different models requires additional research to determine the best one to use (Bass & Bass, 2008). While many questions remain unanswered, it is only through additional studies that scholars might determine the best questionnaire to use (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Laub's Study and the OLA

Laub (2000) endeavored to answer three questions (a) How is SL defined? (b) What are the accepted characteristics of the servant leader? (c) Can these characteristics portend the SL characteristics through a written questionnaire? Laub used a three-part delta study to create the instrument and culled the original 80 question instrument down to 60 questions in the interest of time to finish the test. A panel of 25 noted experts in the

field initially helped create the instrument with 14 experts asked to participate in all three iterations (Laub, 2000).

Once the instrument was determined as ready for pre-testing, 22 adult students from two universities partook in the initial study by not only completing the survey but also offering advice regarding the instrument. Once determining reliability using Cronbach's alpha, the instrument was field tested by distributing 1624 surveys through 45 different organizations. The data from the 800 usable surveys was then entered on SPSS software using Cronbach's alpha to determine reliability. Seven demographic questions were asked of the participants: gender, education level, type of organization, position with the organization, age, years in the organization and ethnic origin.

The data indicated no significant difference with regard to gender, age, years in the organization, and ethnic origin (Laub, 2000). Finally, a Pearson correlation concluded a .635 positive correlation between the presence of SL and job satisfaction (Laub, 2000). Laub concluded that there is a significant need for a written instrument that can provide a quantifiable answer to whether the servant leader can add to the effectiveness of the organization and job satisfaction (Laub, 2000).

Laub's OLA features 60 items divided into six key areas (Laub, 2000). In my proposed study I will use these six key areas as independent variables. The six key areas of organizational and leadership practice are: shares leadership, displays authenticity, values people, develops people, builds community and provides leadership (Laub, 1999).

Prior research has found that the presence of SL characteristics within organizations correlates positively with key organizational health factors: employee job satisfaction, trust in leaders and organizations, organizational safety, team effectiveness and student achievement scores (Laub, Laub & Ballenger. 2019). For this study, the dependent variable is perceived organizational effectiveness. Differences in the relationship between the independent (perceived SL) and dependent variable will be further analyzed by six covariates as previously stated.

Studies by Diehl (2015), Padilla (2015), Bryson et al. (2015), Russell et al. (2016), and Valero, Jung, and Simon (2014) all posited that SL has many of the necessary elements to create a truly effective emergency management organization. However, the OLA seems best suited to examine this study's hypothesis as it does not focus on any particular leader, nor does it point out any flaws of the management but instead determines the organization's propensity toward acceptance of the servant leader and can help determine the organization's training needs for its leadership (Laub, 1999, 2000, 2019).

I decided to use Laub's OLA as it has documented psychometrics, a well-documented study explaining how the constructs were created and a well-documented delta and beta result explaining the final questionnaire (Laub, 1999).

Table 1 shows dozens of studies using the OLA, but none involved emergency management organizations. There is a need for more research that uses the OLA to look at SL in emergency management services.

Table 1

OLA Studies in Diverse Types of Organizations

Type of organization	Study completed
Higher education	Thompson (2002), Stamba (2003), Drury (2004), Iken (2005), Van Tassell (2006), Meredith (2007), Beaver, S. (2008), Hannigan (2008), Adamson (2009), McDougle (2009), Miguel (2009), Jacobs (2011), Palmer (2011), Chavez (2012), Padron (2012), Nyamboli (2014)
Law enforcement	Ledbetter (2003), Freeman (2011)
Health	Freitas (2003), Krebs (2005), Bradshaw (2007), Amadeo (2008), Wyllie (2009)
Education	Herbst (2003), Freitas (2003), Lambert (2004), Miears (2004), Anderson, K.P. (2005), Ross (2006), Anderson (2006), Witter (2007), Svoboda (2008), Metzcar (2008), Cerit (2009), Black (2010), Salameh (2011), Babb (2012), McKenzie (2012), Shears (2012), Mortan (2013), Van Worth (2015)
Religious (Christian)	Anderson, K.P. (2005), Arfsten (2006), Ross (2006), McCann (2006), Witter (2007), Kong (2007), Beaver (2007), Inbarasu (2008), McNeff (2012), Harless (2015)
Religious (Islamic)	Salie (2008)
Manufacturing/industry	Rauch (2007)
Non-profit organizations	McCann (2006), Goodwin (2009)
High tech organizations	Johnson (2008)
Call center	Chu (2008)
Residential treatment	Bradshaw (2007)
U.S. Military	Kegler (2007)
Sports teams	Azadfada (2014)
Credit union	Ghormley (2009)
Distribution center	Hodoh (2016) (Laub et al, 2019)

Summary and Conclusions

While Greenleaf first articulated the concept of SL there is no record of studies performed by the author himself. However, beginning in the early 21st century, researchers began to construct models to determine the most effective SL model. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) identified 56 items reduced to five subscales. Russell and Stone (2002) concluded there are 20 constructs in the SL model of which nine are functional while eleven are considered accompanying. Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) developed an instrument by developing a hybrid of Laub, Russell and Stone, and Patterson. However, the more readily accepted model was developed by Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) which has 60 items divided into six key areas (Laub, 2000).

Page and Wong (2003) developed the Servant Leadership Profile (SLP), ultimately settling on a five-dimension questionnaire. Dennis and Winston (2003) brought the number of dimensions down to three, whereas Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) developed a 23-item five-dimension survey. Finally, Dennis and Bocarnea tried to replicate Patterson, using a five-dimension instrument (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011).

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if there was a relationship between the perceived presence of SL by a cross-sector of emergency management team members and their perception of the team's effectiveness. Effective emergency management leadership is vital for the modern public-sector organization (Laub, 2000). The OLA (see Appendix B) is designed for researchers to investigate SL in a number of settings. The OLA has 66 total items with Likert scale style responses choices. A Pearson's correlation was used to analyze the data as suggested by Laub (1999, 2019). Whenever the data was not normally distributed, a Kruskall-Wallis H-test or a Mann Whitney u test was used to assess differences in OLA domain score by respondent characteristics.

In this chapter, I discussed the research methodology, research design, and data collection plan for this project. The data represent the relative presence of SL to correlate the presence of SL with the perceived effectiveness in the emergency management organization. I used the 60-item OLA, divided into six subsets, to assess the relative presence of SL and to correlate the relative presence of SL with perceived effectiveness of the emergency management organization (Laub, 2000).

Research Design and Rationale

The OLA features a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire. Response choices ranged from one, strongly disagree to five, strongly agree. Means were obtained for each of the

six subscales: displays authenticity, values people, shares leadership, provides leadership, develops people, and builds community (Laub, 2000).

In this study, I used a quantitative, observational research methodology. A positivist theoretical framework was employed to determine associations between the previously listed independent and dependent variables. Study participants were SIP partners from three sectors of the U.S. economy (public, private, and non-profit). Their responses were analyzed in general, then further analyzed by participants' position within the organization (executive, management or team member); (Laub, 2000). The data were also analyzed by demographic criteria including gender, education level, type of organization, position with the organization, age, years in the organization, and ethnic origin.

The OLA assessed the relative perception of SL and the relative perception of satisfaction with the emergency management organization. When interpreting the results of a Likert scale, the reliability of results depends upon several factors included whether participants interpreted the questions accurately. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to test for reliability of the subscales and entire survey.

In a summary posted on the OLA website, Laub reviewed past usage of the OLA and some of the general findings. The OLA has been used in more than 85 different studies, with a number of the studies being performed as partial requirement for a Ph.D. The types of organizations studied encompass a wide variety of organizations from all three economic sectors, including the military. The key findings of the studies showed a

positive correlation between SL and job satisfaction, team effectiveness, student achievement (when used in the classroom), employee retention, trust in the organization, and employee productivity. Further, there was a negative correlation between SL and employee absenteeism (Laub, 2018).

Population

The study participant group consisted of approximately 752 individuals, all members of a nonprofit group dedicated to assisting Iowa companies and residents in the preparation necessary to mitigate disasters. Members consisted of persons from the public-sector emergency management departments, the private sector divisions dedicated to disaster mitigation, and nonprofits, which are among the first to respond to the needs of those affected by disasters.

Sample

I partnered with the SIP. SIP currently consists of approximately 752 members each of whom were eligible to participate in the research. Approval, in writing, was obtained from association leadership. Because the study was completed by email, there was no additional cost for the inclusion of all members.

I complied with all privacy requirements and it was anticipated there should be no objections to conducting the study. Because the survey used the Internet and email for delivery, an appropriate consent form was created using the email itself. The completed survey was forwarded to OLA for data collection. The raw data were then returned to be sent back to me for evaluation using the SPSS software. The sponsoring group lent

credibility to the research to increase the number of completed surveys. Once the survey was returned, I recorded all information and used the SPSS software to analyze the responses using Pearson's correlation, Spearman's rho, Mann Whitney u and KWH test.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

This study was conducted in the tradition of a positivist philosophy, which holds that the result can be construed as empirical evidence within an acceptable margin of error (Dinno, 2015). The questionnaire was distributed to members of the sponsoring group, a non-profit Iowa organization dedicated to providing its partners with training, education, and exercises aimed at mitigating damage from critical incidents through preparedness, response and recovery. As a member of the sponsoring group, I had access to a list of all partners and obtained permission from the sponsoring group to conduct the study.

