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A COMPARISON OF MANAGERIAL AND LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS OF VETERAN AND CIVILIAN DEVELOPED LEADERS IN A CIVILIAN CONTEXT

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A COMPARISON OF MANAGERIAL AND LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS OF VETERAN
AND CIVILIAN DEVELOPED LEADERS IN A CIVILIAN CONTEXT

by

JOHN C. DEXTER

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Human Resource Development and Technology

Ann Gilley, Ph.D., Committee Chair

College of Business and Technology

The University of Texas at Tyler
April 2016

The University of Texas at Tyler
Tyler, Texas

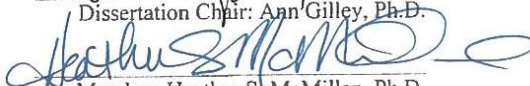
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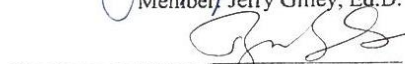
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Abstract

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April 2016

Since the terrorist attacks on September 11, 2001, there has been an increase in American patriotism that has facilitated a strong commitment of U.S. employers to actively recruit and hire military veterans. These highly publicized employer veteran hiring commitments easily number in the hundreds of thousands, if not millions. However, the commitments to employ veterans does not specify how these veterans will be employed. In fact, there is wide-spread difficulty in translating military training and experience to civilian applications, and there is virtually no empirical support as to whether veterans will be more or less successful in civilian employment than their civilian developed counterparts.

The problem of predicting the successful integration of veterans into civilian employment is particularly challenging when assessing managerial and leadership skills. To date there are no published studies that objectively compare veteran and civilian developed leadership success in a civilian employment context. As such, there is no empirical support for the long-held belief that military veterans are “better” leaders, nor is there any empirical evidence that they are not.

This study compares the perceived managerial / leadership effectiveness of both veteran and civilian developed leaders in civilian contexts by conducting a quantitative research study.

The study was conducted through the utilization of a validated survey tool developed by the researcher. Response data was from the subordinate perspective and consisted of a representative sample of both military veteran and civilian developed leaders employed by U.S. civilian employers. Respondent data was gathered through utilization of the online survey tools MTurk and Qualtrics, and the results analyzed utilizing IBM® SPSS® software and AMOS® statistical analysis software.

Once the data was gathered and analyzed, statistically relevant results were evaluated, conclusions drawn, and limitations and opportunities for further research is discussed.

Chapter One

Introduction

Chapter one introduces the problem statement that directs the focus and intent of this study. Chapter one also 1) provides evidence in support of the problem; 2) outlines the need for this study; 3) forwards the problem statement; 4) outlines existing research of the problem; 5) presents the research questions that form the foundation of this study; and 6) outlines the significance of the study. In conclusion, chapter one defines key terms and forwards the researcher's perspective.

Background of the Problem and the Need for this Study

As of October 31, 2014, there were 1,419,565 active duty military personnel in the four branches of the United States military (Defense Manpower Data Center, 2014), and approximately 21,999,000 veterans in the United States (United States Department of Veterans Affairs, 2014). In response to the large military active duty and veteran population, veteran transition and integration into the civilian workforce has drawn significant attention (McGregor, 2013). According to the U.S. Department of Labor (2015), former military personnel account for approximately 7.7% of the total civilian employment population.

The September 11th terrorist attacks facilitated a rise in patriotism in the United States (Osanloo, 2011). As a result of this rise, the employment of veterans has solicited a strong commitment from U.S. employers to employ veterans (McGregor, 2013; Rudstam, Strobel, Gower, & Cook, 2012). Specifically, there has been a concerted effort from U.S. employers such as BNSF Railroad, Home Depot, and McDonald's to hire more than 200,000 veterans over the next three to five years (Whitehouse Press Release Blog, 2014). Walmart has committed to

hiring any honorably discharged veteran within two years of their discharge date (McGregor, 2013), and other major employers such as Deloitte, USAA, and the Blackstone Group have announced major veteran hiring initiatives as well (Whitehouse Press Release Blog, 2014). Further, on March 24, 2014, the Vietnam Era Veterans' Readjustment Assistance Act (VEVRAA), as overseen by the Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP), was amended to strengthen the law requiring that government contractors and subcontractors take affirmative action to employ specific classifications of veterans protected by the act. These protected veterans include; Vietnam era veterans, disabled veterans and veterans who served on active duty during a war action that qualified for a campaign badge (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015).