While using ordinal data are considered a contentious use of data, many researchers consider the use of a Likert scale study as parametric statistical study is more powerful than using the nonparametric alternative (Allen & Seaman, 2007). However, treating ordinal data as interval data without extensive examination of the data and objectives from the study can affect the findings of a Likert study (Allen & Seaman, 2007). Allen and Seaman (2007) suggested that Likert scale data be treated more like nonparametric data and leaned toward the ordinal nature of the data.

Likert scales are often used when a researcher is looking for responses requiring a range rather than a finite defined number. Because the value in between responses cannot

be deemed as identic there was a question as to the accuracy of assuming a parametric relationship among the data. It therefore may be appropriate to utilize the median or mode rather than the mean as the appropriate measure of central tendency and to use nonparametric tests like Kruskal Wallace or Mann-Whitney U-tests to measure differences in means (Jamieson, 2004). It may also acceptable to use parametric measures using ANOVA, and while it has become more common, most scholars do so without comment as to its appropriateness (Jamieson, 2004). Some researchers think of using parametric analysis as "one of the seven deadliest sins of analysis" while others believe it to be perfectly acceptable (Jamieson, 2004, p. 1218).

Knapp had an impartial explanation as to when one should use Likert as parametric vs. nonparametric. If the scale refers to excellent, average, or fair one cannot say half-way is average and one half. In that case the data should be treated as nonparametric (Jamieson, 2004). Researchers also need to consider cultural differences when deciding to use Likert scale studies to begin with. For example, the Japanese often have difficulty differentiating between the responses and the Chinese will often indiscriminately skip questions (Lee, Jones, & Mineyama, 2002). Despite these cultural differences there can often be consistent results (Lee, Jones, & Mineyama, 2002).

Laub's Study and the OLA

Laub used a three-part delta study to create the instrument and culled the original eighty question instrument down to sixty questions in the interest of time to finish the

test. A panel of 25 noted experts in the field initially helped create the instrument with fourteen experts asked to participate in all three iterations (Laub, 2000).

Once the instrument was determined as ready for pre-testing, 22 adult students from two universities partook in the initial study by not only completing the survey but also offering advice regarding the instrument. Once determining reliability using Cronbach's alpha, the instrument was field tested by distributing 1624 surveys through 45 different organizations. The data from the 800 usable surveys was then entered into SPSS software using Cronbach's alpha to determine reliability. Seven demographic questions were asked of the participants: gender, education level, type of organization, position with the organization, age, years in the organization and ethnic origin. The data indicated no significant difference with regard to gender, age, years in the organization, and ethnic origin (Laub, 2000). Finally, the Pearson correlation coefficient for SL and job satisfaction was .635 (Laub, 2000). Laub concluded there was a significant need for a written instrument that can provide a quantifiable answer to whether the servant leader can add to the effectiveness of the organization and job satisfaction (Laub, 2000).

Laub's OLA featured 60 items, divided into six domains of DL (Laub, 2000). The proposed study will use these six key areas as independent variables. The six key areas of organizational and leadership practice are: shares leadership, displays authenticity, values people, develops people, builds community, and provides leadership (Laub, 1999). Table 2 delineates explicitly how the six key areas are compared with the sixty items Laub proposed to be essential to determine the perceived presence of SL within an organization

and the perceived effectiveness of the organization (Laub, 2018). Appendix B shows the entirety of the 60 questions included in the OLA.

Table 2

Six Key Variables and OLA Items

Potential sub-scores	Categories	Servant Leaders Questionnaire item
Values people		
	By believing in people	• Respects others • Believe in unlimited potential of each person
	Maintaining a high view of people	• Accepts people as they are • Trusts others • Are perceptive concerning the needs of others • Enjoys people • Shows appreciation of others
	By putting others first *Before self*	• Puts the needs of others ahead of their own • Shows love and compassion toward others
	By listening *Receptive, non-judgmental*	• Are receptive to others
Develops people		
	By providing for learning and growth *Developing potential*	• Provide opportunities for people to develop to their full potential • Leaders use their power and authority to benefit others • Provide mentor relationships to help others grow professionally
	By modeling	• View conflict as an opportunity to learn and grow • Create an environment that encourages learning • Lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior • Models a balance of life and work and encourages others to do so

(*table continues*)

Potential sub-scores	Categories	Servant Leaders Questionnaire item
	By encouraging	• Build people up through encouragement and affiliations
Builds community		
	By enhancing relationships	• Relates well to others • Works to bring healing to hurting relationships
	By working collaboratively *Emphasizing teamwork*	• Facilitates the building of community and team • Work with others instead of apart from others
	By valuing the differences of others Differing gifts, cultures and viewpoints	• Values differences in people • Allows for individuality of style and expression
Displays authenticity		
	By being open to being known *Willing to be transparent*	• Admits personal limitations and mistakes • Open to being known by others • Promote open communication and shares information with all • Accountable and responsible to others
	By being learners *By being self-aware, open to input from others*	• Are non-judgmental keeps an open mind • Are open to learning from others • Evaluate themselves before blaming others • Are open to receiving criticism and challenges from others
	By maintain integrity *Honest, consistent, ethical behavior*	• Are trustworthy • Demonstrate high integrity and honesty • Maintain high ethical standards

(*table continues*)

Potential sub-scores	Categories	Servant Leaders Questionnaire item
Provides leadership		
	By envisioning the future *Intuition as to the direction for the organization*	• Has a vision of the future • Uses intuition and foresight to see the unforeseeable • Provides hope to others
	By taking the initiative *Moving out ahead of the norm*	• Encourages risk-taking • Exhibits courage • Has healthy self-esteem • Initiates action by moving ahead of others • Is competent has the skill necessary to g things done
	By clarifying the goals *Understanding what it takes to get to the vision*	• Is clear on goals and good at pointing th correct direction • Is able to turn positives into negatives
Shares leadership		
	By sharing power *Empowering others*	• Empowers others by sharing power • Is low in control of others • Uses persuasion, not control of others
	By sharing status *Issues of position, honor and self-promotion*	• Is humble- does not promote him/herself • Leads from personal influence not positional authority • Does not demand or expect honor and awe for being the leader • Does not seek the special status or perks of leadership

Threats to Validity

The study was expected to have high external validity because the OLA has been found to accurately measure SL and OE. It also was expected to have high internal reliability because Laub's studies have demonstrated the OLA has strong psychometrics.

Conducting a reliability analysis on the data added evidence for the internal reliability of the OLA instrument. Because the study employed a Likert scale the data are considered practical, expedient, and easily understood (Yilmaz et al., 2016).

Generalizability was a concern with this study as the study was performed only on those involved with emergency managers in Iowa. The concern was whether emergency manager partners from larger metropolitan areas or, perhaps, smaller rural areas without the resources to create the partnerships necessary to the new emergency management paradigm also highly value SL (United States Census Bureau, 2019).

I used the Pearson's correlation and Kruskall-Wallis H test and Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient to calculate reliability of the data (Yilmaz et al., 2016). I applied Pearson's correlation test and Cronbach's alpha with each of the six independent variables measuring the presence of SL in their emergency management organization and the perceived health of the emergency management team (Yilmaz et al., 2016). I analyzed the returned survey using IBM's SPSS, version 25.

The independent variables consisted of the six key areas of organizational and leadership practice: (a) shares leadership, (b) displays authenticity, (c) values people, (d) develops people, (e) builds community and (f) provides leadership (Laub, 1999). The dependent variables were the perceived presence of SL and the perceived health of the organization as determined by three sub-groups: (a) management and team members from the emergency management teams; (b) management and team members from non-profit emergency management partners and; (c) management and team members from

private sector emergency management partners, all members of SIP. Previous research found that the presence of SL characteristics within organizations correlates positively with key organizational health factors: employee job satisfaction, trust in leaders and organizations, organizational safety, team effectiveness and student achievement scores (Laub, 2000). I further determined there was an association between the following respondent's characteristics, gender, education level, type of organization, position with the organization, age, years in the organization, and ethnicity and each of the sub scores.

The servant leader has a natural predilection first to serve and then to lead. Greenleaf based his theory on the idea that, in order to change an organization, the leader must produce enough followers willing to help in a morally acceptable way (Greenleaf, 1977). The questions asked by Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) include: are some persons more contented as SL and conversely more likely to follow the SL; can SL values be scientifically measured; and what are the values more likely to advance the concepts associated with SL. As a consequence of the questions asked by Sendjaya and Sarros, there have been a number of studies showing evidence that SL values can, in fact, be measured and determined through social research studies using acceptable measures to assure reasonable validity (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002).

Research Questions

RQ1: For each of the six domains of SL as tested by the OLA is there a perceived presence of SL?

RQ2: Is there a correlation between the perceived presence of SL and the perceived effectiveness of the emergency management organization?

RQ3: Is there a difference in the subscale means as measured by the demographic covariables?

Hypotheses

H1 1: There is perceived observed presence of SL within the emergency management organizations

H1 2: There is a correlation between the independent variables and the perceived effectiveness of the emergency manager organization.

H1 3: There is a difference in mean subscale scores by demographic covariables.

Independent and Dependent Variables

The independent variables were, perception of SL subdivided into six key domains: (a) shares leadership, (b) displays authenticity, (c) values people, (d) develops people, (e) builds community and (f) provides leadership (Laub, 1999). The dependent variable was perceived organizational effectiveness. Covariates include six sub-groups: (a) management and (b) team members from the emergency management teams; (c) non-profit partners leadership and (d) team members; (e) private sector partners and (f) team members. All respondents will be members of SIP a non-profit group organized to bring together all involved in the emergency disaster mitigation and preparation industry.

Operational Definitions for the Variables

Independent variables definitions:

Shares leadership (SL). The SL shares leadership by sharing power and empowering team members; uses persuasion rather than coercion; is humble; does not seek special status.

Displays authenticity. The SL displays authenticity by admitting personal limitations and errors in judgement, promotes open communications, is non-judgmental and performs at the highest levels of honesty and integrity.

Values people. The SL values people by respecting team members, showing appreciation for all efforts, actively listens to team members and puts the needs of the team above her/his own.

Develops people. The SL develops people by providing team members with opportunities for advancement, uses power to benefit the team members, encourages a learning environment, leads by showing team members appropriate behaviors and develops all team members to their upmost potential.

Builds community. The SL builds community when he or she encourages and builds the team member, enhances relationships with team members, relating well with team members, works in a collaborative manner with team members rather than being dictatorial and allows for a diversified workforce and understands individuality builds a well-versed organization.

Provides leadership. The SL provides leadership by envisioning the future through foresight, encourages risk-takers to envision a future unseen by most, has a clear understanding of the tasks at hand but allows others to perform those tasks and delineates

a clear set of goals and objectives while also providing the team members with updates on the progress toward those goals (Laub, 2000).

Data Collection Procedures

A data entry log was created including the data collection dates, a coding procedure to ensure the privacy of all participants and return dates for all returned surveys. Each of the participants were sent an email outlining the purpose of the study along with a statement that participation in the survey is absolutely voluntary. Because the study contains no interventions and all participant data will be coded as will the name of the partner organizations, there is no need for a statement regarding the potential harm through participation.

The Laub organization gathered the data through its internal servers then sent me the raw data with the identifying characteristics masked to ensure privacy. The coding included in the data set included, the type of organization the respondent represents along with the respondent's present position IE; executive, supervisor or manager, or workforce. In addition, the respondent's gender, education level, age, years in the organization and ethnic origin will be obtained to enrich the results. The data will not be kept on any one person's device but rather will be saved on a separate hard drive for three years and kept in a fireproof safe on my premises. At no time was any data stored in the cloud or on any other device. Once the data are analyzed it will be removed from the computer and stored on a thumb drive until destroyed. The preceding procedures will limit, if not eliminate, any ethical concerns for this study.

Data analyses performed were descriptive and inferential. Only bivariate tests were run; no multivariable tests were performed. The descriptive statistics show patterns that emerge from the data by using measures of central tendency, while inferential statistics allow the results to be generalized to the entire population involved with emergency management when testing the null hypotheses. The social scientist in this case expressed the information as a range of potential results and an associated degree of confidence in the results rather than the parameters associated with descriptive statistics, when analyzing the statistical results (Taylor, 2018).

Data Analysis

To evaluate the first hypothesis, a Pearson's correlation coefficient was used. A bivariate correlation matrix was created to determine which OLA subscale scores correlated and whether the overall OLA score correlated with the organizational effectiveness score (Yilmaz, Demir, & Esenturk, 2016).

I had to choose between using parametric or nonparametric inferential statistical tests for comparing the means of the OLA subscales by participant characteristics. T-tests are appropriate when comparing the means for two groups in which the data are normally distributed, and ANOVAs are appropriate when comparing the means for more than two groups. The Mann-Whitney U test is used when comparing the means of two groups when the data are not normally distributed while the Kruskall-Wallis H test is used when more than two groups are analyzed and the data are not normally distributed (Dinno, 2015; Yilmaz, Demir, & Esenturk, 2016).

If the data were assessed for normal distribution and found not to be normally distributed; the means were compared using the Kruskall-Wallis H test (K-W H).

I also ran a reliability test on the entire OLA and each subscale. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient was obtained to calculate the reliability of the data (Yilmaz, Demir, & Esenturk, 2016). All analyses were conducted using IBM's SPSS, 25th edition.

Ethical Procedures

Mann (2003) opined there are few, if any, ethical concerns with observational studies as there are generally no direct interventions involved in this type of study. The presence of specific safeguards to protect any personal data significantly mitigates most ethical concerns for a correlational study (Mann, 2003).

The Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) outlined several concerns involved with survey research including: the relative sensitivity of the data, are there any privacy concerns, how are the data safe from hackers, where will the data be stored and will the servers used for data collection remain under US control (Buchanan, & Hvizdak, 2009).

Use of the OLA eliminated concerns regarding valid questionnaire design as well as concerns with anonymity issues for participants (Buchanan, & Hvizdak, 2009). The sample and informed consent issues have been satisfied by using Walden University's suggested forms and therefore satisfies the issues of concern as created by HREC.

Finally, the data collection procedures outlined above satisfied any concerns regarding data security (Buchanan, & Hvizdak, 2009).

The Potential for Positive Social Change

It is hoped this research study will inform changes in the selection process for EMs as it relates to the candidate's leadership abilities, rather than most of the current selection processes which seem dependent upon the basic skill level of the appointee rather than leadership expertise. A positive association between SL expertise and partnership participation could lead to the inclusion of SL training programs which could lead to EMs who lead their organizations based upon what is good for the members rather than what is good for the leadership alone.

The potential social change resulting from this research may be the acceptance of a morality-based leadership modeling in the emergency manager selection process. Because there seems a dearth of leadership studies including SL model, through this study I may shed some light on its usage in this arena.

Summary

The OLA featured a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire, which was averaged for each of the six subsets: displays authenticity, values people, shares leadership, provides leadership, develops people and builds community (Laub, 2000). The 5-point scale ranges from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree. I used the quantitative, observational research methodology. This methodology used a positivist theoretical framework to

determine a causal effect based upon the previously listed independent and dependent variables.

Organizations and their leadership need to obtain constructive feedback to determine the effectual nature of leadership action on the individual (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011). I proposed that a 360-degree type of instrument would best accomplish that goal of effectively determining these effects by asking followers and recording their feedback for additional discussion with the leader. Peer appraisals and peer support groups can often enhance the effectiveness of the leader (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

This chapter discussed the research methodology, research design, and data collection used for this project. The information used to measure the relative presence of SL and to correlate the presence of SL with the perceived effectiveness of the emergency management organization were also discussed. Both the hypotheses and research questions are included in the chapter. Threats to validity as well as the data collection procedures and data analysis were discussed, as was the potential for positive social change.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if there was a relationship between the perceived presence of SL and perceived organizational effectiveness, in emergency management, as perceived by EMs and personnel who belong to SIP.

Research questions included, “Was there a perceived presence of SL by members of the Safeguard Iowa Partners within local emergency management organizations?,” “Was there an association between the perceived presence of SL and perceived effectiveness of the emergency management organization as reported by members of the Safeguard Iowa Partners?,” and, “Was there a difference in mean subscale scores by demographic covariables?” Additionally, the major hypotheses included:

H1 1: There is a perceived presence of SL within the emergency management organizations.

H1 2: There is an association between the perceived presence of SL and perceived organizational effectiveness (as measured by job satisfaction) in the emergency management organization.

H1 3: There is a no difference in the perceived presence of SL and perceived organizational effectiveness by key demographic variables.

In Chapter 4, I reviewed the implementation of the study, including the data collection process and data analysis procedures. Data analyses were conducted using IBM’s SPSS, version 25. Statistical analyses included descriptive statistics, Pearson’s

correlation, Cronbach's Alpha for reliability, Kruskal-Wallis H tests, Spearman's rho and Mann-Whitney U tests. In this chapter, I discuss the assumptions and report descriptive statistics. The chapter includes tables that summarize the results of the statistical analyses.

Data Collection

I initially received permission to begin the study on approximately January 4, 2019 and submitted the recruiting consent form to the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) the following week. After several attempts to submit acceptable materials, final approval was received on March 21, 2019. A copy of the all approvals along with copies of the original recruiting plan and follow up emails is being kept by myself in a safe on my premise.

The first emails were sent to 600 members of SIP on March 28th and only 30 responses were received after the initial email went out. The second email was sent on April 19th and responses increased to 56. A third request was sent on May 18th as a final chance to participate. On July 5th data gathering ceased after discussion with my committee chair. The final sample consisted of 82 participants constituting an 11% participation rate. On July 12th the Laub organization was notified to send the raw data to me and the data were received on July 17, 2019.

The respondents were 52% male 48% female, or a frequency of 43 and 39 respectively. Caucasians were 90% of respondents (72 Persons) while African Americans comprised 7.5% of the sample (six persons) and Asians comprised 2.5% (two persons)

which accurately reflected the breakdown by ethnicity of the state's population but not necessarily the makeup of SIP (United States Census Bureau, 2019).

All 82 respondents answered the OLA in its entirety; however, when analyzing the covariables, two respondents failed to answer the questions on age and ethnicity, and one failed to respond to age, education level, and position in the organization. See Table 3 for a full breakdown of participants by ethnicity, gender, and organizational status. Tenure in emergency management, type of organization, education level, and position in the organization were fairly evenly distributed throughout the sample.