Statement of the Problem

From a practical perspective, there is an increasing number of veterans entering the civilian workforce, and they are more qualified than ever before. Specifically, there are renewed commitments from US employers to hire veterans (McGregor, 2013; Press Release Blog, 2014; Rudstam et al., 2012), veterans will make up at least 8% of the total civilian workforce in the near future (US Department of Labor, 2015), over 600,000 veterans have returned to school to pursue a college degree since 2009 (Griffin, 2015), and there were 59,000 college educated (Bachelor's Degree or higher) veterans in the civilian population in 2014 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). As these large numbers of veterans matriculate from the military, with thousands having aspirations of leadership or managerial positions, the question as to whether or not prior military experience effectively prepares an employee for civilian leadership employment will become more and more important. Making this question more complicated is that employers have a difficult time understanding how a veteran's military experience translates

to a successful civilian career, and leadership experiences earned in the military, are often overlooked by civilian employers (Arendt & Sapp, 2014).

In consideration of the importance of understanding the exiting veteran's existing and potential leadership abilities, understanding the probability of their successful integration into civilian roles is of great and increasing importance (Arendt & Sapp, 2014; Dao, 2013; Kleykamp, 2007).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the perceived leader effectiveness of veteran and civilian developed leaders in a civilian context, and compare those perceptions in an effort to determine whether there is a discernable and statistically valuable difference between the two groups. Acknowledging that lack of clarity in the existing literature on the constituents of leadership effectiveness, this paper will build upon the theories of Awamleh & Gardner (1999), Cottrill, Lopez & Hoffman (2014), Laschinger & Wong (1999), Redding (1972), Teece, Pisano, & Shuen (1997) and Wong & Laschinger (2013), and utilize the constructs of employee's perception of his / her own accountability, perceived leader authenticity, perceived leader communication effectiveness, and perceived employee's own empowerment, as the key components of the greater concept of perceived leader's overall leadership / managerial effectiveness.

By utilizing the constructs developed in the previous studies this paper 1) evaluates the overall perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness through utilization of the constructs outlined above, and provides support for the hypotheses put forth in this study; 2) provides a comparison of the perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness of veteran and civilian

developed leaders; and 3) provides research results, discussion, and implications for scholars and practitioners alike.

Theoretical/Conceptual Underpinnings of the Study

Theories of perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness are discussed and described through four antecedent predictors; perceived employee accountability (ACC), perceived leadership / managerial authenticity (AUT), perceived leadership / managerial communication effectiveness (COM), and perceived employee empowerment (EMP).

Accountability

Laschinger & Wong (1999) define accountability as being “the willingness to be answerable for one’s actions” (p. 7). Hall, Frink, Ferris, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Bowen (2003) define accountability as “an implicit or explicit expectation that one’s decisions or actions will be subject to evaluation by some salient audience(s) with the belief that there exists the potential for one to receive either rewards or sanctions based on the expected evaluation” (p. 33). The concept of accountability has been demonstrated to support both motivation (Enzle & Anderson, 1993) and performance (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989). In fact, when perceived accountability is high, perceived leadership effectiveness is high and store sales increase (Wallace, Johnson, Mathe, & Paul, 2011). Further, as stated above, an employee’s feeling of accountability is directly linked to an employee’s feeling of empowerment and to the perception that his / her leader is authentic (Wong & Laschinger, 2013).

Authenticity

Authentic leadership occurs when a leader knows and understands his / her strengths, weaknesses and values, and leverages those understandings to strengthen and guide his / her interpersonal interactions (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Said differently, it is “a process whereby leaders become self-aware of their values, beliefs, identity, motives and goals, and grow to

achieve self-concordance in actions and relationships” (Gardener, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2007, p.392).

According to Cottrill et al. (2014), authentic leaders can facilitate greater organizational citizen behaviors. Accepting Organ’s (1988) description of an organizational citizen behavior as being an “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4), we can conclude that a leader’s perceived authenticity is impactful on organizational performance, and therefore, leader/ managers who are perceived as being authentic are perceived as being effective leaders / managers overall.

Trustworthy, ethical, balanced, and fair supervisors are viewed by their subordinates as being “authentic” and as a result, those employees feel “empowered” with the freedom to perform their jobs as they see fit (Wong & Laschinger, 2013). Because of this interaction between authenticity and empowerment, Wong & Laschinger (2013) claim employees feel as if they are held more “accountable” for their performance and productivity. Following this train of thought, it is logical that authentic leaders facilitate their employee’s feeling of empowerment and accountability.

Communication

Sharing knowledge throughout an organization is another key area of leadership that directly impacts an organization’s ability to create and sustain a competitive advantage (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). In order to effectively share information and knowledge, an organization must employ leaders who are effective at communication (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999). Redding (1972) identifies four leadership practices that are characteristic of effective leaders and are rooted in effective communication. First, effective leaders are more vocal and

communication-oriented than ineffective leaders. Second, they are more responsive to employee questions. Third, they tend to manage through questioning as opposed to being directive. Fourth, they explain the reasons and rationale of changes and direction and they are more open. Saonee, Manju, Suprateek, & Kirkeby (2011) forward that the development of trust in a relationship and subsequent job performance require communication. Scarnati (2000) says that poor communication hinders performance and Morgeson, Reider, & Campion (2005) says that communication facilitates “discussions of performance strategies and development of norms; thus, communicators are likely to be perceived as key contributors to their team’s success. Further, communicative individuals have been shown to exhibit “elements of positive affectivity” (p.588).

Empowerment

Laschinger & Wong (1999) forward that access to empowerment “structures” results in higher collective accountability and ultimately higher productivity. In fact, accountability and empowerment are closely related (Wallace, Johnson, Mathe, & Paul, 2011). Wong & Laschinger (2013) posit that the authenticity of leaders effects the perceptions of structural empowerment, and Kanter (1982) states that employees who feel empowered, feel as if they have greater authority and responsibility than they would if they were not empowered.

Research Question

The literature review for this research demonstrates that perceived leadership effectiveness is individually supported by the four antecedent constructs (employee’s perceived feeling of self-accountability, perception of leader authenticity, perception of employee’s manager’s communication effectiveness, and employee’s perception of his / her ownself-empowerment). As outlined above, the literature also supports that there are relationships

between the four contexts, and that all four are interrelated to some degree. However, there is no existing research that compares perceived military veteran developed leadership / managerial effectiveness and civilian developed perceived leadership managerial effectiveness in a civilian context from an overall leader effectiveness perspective. There is also no existing research that compares perceived military veteran developed leadership / managerial effectiveness and civilian developed perceived leadership from an individual context perspective. As a result of the literature review and the resulting observations, the following research question has been identified: Does a leader's veteran status moderate the relationships between the four constructs of leadership effectiveness (accountability, authenticity, communication and empowerment) and an employee's perception of his / her leader's overall leader effectiveness?

Overview of the Design of the Study

Although Merriam (2014) states, "individual respondents define the world in unique ways" (p.90), and supports the utilization of a qualitative technique for this research type, this study will be of quantitative design. This method was chosen because it will provide "a deductive approach to the relationship between theory and research, in which the accent is placed on the testing of theories" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 27). This method follows "the practices and norms of the natural scientific model," and this method incorporates the idea that "social reality as an external, objective reality" (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 27).

Sample

The selected sample of the study participants was contacted by way of the online survey tool, MTurk. Participants could voluntarily opt-in to participate.

Approaches to data collection

The data was gathered by utilizing a 36 question survey instrument developed and validated by the researcher. Responses to one question, COM2, were collected, however, the responses were

not utilized in this study. The survey was delivered using Qualtrics (2013) online data collection software and was delivered by Amazon's MTurk survey product.

Approaches to data analysis

The survey results were analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling to determine the structural associations of the four constructs of the leader effectiveness survey and the overall perception of leader effectiveness as well as causal influences. These methods confirmed the structural associations between constructs and outcomes as well as the relationships among the constructs. The analysis also evaluates the moderating effect of leader veteran status on the four constructs and overall perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness.