Table 3

Participant characteristics (N = 80 - 82)

Characteristic	**Category**	**N**	**Percent**
Gender	Male	43	52
	Female	39	48
	Total	82	100
Years in emergency management	1-5 Years	19	0.23
	6-10 Years	17	0.21
	11-15 Years	16	0.2
	16+ Years	29	0.36
	Total	80	100
Ethnicity	Caucasian	72	90
	African American	6	7.5
	Asian	2	2.5
	Total	80	100
Age	25-35	7	9
	36-50	23	28
	51-65	39	48
	65 Plus	12	15
	Total	81	100
Type of organization	Private sector	28	35
	Not for Profit	21	26
	Public sector	32	39
		81	100
Education level	High school	14	17
	College degree	33	41
	Graduate	15	19
	Post-graduate	19	23
	Total	81	100
Position in organization	Top leader	32	40
	Manager/supervisor	23	28
	Worker	26	32
		81	100

Results

Research Question One

Research question one asked if there was a perceived presence of SL within the emergency management organizations studied, with the hypothesis that there was a perceived presence of SL. Figure 3 shows how the Laub organization (2019) defines the range of subscale scores needed to indicate the presences of SL in an organization. The range of possible results move up from 1.0 to 1.99 indicating an autocratic organization with toxic health through 4.5 to 5.0, which indicates a SL organization with optimal health.

Figure 3

Mean score ranges for each level of organization health

1.0 to 1.99 = **Org 1** = Autocratic (Toxic Health)

2.0 to 2.99 = **Org 2** = Autocratic (Poor Health)

3.0 to 3.49 = **Org 3** = Negative paternalistic (limited health)

3.5 to 3.99 = **Org 4** = Positive paternalistic (moderate health)

4.0 to 4.49 = **Org 5** = Servant (excellent health) excellent

4.5 to 5.00 = **Org 6** = Servant (optimal health)

The overall mean OLA score, as reported to the me by the Laub Group, was 4.212 indicating excellent servant health. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected as

organizations with a mean overall OLA score between 4.0 and 4.5 are considered to be in excellent SL health with a high level of perceived presence of SL observed.

All subscale scores also indicated excellent SL health as reported in Table 4. The subscale means were: Job Satisfaction mean of 4.338, Values People mean of 4.293, Builds Community 4.226, Displays Authenticity 4.203, Shares Leadership 4.155, Develops People 4.111, Provides Leadership 4.109 A Pearson's correlation was also performed using SPSS 25th edition to verify the Laub data. The Pearson's data show a moderate correlation of from .683 to .581 amoung the six subscales with a significance level of <.001 therefore indicating a moderately high association among the subscales. This indicates a propensity toward SL in the subject organization using Laub's methodology (see Laub, 1999). Additionally, I performed a K-W h test to validate Likert scale test using non-parametric testing and the results were also to reject the null hypotheses for all six subsets with a significance level <.001.

Table 4

Descriptive statistics: OLA subscale score means (N = 82)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Score
Values people	42.93	6.279	4.293
Develops people	37.00	6.547	4.111
Provides leadership	36.98	6.039	4.109
Job satisfaction	26.33	3.300	4.388
Builds community	42.26	5.862	4.226
Displays authenticity	50.44	8.513	4.203
Shares leadership	41.55	7.360	4.155
OLA (all)	252.72		4.212

Reliability statistics. The Cronbach's Alpha internal consistency coefficient was calculated to add evidence of the reliability of the data and OLA instrument. Because the study employed a Likert scale study the data were considered practical, expedient, and easily understood (see Yilmaz et al., 2016). A test of reliability was used to determine the internal reliability of the OLA subscales including job satisfaction. Cronbach's Alpha scores are shown in Table 5 indicate all subscales demonstrated good reliability. Because past analyses of reliability of the job satisfaction variable were reported in previous studies, the score for job satisfaction was included (Laub, 2018).

Table 5

Cronbach's Alpha

	Scale mean if item deleted	Scale variance if item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation
Values people	234.55	1218.819	.934
Builds community	235.22	1263.038	.889
Develops people	240.48	1198.252	.941
Displays authenticity	227.04	1064.406	.956
Provides leadership	240.50	1247.117	.901
Shares leadership	235.93	1154.192	.919
Job satisfaction	251.15	1483.756	.681

Table 6

Job Satisfaction (organizational effectiveness) (N = 82)

	Mean	Std. Dev	N	DF	Sig
Job Satisfaction	26.33	3.300	82	81	<.001
Org Items	92.89	12.913	82	81	<.001

Research Question Two

Research question two sought to determine if there was an association between the perceived presence of SL and perceived organizational effectiveness (as measured by job satisfaction). Hypothesis two predicted there would be a correlation between the two. The Pearson's correlation for presence of SL and organizational effectiveness was .597 indicating a moderate positive correlation $r(81) = .597$, $p < .001$; The p value was below .05 therefore the null hypothesis was rejected.

Pearson's test is used to analyze the data, as was suggested by Laub, unless the skewness of the data were an issue (Laub, 1999, 2019). Because Table 7 indicates a skewness above the acceptable 1.96 level, a non-parametric analysis Spearman's rho was conducted. Table six indicated a non-parametric correlation of .737 using Spearman's rho verifying the Pearson's results stated above.

Research Question Three

To determine differences in OLA subscale score means by categories of key demographic variables, non-parametric tests were used. These tests were used because the data were not normally distributed. The Kruskal-Wallis H- (K-W H) test was used in place of the ANOVA (Dinno, 2015) and the Mann-Whitney u (M-W U) test was used in place of the t-test. Table 7 indicates the skewness of each OLA subscale. Any skew in excess of 1.96 as calculated by the skewness divided by the standard error indicates the use of non-parametric measures (Blanca, Arnau, Lopez-Montiel, Bono, & Bendayan,

2013). Except for the variable "defines leadership" all variables were skewed above 3.5, therefore indicating the need for a non-parametric test.

Table 7
Skewness Statistics (N =82)

	Values people	Develops People	Builds Community	Displays Authenticity	Provides Leadership	Shares Leadership
Skewness	-.952	-.860	-.984	-1.199	-.438	-.980
Std. error of skewness	.266	.266	.266	.266	.266	.266
If skewness/stnd error > 1.96 then No ANOVA	3.57	3.233	3.699	4.507	1.646	3.68

Six demographic variables were entered into the statistical analyses to determine differences. Table 8 shows the K-W H and M-W U results.

The six demographic variables were:

- Gender: 1=male 2= female
- Education level: 1= high school, 2= college degree, 3= graduate degree, 4= post graduate work
- Type of organization: 1= private sector, 2= not for profit, 3= public sector
- Age: 1=25-35, 2=35-50, 3=51-65, 4= 65+
- Position in the organization: 1= top leader, 2= manager/supervisor, 3= work force
- Years in the emergency management field: 1= 1-5 years, 2= 6-10 years, 3= 11-15 years, 4= 16 plus years

A K-W h test was performed for the seven variables values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, shares leadership, and job satisfaction by the covariables education levels (n=81), type of organization (*N*=81), age of respondent (n=81), position in the organization (n=81), years in emergency management (n=80), and ethnicity (n=80) of the respondent. A M-W U text was substituted for the t-test for gender. The null hypothesis failed to be rejected for all demographic variables except position in the organization and ethnicity. See Table 8 for full results.

Table 8
Differences in mean OLA subscale scores by demographic variables (N =80 - 82)

	Values people	Develops people	Builds community	Displays authenticity	Provides leadership	Shares leadership	Job satisfaction
Gender							
M-W U	1.434	1.397	1.616	1.796	0.534	2.030	0.600
P	0.231	0.237	0.204	0.180	0.465	0.154	0.438
Edu level							
K-W h	1.452	1.139	2.281	1.456	1.386	1.076	2.669
P	0.693	0.768	0.516	0.692	0.709	0.783	0.446
Type of org							
K-W h	4.623	4.353	2.278	3.232	2.764	3.776	0.682
P	0.099	0.113	0.320	0.199	0.251	0.151	0.711
Age							
K-W h	2.353	0.577	1.033	0.509	0.415	0.180	1.022
P	0.503	0.902	0.793	0.917	0.937	0.981	0.796
Pos in org							
K-W h	7.770	8.398	9.122	10.325	10.039	8.623	5.737
P	**0.021**	**0.015**	**0.010**	**0.006**	**0.007**	**0.013**	0.057
Years in EM							
K-W h	0.602	0.968	4.357	1.852	1.453	3.477	0.990
P	0.896	0.809	0.225	0.604	0.693	0.324	0.804
Ethnicity							
K-W h	7.985	7.941	7.831	8.376	10.800	8.625	5.625
P	**0.018**	**0.019**	**0.020**	**0.015**	**0.005**	**0.013**	0.060

There were differences in subscale scores by “position in organization” and “ethnicity.” To determine where these differences were, variables categories were compared individually using M-W U. The mean OLA raw scores for the leadership, workforce, managers, and supervisors were 33.048, 20.015 and 33.017 respectively indicating managers and supervisors, have a lower level of SL than the organizations’ leadership and work force.

Table 9 Mann Whitney
Difference in mean subscale scores by position in organization

	VP	DP	BC	DA	PL	SL
Group 1 & 2						
Mann Whitney	4.948	7.261	8.576	8.697	9.060	7.738
Df	1	1	1	1	1	1
Asymp. sig.	0.026	0.007	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.005
Group 2 & 3						
Mann Whitney	6.167	5.666	5.527	7.255	6.376	5.492
Df	1	1	1	1	1	1
Asymp sig.	0.013	0.017	0.019	0.007	0.012	0.019

Note. Mann Whitney Test 1=leadership, 2=managers and supervisors, 3=workers.

For ethnicity, the total OLA raw scores for the three subgroups were Caucasians 39.95, African Americans 42.17 and Asians 10.04. The data indicated African Americans perceived a higher presence of SL than other ethnic groups. It is important to note that because of the small number of Asians in the sample these results may not be reliable; however, a difference was noted between Caucasians and African Americans.

As for the result regarding research question number three specifically, Table 10 shows the null hypothesis is only rejected for the demographic covariable position in the organization. The null hypothesis was accepted for the covariables gender, education level, type of organization, age, and years of service in emergency management indicating these covariables see the propensity toward SL and the effectiveness of the organization are positively correlated.

Table 10
Difference in mean subscale scores by ethnicity

	VP	DP	BC	DA	PL	SL
Groups 1&2						
Mann	5.7	5.08	3.51	5.3	8.7	5.736
Whitney	46	1	6	77	53	
Df	1	1	1	1	1	1
Asymp. sig.	0.0	0.02	0.06	0.0	0.0	0.017
	17	4	1	20	03	
Groups 2&3						
Mann	4.2	4.09	4.04	4.6	4.0	4.200
Whitney	53	8	8	03	98	
Df	1	1	1	1	1	1
Asymp. sig.	0.0	0.04	0.04	0.0	0.0	0.040
	39	3	4	32	43	

Note. Group 1: Caucasian, Group 2 African American, Group 3 Asian.

Summary

In this chapter I discussed the purpose of the study, the data collection process, and results. Three research questions were answered as follows: There was a perceived presence of SL by members of the Safeguard Iowa Partners within local emergency management organizations. The total OLA mean score was 4.212 indicating the presence of SL as measured by the Laub organization's scale. Mean scores for the subscales were: values people 4.293, develops people 4.111, provides leadership 4.109, job satisfaction 4.388 builds community 4.226, displays authenticity 4.203, and shares leadership 4.155, all indicating healthy SL.

There was an association between perceived presence of SL and perceived effectiveness, $r(81) = .597$, $p < .001$. Additionally, there was no difference in mean OLA

subscale scores for five of the seven demographic covariables; the only significant differences were for ethnicity and position.

Top leadership and the workers associated with the group believed the group's SL effectiveness was excellent indicating a high level of open consultation and consciousness of purpose (Laub et al, 2019). The respondents also believed the group readily accepts change and will lead to even greater levels of organizational effectiveness (Laub et al, 2019). Further analyses of the data related to key findings, limitations uncovered during the study process, and limitations discovered during the analysis process are discussed in Chapter 5. A discussion of implications for future research is included in Chapter 5.

According to the Laub organization assessment of the data, (Laub et al, 2019), the SIP respondents also indicated they were personally involved with the studied group and positively contribute to the group's success. Further, the respondents indicated they can contribute to the success of the emergency management team using their own creativity and ability. The respondents believed their interaction with the group allowed them to be highly productive and they generally enjoy their work when interacting with the group (Laub et al, 2019).

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

Servant leaders believes service is a more efficient way of achieving the shared objectives of a team and organization (Laub, 2000). Researchers have found that the presence of SL characteristics within an organization correlate positively with key organizational health factors including employee job satisfaction, trust in leaders and organizations, organizational safety, team effectiveness, and student achievement scores (Laub, 2018). One of the aims of my research was to determine if values of SL can be scientifically measured within emergency management organizations. The results of this study illustrated that these values can be scientifically measured. In so doing, I filled gaps in understanding SL in emergency management organizations and coalitions.

The emergency management leader must include private, public, and non-profit members as partners. In so doing, the EM must be able to relate to group members that have no direct relationship with the emergency management organization and who will not respond to a dictatorial paradigm (Department of Homeland Security, 2018a). Collaborative efforts require emergency management leadership to possess leadership skills that are different from what is needed to run a paramilitary organization.

Emergency management must possess the ability to motivate all involved in an incident, as well as the ability to compromise, mediate, and facilitate during an incident. Further, the EM must be able to clearly communicate with all involved in an incident whether it be during a practice session or real disaster (McEntire & Myers, 2004).

Appropriate leadership responses during a disaster can often mitigate the amount and severity of damages. Conversely, the leader's reaction an exacerbate the problem with an inappropriate response. SL would seem like a nature fit for the contemporary emergency management leadership paradigms where the effective communication of certain values and ways of addressing disasters is vital.

Key Findings

I aimed to understand the following questions:

- Do members of Safeguard Iowa Partners perceive the presence of SL within local emergency management organizations?
- Was there an association between the perceived presence of SL and the perceived effectiveness of the emergency management organization by members of the Safeguard Iowa Partners?
- Is there a difference in the subscale means as measured by the demographic covariables?

Key findings included, (a) there was a high level of perceived SL in the emergency management teams SIP members they interacted with, (b) there was a correlation between the presence of SL and organizational effectiveness in emergency management organization, and (c) there was little difference in the perceived presence of SL by key demographic variables.

Interpretation of Findings

The study results indicated, the presence of SL was commonly exhibited in the emergency management teams and organization members. This finding is consistent with many groups that must operate in a multi-sector environment where there are few direct lines of authoritative supervisory lines. In addition, there has been a concerted effort on the part of many public administrators in the federal, state, and local governments to privatize services such as trash collection, public health laboratory services, prison operations, and even private charter schools (Mullner & Kyusuk, 2010). This new paradigm of governance, which includes a cross- sector alliance of members, has demanded public sector leadership look at various leadership models for themselves and their management team. This finding may have been different a decade ago when paramilitary style leadership was the norm in emergency management.

Prior to this study, no other researchers examined the perceived presence of SL in the emergency manager organization. Given the new paradigm for the EM, these findings should influence the process of choosing an EM and impact the design of training programs provided to current and potential EMs.

Results of this study also revealed that SL was correlated with perceived organizational effectiveness as measured by job satisfaction. This is a significant finding because prior research has found that an EM who exhibits SL tends to create the type of positive environment that leads to improved productivity (Laub, 2000, 2018, 2019).

Similar to Laub's original study, the findings of this research also found no significant differences in the perceived presence of SL by gender, age, years in the organization, and education (Laub, 2000). Multi-sector collaborative partnerships are vital to effective emergency management and universally valued and perceived SL can lead to more effective teamwork and emergency responses. In this study, SL was perceived and valued similarly by men and women, people with different levels of education, of different ages, with a different number of years with their respective organizations, and from different organization types.

Theoretical Framework

The SL framework provided the theoretical foundation for this study which aimed, in part, to understand the level of SL in emergency management in Iowa. This theoretical framework was used also to determine what SL looks like in emergency management, and indeed, every facet of SL was perceived by participants in the study. This framework also suggested SL creates more effective organizations. In fact, a correlation was found between perceived organizational effectiveness and the perceived presence of SL by the SIP respondents suggesting emergency management organizations that use SL may be more effective (Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2018).

Limitations of the Study

While Cronbach's Alpha results demonstrated strong internal reliability of the subscales, external validity is a concern for this study which surveyed only emergency

managers in Iowa. Would emergency manager partners from larger metropolitan areas or, perhaps, smaller rural areas without the resources to create the partnerships necessary to the new emergency management paradigm also highly value SL? (United States Census Bureau, 2019).

With 82 responses, the findings should be highly valid (see Norman, 2010) for this set of respondents, but a different setting and group of respondents may produce different results. For example, with another set of respondents, SL may not be as highly valued as reflected by a strong correlation between SL and organizational effectiveness. In another study SL may also look different, with different facets of SL being more prominent. A variable that was not included was the region that respondents were from.

Another limitation of this study is the non-parametric data. The non-parametric analyses are considered less reliable by some experts (White & Sabarwal, 2014). Only through additional studies of SL in emergency management organization can these limitations be further understood and overcome.

Recommendations for Future Research

It is recommended that additional studies be performed on emergency management groups similar to SIP in more diverse environments, as Iowa is less diverse than the nation as a whole. To better understand the broader impact of SL on emergency management organizations similar research should be conducted, using the OLA, in other states and regions. I found SL was widely accepted in the emergency management multi sector environment. It is recommended that emergency management leaders accept this

morality-based leadership model because the mitigation of damage from disasters depends upon the participation of partners from all sectors of the economy. Having an emergency manager able to lead a diverse group of partners is of paramount importance, not only to the emergency manager but all those involved with disaster mitigation.

It is suggested that an additional demographic variable be added to future research seeking to delineate which region they are from. This should be dome rather than by locality or county, to help mask respondents.

Implications

SL can produce a more effective emergency management organization and have the additional effect of reinvigorating confidence in public sector management. This in turn could increase the public's confidence in government. Imagine constituents commenting on the effectiveness of public mangers instead of commenting on how detached they are from their constituents.

While there have been multiple studies conducted on SL generally, using the OLA in this study provided new information regarding SL organizational effectiveness in the new emergency manager organization. These new insights can provide those involved with emergency manager selection with a new set of criteria for selecting the best leaders for emergency management organizations.

I believe this study can also inform the development of new training materials for current or future EMs. The information provided by this study may move others to be more aware of the benefits of SL within the new EM organization paradigm (Padilla, 2015).

The results reported in this study could also affect how emergency management leaders lead their organizations and respond to crises. Through this study I may inform the development of new training materials for current or future EMs. The results may also move others to be more aware of the benefits of SL within the new emergency management organization paradigm (Padilla, 2015).

Conclusion

The perception of SL was widely recognized in emergency management organizations in Iowa. There was a relationship between the perceived presence of SL and perceived effectiveness of the emergency management organization. Furthermore, the perceived presence of SL was consistent across a diverse population of respondents.

The implementation of a SL selection process or the implementation of a SL training program for current or potential EMs will move us beyond the current EMs leadership paradigm which is more paramilitary in nature. EMs can have a positive or negative effect upon constituents. The better EMs perform their leadership responsibilities the better they can respond to emergencies and incur fewer losses in a disaster.

Potential for positive social change

The potential social change resulting from this research may be the acceptance of a morality-based leadership modeling in the emergency manager selection process. Because there seems a dearth of leadership studies including SL model, I may, through this study, shed some light on its usage in this arena.

It was hoped this research study will inform changes in the selection process for EMs as it relates to the candidate's leadership abilities, rather than most of the current selection processes which seem dependent upon the basic skill level of the appointee rather than leadership expertise. A positive association between SL expertise and partnership participation could lead to the inclusion of SL training programs which could lead to EMs who lead their organizations based upon what is good for the members and the constituents rather than what is good for the leadership alone.

References

Alexander, D. E. (2002). *Principles of emergency planning and management.* Harpenden, Hertfordshire, England, Terra Publishing

Allen, I. E., & Seaman, C. A. (2007). Likert scales and data analyses. *Quality Progress*, *40*(7), 64-65, doi: 10.12691/ajnr-1-1-1

Austin, J. (2000). *The Collaboration challenge* (1st ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Barbuto, J., & Wheeler, D. (2006). Scale development and construct clarification of the servant leader. *Group & Organizational Management, 31*(3), 300-326, https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601106287091

Barker, R. A. (2001). The nature of leadership. *Human relations*, *54*(4), 469-494, https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726701544004

Bass, B. (2000). The future of leadership in learning organizations. *The Journal of Leadership Studies, 7*(3), 23, https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190000700302

Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. (2008). *Handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and application*. New York NY Free Press.

Bass, B. W. (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: theory, research and managerial applications* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B., & Riggio, R. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Blake, R. R., & McCanse, A. A. (1991). *Leadership dilemmas--grid solutions*. Gulf Professional Publishing.

Blanca, M. J., Arnau, J., López-Montiel, D., Bono, R., & Bendayan, R. (2013). Skewness and kurtosis in real data samples, *Methodology*, https://doi.org/10.1027/1614-2241/a000057

Blanchard, K. Z., Zigarmi, D. & Zigami, P. (2013). *Leadership and the one-minute manager*. New York, NY: Harper.

Blanchard, K., & Hodges, P. (2003). *The servant leader: Transforming your heart, head, hands & habits*. Nashville, TN: J. Countrymen.

Boin, A., & Hart, P. (2003). Public leadership in times of crisis: Mission impossible? *Public Administration Review*, *63*(5), 544-553, https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-6210.00318

Bryman, A. (2017). Quantitative and qualitative research: further reflections on their integration. In *Mixing methods: Qualitative and quantitative research* (pp. 57-78). Routledge, https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315248813-3

Bryson, J. M., Crosby, B. C., & Stone, M. M. (2015). Designing and implementing cross-sector collaborations: Needed and challenging. *Public Administration Review*, *75*(5), 647-663, https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12432

Bucci, S. P., Inserra, D., Lesser, J., Mayer, M. A., Slattery, B., Spencer, J., & Tubb, K. (2013). After Hurricane Sandy: Time to learn and implement the lessons in preparedness, response, and resilience. *The Heritage Foundation*, *144*, https://www.heritage.org/homeland-security/report/after-hurricane-sandy-time-learn-and-implement-the-lessons-preparedness

Buchanan, E. A., & Hvizdak, E. E. (2009). Online survey tools: Ethical and methodological concerns of human research ethics committees. *Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics*, *4*(2), 37-48, https://doi.org/10.1525/jer.2009.4.2.37

Bureau, U.S. (2019) US Census quick facts, Washington D.C.*: Department of Commerce*, retrieved from http: www.census.gov/quickfacts/IA

Burns, J. M., *Leadership.* (1978). Row. *New York*, *280*.

Cerff, K., & Winston, B. E. (2006). The inclusion of hope in the servant leadership model. *Servant Leadership Research Roundtable*, https://www.regent.edu/acad/global/resources/

Chalfant, M. (2017). Trump pressed to secure U.S. critical infrastructure. *The Hill*, https://thehill.com/policy/cybersecurity/326218-trump-pressed-to-secure-us-critical-infrastructure

Chan, Y., & Walmsley, R. P. (1997). Learning and understanding the Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis-of-variance-by-ranks test for differences among three or more independent groups. *Physical therapy*, *77*(12), 1755-1761, https://doi.org/10.1093/ptj/77.12.1755

Chertoff, M. (2008). *The National Incident Management System* (Homeland Security Directive 5). Washington DC: Department of Homeland Security. U.S. Government Printing Office.

Ciulla, J. B. (1995). Leadership ethics: Mapping the territory. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 5*(1), 5-28, https://doi.org/10.2307/3857269

Ciulla, J. (1998). *Ethics: The heart of leadership*. Westport, CT: Preager.

Connelly, M. S., Gilbert, J. A., Zaccaro, S. J., Threlfall, K. V., Marks, M. A., & Mumford, M. D. (2000). Exploring the relationship of leadership skills and knowledge to leader performance. *The Leadership Quarterly, 11*(1), 65-86, https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00043-0

Demiroz, F., & Kapucu, N. (2012). The Role of Leadership in managing emergencies and disasters. *European Journal of Economic & Political Studies, 5*(1). https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/709b/e5648904a209dcaeee89230ddc9c4b7472aa.pdf

Dennis, R. S., & Bocarnea, M. (2005). Development of the servant leadership assessment instrument. *Leadership & organization development journal, 26*(8), 600-615, https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730510633692.

Dennis, R., & Winston, B. E. (2003). A factor analysis of Page and Wong's servant leadership instrument. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 24*(8), 455-459, https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730310505885.

Department of Homeland Security. (2008). *National Response Framework*. NRF Resource Center. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.

Department of Homeland Security. (2013). *NIMS*: *The National Response Framework*. Department of Homeland Security. Washington DC: Department of Homeland

Security. Retrieved from https://www.fema.gov/media-library-data/1382093786350-411d33add2602da9c867a4fbcc7ff20e/NIMS_Intel_Invest_Function_Guidance_FINAL.pdf

Department of Homeland Security. (2018a). *NIMS: Frequently asked questions.* Washington DC: Department of Homeland Security. Retrieved from http://www.fema.gov>nims>nimsfaqs

Department of Homeland Security. (2018b). *Emergency management: Vision, mission and principles*. Washington DC: FEMA. Retrieved from https://training.fema.gov/hiedu/docs/emprinciples/0907_176%20em%20principles12x18v2f%20johnson%20(w-o%20draft).pdf

Diehl, S. (2015). A gendered view of servant leadership. *The Journal of Applied Christian Leadership.* 9 (2), 111, https://knowledge.library.iup.edu/etd?utm_source=knowledge.library.iup.edu%2Fetd%2F1252&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages

Dinno, A. (2015). Nonparametric pairwise multiple comparisons in independent groups using Dunn's test. *The Stata Journal*, *15*(1), 292-300.

Dionne, S. D., Yammarino, F. J., Atwater, L. E., & Spangler, W. D. (2004). Transformational leadership and team performance. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *17*(2), 177-193, https://doi.org/10.1177/1536867X1501500117

Federal Emergency Management Agency. (2011). *Strategic foresight initiative: Getting urgent about the future. Critical infrastructure*. Washington, DC: FEMA.

Ferch, S. R. (2003). *Servant-leadership, forgiveness, and social justice.* Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership.

Fry, L. W. (2003). Toward a theory of spiritual leadership. *The leadership quarterly, 14*(6), 693-727, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2003.09.001

Fry, L. W., Matherly, L. L., Whittington, J. L., & Winston, B. E. (2007). Spiritual leadership as an integrating paradigm for servant leadership. *Integrating Spirituality and Organizational Leadership*, 70-82. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/JLee_Whittington/publication/228665610_Spiritual_leadership_as_an_integrating_paradigm_for_servant_leadership/links/00b7d521ba28eca46e000000.pdf

Ghasabeh, M., Soosay, C., & Reaiche, C. (2015) The emerging role in transformational leadership. *The Journal of Developing Areas, 49-6* 459-467, https://econpapers.repec.org/article/jdajournl/vol.49_3ayear_3a2015_3aissue6_3app_3a459-467.htm

Goffee, R., & Jones, G. (2015). *Authentic Leadership and Organizations: The Goffee-Jones Collection (2 Books)*. Harvard Business Review Press.

Greenleaf, R. (1970). The Servant as Leader [Pamphlet]. Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership.

Greenleaf, R. (1977). *Servant Leadership: A Journey into the Nature of Legitimate Power and Greatness*. Ramsey, NJ: Paulist Press.

Hesse, H. (1968). *Journey to the East* (H. Rosner, Trans.). New York: Farrar, Straus & Giroux.

Hjørland, B. (2016). Informetrics needs a foundation in the theory of science. In C. R. Sugimoto (Ed.), *Theories of Informetrics and Scholarly Communication* (pp. 20-46). Walter de Gruyter.

Irving, J., & Longbotham, G. (2007). Servant leadership prediction of effectiveness: Findings and implications. *Journal of Business and Behavior Sciences, 15*(2), 82-94, http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.495.2933&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Irving, J., & McIntosh, T. (2010). Investigating the value of and hindrances to servant leadership in the Latin American context: Initial findings from Peruvian leaders. *Journal of International Business and Cultural Studies, 2*, 1, http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.495.2933&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Isreal, G. (1992). Determining sample size. *The Institute for Food and Agricultural Science, 5,* Fact sheet PEOD-6

Jamieson, S. (2004). Likert scales: how to abuse them. *Medical Education, 38*(12), 1217-1218, doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2929.2004. 02012.x

Johnson, C. E. (2005). *Meeting the ethical challenges of leadership: Casting light or shadow*. SAGE Publications, Incorporated, Los Angeles, CA

Karens, R., Eshuis, J., Klijn, E. H., & Voets, J. (2016). The impact of public branding: An experimental study on the effects of branding policy on citizen trust. *Public Administration Review, 76*(3), 486-494. https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12501

Laub, J. (1999) Assessing the Servant Leadership organization: Development of the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment (SOLA) instrument. *Florida Atlantic University*, College of Education, 30, Retrieved from OLA group.com.

Laub, J. (2000). Assessing the Servant Leadership organization: Development of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument. *Florida Atlantic University, College of Education,* 30. Retrieved from OLA group.com

Laub, J. (2018). A summary of the studies using OLA.: *Organizational Leadership Group*. Retrieved from OLA group.com

Laub, J., Laub, J., & Ballenger. (2019). *Leveraging the Power of Servant Leadership*. New York, NYSpringer International Publishing. Retrieved from OLA group.com

Lee, J., Jones, P., & Mineyama, Y. (2002). Cultural differences in responses to the Likert scale. *Research in Nursing & Health, 25*, 295-306, https://doi.org/10.1002/nur.10041

Lewan, L. (2001). *To be a leader: Leadership beyond management*. Denver, CO: Remington Press.

Liu, A., Fellows, R., & Fang, Z. (2003). The power paradigm of project leadership. *Construction Management and Economics*, *21*(8), 819-829, https://doi.org/10.1080/0144619032000056199

Mahembe, B., & Engelbrecht, A. S. (2013). A confirmatory factor analytical study of a servant leadership measure in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *39*(2), 1-8, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.12.005

Mann, C. J. (2003). Observational research methods. Research design II: cohort, cross sectional, and case-control studies. *Emergency Medicine Journal*, *20*(1), 54-60, https://doi.org/10.1136/emj.20.1.54

Marburger III, J. H. (2005). *Science and technology: A foundation for homeland security*. Executive Office of the President, Washington D.C.: Office of Science and Technology Policy.

Marcus, L. J., Dorn, B. C., & Henderson, J. M. (2006). Meta-leadership and national emergency preparedness: A model to build government connectivity. *Biosecurity and Bioterrorism: Biodefense Strategy, Practice, and Science*, *4*(2), 128-134, https://doi.org/10.1089/bsp.2006.4.128

McEntire, D. A., & Myers, A. (2004). Preparing communities for disasters: issues and processes for government readiness. *Disaster Prevention and Management: An International Journal*, *13*(2), 140-152, https://doi.org/10.1108/09653560410534289

Mullner, R., & Kyusuk, C. (2010). Privatization. *In Encyclopedia of Disability* (30 April, p. 3). Sage. http://www.sageereference.com/disability/Article_n649.html

Mumford, M. D., Marks, M. A., Connelly, M. S., Zaccaro, S. J., & Reiter-Palmon, R. (2000). Development of leadership skills: Experience and timing. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *11*(1), 87-114, https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00044-2

Neill, M., Hayward, K. S., & Peterson, T. (2007). Students' perceptions of the interprofessional team in practice through the application of servant leadership principles. *Journal of interprofessional care*, *21*(4), 425-432, https://doi.org/10.1080/13561820701443512

Norman, G. (2010). Likert scales, levels of measurement and the “laws” of statistics. *Advances in health sciences education*, *15*(5), 625-632, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10459-010-9222-y

Pablo, A. L., Reay, T., Dewald, J. R., & Casebeer, A. L. (2007). Identifying, enabling and managing dynamic capabilities in the public sector. *Journal of management studies*, *44*(5), 687-708, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2006.00675.x

Page, D., & Wong, T. P. (2000). A conceptual framework for measuring servant leadership. *The human factor in shaping the course of history and development*, 69-110, https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Paul_Wong4/publication/242232213

Padilla, C. R. (2015). *An archival study of leadership requirements of combined emergency management/fire departments*. Capella University,

https://search.proquest.com/openview/1cbcc9049aaf04d6f3b9cc2fc82ffa19/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750&diss=y

Poon, R. (2006). A model for servant leadership, self-efficacy and mentorship. In *Proceedings of the 2006 Servant Leadership Research Roundtable*, https://www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/sl_proceedings/2006/poon.pdf

Popper, M., Amit, K., Gal, R., Mishkal-Sinai, M., & Lisak, A. (2004). The capacity to lead: Major psychological differences between leaders and nonleaders. *Military Psychology*, *16*(4), 245-263, https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327876mp1604_3

Reinke, S. J. (2004). Service before self: Towards a theory of servant-leadership. *Global Virtue Ethics Review*, *5*(3), 30-57, http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.455.7072&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership. (2018). Retrieved from https://www.greenleaf.org/

Russell, E. J., Broomé, R. E., & Prince, R. (2016). Discovering the servant in fire and emergency services leaders. *Servant Leadership: Theory & Practice*, *2*(2), 4, https://csuepress.columbusstate.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1021&context=sltp

Russell, R. F., Stone, G. (2002). A review of servant leadership attributes: Developing a practical model. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *23*(3), 145-157, https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730210424

Savage-Austin, P. A., & Honeycutt, D. A. (2011). Servant leadership: A phenomenological study of practices, experiences, organizational effectiveness and barriers. *Journal of Business & Economics Research, 9*(1), 49-54, https://doi.org/10.19030/jber.v9i1.939

Schermerhorn, J. R. (1997). Situational leadership: conversations with Paul Hersey. *Mid-American Journal of Business, 12*, 5-12., ISSN: 1935-5181

Sendjaya, S., & Sarros, J. (2002). Servant leadership: Its origin development and application in organizations. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 9*(2), 57-63, https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190200900205

Slater, S. F., & Narver, J. C. (2000). The positive effect of a market orientation on business profitability: A balanced replication. *Journal of business research, 48*(1), 69-73, https://doi.org/10.1016/s0148-2963(98)00077-0

Spears, L. C., & Lawrence, M. (Eds.). (2002). *Focus on leadership: Servant-leadership for the twenty-first century*. New York, NY John Wiley & Sons.

Spears, L. (2004). Practicing servant leadership. *The Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership*, Leader to Leader, 7-11, https://doi.org/10.1002/ltl.94

SPSS (2018). Kruskall-Wallis H test using SPSS statistics. *SPSS Tutorals.com*. Retrieved from: https://www.spss-tutorials.com/spss-kruskal-wallis-test-simple-tutorial-with-example/

Stone, A. G., Russell, R. F., & Patterson, K. (2004). Transformational Versus Servant Leadership–A Difference in Leader Focus, Servant Leadership Roundtable. *October*, *PP1*, *15*, https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730410538671

Tannenbaum, R., & Schmidt, W. H. (1973). How to choose a leadership pattern. *Harvard Business Review*, 51, 3, 162-164,168,170,173,175,178-180, May-Jun 73, https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315250601-8

Taylor, C. (2018). Descriptive vs. inferential statistics. *Thought Co.* Retrieved from https://www.thoughtco.com/differences-in-descriptive-and-inferential-statistics-3126224.

Torre, D. M., & Picho, K. (2016). Threats to internal and external validity in health professions education research. *Academic Medicine*, *91*(12), e21, https://doi.org/10.1097/acm.0000000000001446

Valero, J. N., Jung, K., & Andrew, S. A. (2015). Does transformational leadership build resilient public and nonprofit organizations? *Disaster Prevention and Management*, *24*(1), 4-20, https://doi.org/10.1108/dpm-04-2014-0060

Van Dierendonck, D., & Nuijten, I. (2011). The servant leadership survey: Development and validation of a multidimensional measure. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *26*(3), 249-267, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-010-9194-1

Vecchio, R. P. (1987). Situational leadership theory: An examination of a prescriptive theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *72*(3), 444, https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.72.3.444

Waddell, J. T. (2006, August). Servant leadership. In *Proceedings of the Servant Leadership Research Roundtable* *https://regentparents.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/sl_proceedings/2006/waddell.pdf*

Waugh, W., & Streib, G. (2006). Collaboration and leadership for effective emergency management. *Effective Emergency Management*, Special issue, 131-139, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2006.00673.x

White, H., & Sabarwal, S. (2014). *Quasi-Experimental Design and Methods: Methodological Briefs-Impact Evaluation No. 8* (No. innpub753), https://ideas.repec.org/p/ucf/metbri/

Wilson, D. F. (2013). *Servant leadership and job satisfaction in a multicultural hospitality organization: A quantitative, non-experimental descriptive study*. Grand Canyon University, https://media.proquest.com/media

Winston, B. E., & Hartsfield, M. (2004, August). Similarities between emotional intelligence and servant leadership. In *Proceedings of the Servant Leadership Research Roundtable* (pp. 1-7), https://www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/sl_proceedings/2004/winston_emotional_intelligence.pdf

Wong, P. T., & Page, D. (2003, August). Servant leadership: An opponent-process model and the revised servant leadership profile. In *Proceedings of the Servant*

Leadership Research Roundtable (pp. 1-11), https://www.meaning.ca/archives/archive/pdfs/WongServantLeadership.pdf

Wong, P. T., Davey, D., & Church, F. B. (2007). Best practices in servant leadership. *Servant Leadership Research Roundtable, School of Global Leadership and Entrepreneurship, Regent University, 7*(1), 1, https://www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/sl_proceedings/2007/wong-davey.pdf

Wooten, L. P., & James, E. H. (2008). Linking crisis management and leadership competencies: The role of human resource development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *10*(3), 352-379, https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422308316450

Yilmaz, K. (2013). Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research traditions: Epistemological, theoretical, and methodological differences. *European Journal of Education*, *48*(2), 311-325, https://doi.org/10.1111/ejed.12014

Yilmaz, A., Demir, G., & Esenturk, K. (2016). Health promoting lifestyle behaviors of employees in public sector. *Science Movement and Health, 16*(2), 285-292, https://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu.documents/51218906/HEALTH-PROMOTING_LIFESTYLE.pdf?response-content-disposition=inline%3B%20filename%3DHEALTH-PROMOTING_LIFESTYLE_BEHAVIORS_OF.pdf&X-Amz-Algorithm=AWS4-HMAC-SHA256&X-Amz-Credential=AKIAIWOWYYGZ2Y53UL3A%2F20200205%2Fus-east-

1%2Fs3%2Faws4_request&X-Amz-Date=20200205T080442Z&X-Amz-Expires=3600&X-Amz-SignedHeaders=host&X-Amz-Signature=c178367a4ab4167676921489760dddd8ac43f2366622643a5e6060f17cf2f0c0

Appendix A: Laub Training Model

Executive or Emerging Leadership Program

This special one-year program can be designed for executive leaders or emerging leaders and is designed to be delivered over a one-year period. The schedule, however, can be customized to fit your organization and your schedule. The curriculum is presented within the three C's of effective leadership; Leadership Competence, Character and Commitment.

10 Key Leadership Skill Areas

As a Leader, you must know how to …

I. **Take** the lead

- Making the decision to lead
- Understanding the key skills of leadership (Vision/Action/Mobilization/Change)
- Understanding the key skills of management (Plan/Organize/Supervise/Monitor)
- What leadership means at the Waterford (mission, vision, values)

II. **Become** a leader

- Personal leadership development
- Understanding your unique gifts and capacities (assessment)
- Awareness of personal weaknesses and pitfalls
- Build an individual Learning Plan (ILP)

III. **Assess** the situation

- Developing observation and interviewing skills

- Conducting a needs assessment
- Developing analysis skills – interpreting the information
- Utilizing a positive, assets-based approach to assessment

IV. **Envision** improvement

- Developing a vision
- Communicating your vision
- Creating a shared vision with your team
- Aligning your team to the vision

V. **Plan** your strategy

- Establishing priorities
- Setting strategic milestones and goals
- Managing your time effectively
- Organize the work (tasks and people)

VI. **Implement** your plan

- Building a bias for action, for yourself and your team
- Managing your progress
- Running effective meetings
- Celebrating achievements

VII. **Mobilize** your team

- Building strong relationships

- Identifying each person's unique contribution (giftedness)
- Building trust & communicating effectively
- Handling conflict within the team

VIII. **Achieve** key results (individual and team)

- Empowering/motivating others through transformational leadership
- Creating effective job descriptions (negotiating results and support)
- Holding people accountable for performance (reports/performance reviews)
- Utilizing coaching skills to enhance team and individual performance

IX. **Partner** with others

- Working effectively across departments
- Working with other leaders
- Partnering with vs. Leading over
- Linking to the bigger picture – moving the whole organization forward

X. **Celebrate** your success

- Affirming and encouraging individuals and the team
- Understanding incentive and rewards
- Taking time to reflect, and learn from, our success
- Programming celebration (Laub, 2000)

© James Alan Laub, 1998-2019
Permission to publish obtained: 02/18/2020

Appendix B: The OLA

Organizational

Leadership

Assessment

General Instructions

The purpose of this instrument is to allow organizations to discover how their leadership practices and beliefs impact the different ways people function within the organization. This instrument is designed to be taken by people at all levels of the organization including workers, managers and top leadership. As you respond to the different statements, please answer as to what you believe is generally true about your organization or work unit. Please respond with your own personal feelings and beliefs and not those of others, or those that others would want you to have. Respond as to how things *are* ... not as they could be, or should be.
Feel free to use the full spectrum of answers (from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree). You will find that some of the statements will be easy to respond to while others may require more thought. If you are uncertain, you may want to answer with your first, intuitive response. Please be honest and candid. The response we seek is the one that most closely represents your feelings or beliefs about the statement that is being considered. There are three different sections to this instrument. Carefully read the brief instructions that are given prior to each section. Your involvement in this assessment is anonymous and confidential.

Before completing the assessment, it is important to fill in the name of the organization or organizational unit being assessed. If you are assessing an organizational unit (department, team or work unit) rather than the entire organization you will respond to all of the statements in light of that work unit.

IMPORTANT ..... Please complete the following

Write in the name of the organization or organizational unit (department, team or work unit) you are assessing with this instrument.

Organization (or Organizational Unit) **Name**: Indicate **your present role/position** in the organization or work unit. Please **circle one**.

1 = Top Leadership (top level of leadership)

2 = Management (supervisor, manager)

3 = Workforce (staff, member, worker)

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in one of the five boxes

© James Alan Laub, 1998-2019
Permission to publish obtained: 02/18/2020

/

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	**Strongly Agree**

Section 1 In this section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to **the entire organization** (or organizational unit) including workers, managers/supervisors and top leadership.

In general, people within this organization ....

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Trust each other					
2 Are clear on the key goals of the organization					
3 Are non-judgmental – they keep an open mind					
4 Respect each other					
5 Know where this organization is headed in the future					
6 Maintain high ethical standards					
7 Work well together in teams					
8 Value differences in culture, race & ethnicity					
9 Are caring & compassionate towards each other					
10 Demonstrate high integrity & honesty					
11 Are trustworthy					
12 Relate well to each other					
13 Attempt to work with others more than working on their					
14 Are held accountable for reaching work goals					
15 Are aware of the needs of others					
16 Allow for individuality of style and expression					
17 Are encouraged by supervisors to share in making					
18 Work to maintain positive working relationships					
19 Accept people as they are					
20 View conflict as an opportunity to learn & grow					
21 Know how to get along with people					

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in <u>one</u> of the five boxes

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	**Strongly Agree**

<u>Section 2</u> In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to the **leadership** of the organization (or organizational unit) including managers/supervisors and top leadership

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
22 Communicate a clear vision of the future of the					
23 Are open to learning from those who are *below* them in the organization					
24 Allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed					
25 Work alongside the workers instead of separate from					
26 Use persuasion to influence others instead of					
27 Don't hesitate to provide the leadership that is					
28 Promote open communication and sharing of					
29 Give workers the power to make *important*					
30 Provide the support and resources needed to help workers meet their goals					
31 Create an environment that encourages learning					
32 Are open to receiving criticism & challenge from					
33 Say what they mean, and mean what they say					
34 Encourage each person to exercise leadership					
35 Admit personal limitations & mistakes					
36 Encourage people to take risks even if they may fail					
37 Practice the same behavior they expect from others					
38 Facilitate the building of community & team					
39 Do not demand special recognition for being leaders					
40 Lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior					
41 Seek to influence others from a positive relationship rather than from the authority of their					

42 Provide opportunities for all workers to develop to their full potential					
43 Honestly evaluate themselves before seeking to					
44 Use their power and authority to benefit the workers					
45 Take appropriate action when it is needed					

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	**Strongly Agree**

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in one of the five boxes

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
46 Build people up through encouragement and					
47 Encourage workers to work *together* rather than competing against each other					
48 Are humble – they do not promote themselves					
49 Communicate clear plans & goals for the organization					
50 Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally					
51 Are accountable & responsible to others					
52 Are receptive listeners					
53 Do not seek after special status or the "perks" of					
54 Put the needs of the workers ahead of their own					

Section 3 In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it is true about **you personally** and **your role** in the organization (or organizational unit).

In viewing my own role ...	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
55 I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute					
56 I am working at a high level of productivity					
57 I am listened to by those *above* me in the organization					

58	I feel good about my contribution to the organization					
59	I receive encouragement and affirmation from those *above* me in the organization					
60	My job is important to the success of this organization					
61	I trust the leadership of this organization					
62	I enjoy working in this organization					
63	I am respected by those *above* me in the organization					
64	I am able to be creative in my job					
65	In this organization, a person's *work* is valued more than their *title*					
66	I am able to use my best gifts and abilities in my job					