Issues associated with reliability and validity

Issues associated with reliability and validity of the scale were identified and addressed where possible using a pilot survey sample, and following the guidance of previous academic research. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using structural equation modeling and utilizing the results of the SEM analysis to make adjustments to the model in order to ensure a good model fit.

Assumptions/Limitations

The following assumptions were identified for this study:

1. The sample population will be a generic cross-section of the U.S. population with access to the Internet.
2. Sample data collected for this study will be from a non-specific generic group of respondents who meet the minimum requirements for participation.
3. The sample will be taken from opt-in participants only.
4. The sample will be a mix of online respondents from the U.S. population of the online survey tool, MTurk.

The following limitations are acknowledged for this study:

1. The response rate may be affected by the length survey. The survey included 27 leader effectiveness questions and ten demographic questions.
2. Due to the similarity of behaviors that effect more than one of the four constructs simultaneously, the validity / reliability of the scale may be artificially high.
3. The nature of a survey-based, quantitative research design eliminates the ability to ask open ended questions and therefore eliminates the ability to gather additional details such as motivations and feelings.
4. Respondents will be gathered from the U.S. employee population. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable across all countries and cultures.
5. Self-report bias (common rater effect) may result in common method variance because the respondent was the same individual for both the predictor and criterion variable (P. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & N. Podsakoff, 2003).
6. This research only considers four predictors of perceived leader effectiveness and may not address all of the potential relationships.

Significance of the Study

For practitioners, evaluating leadership / managerial effectiveness of former military leaders from the perspectives of selecting, assessing, and developing leaders would be a valuable tool for understanding the background of the most effective civilian leaders. This study provides information and evidence-based support for employers considering or actively employing veterans. The results of this study will help human resources and organizational development professionals in developing strategy and learning programs, and in selecting, evaluating, and developing the best leaders. Refining the practitioner's skill sets in these areas will improve the probability of success of veterans in civilian leadership capacities.

Specifically, this study offers an important perspective to civilian leadership in three ways. First, while there are many studies on leadership from both a civilian and military perspective, there are few if any that evaluate and compare the leadership effectiveness of veterans and civilian developed leaders. Second, this study is important because of the large number of veterans in the workforce, and the commitment of major U.S. employers to hire them. Third, understanding the backgrounds of successful leaders will provide a foundation for increasing leadership effectiveness regardless of industry.

This study will also assist scholars in identifying existing gaps in literature, providing guidance on future research concepts, adding to the existing knowledge base, and potentially linking research areas not previously considered. It will also add to the existing research on managerial / leadership practices and their impact on effective leadership.

Definition of Terms

Chain of command: The hierarchy within military organizations. The command structure that outlines the reporting relationships of service members. The chain of command begins with the immediate supervisor and ends at the Secretary of Defense and ultimately the President of the United States.

Department of the Army (DA): The military organization headed by the Secretary of the Army.

Department of Defense (DOD): The civilian lead governmental organization that is headed by the Secretary of Defense and which manages and provides overall direction to all branches of the United States Armed Forces.

Commissioned Officer: The members of the military leadership corps who hold a rank as a result of governmental document and appointment. They are the most senior military personnel and are the only category of officers able to assume responsibility of commanding officer. They

occupy the ranks of O-1 through O-10.

Non-Commissioned Officer (NCO): Senior enlisted soldiers who, due to rank and assignment, are designated as military leaders. Regardless of the branch of service an NCO holds the rank of E-4 through E-9.

UCMJ: The Uniform Code of Military Justice which is the military justice system that is independent of U.S. civilian courts and administered either through nonjudicial judgment of the applicable commanding officer or by way of courts martial.

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter one of this study provides the background of the problem, the statement of problem, and outlines the purpose of this study. Chapter one also includes both the theoretical and conceptual foundations for the study and analysis, outlines the research questions considered in the study, provides an overview of the study design, discusses the significance of the study, and provides definitions of terms associated with the study.

Chapter two discusses the existing literature reviewed and considered in support of this study. Chapter three outlines in detail the design of the study, the research questions and hypotheses applicable to this research, a thorough overview of the research sample and population, and in-depth outline of data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter four provides a comprehensive account of data analysis procedures, hypotheses testing, and data analysis. This paper concludes with chapter five that provides a summary of the overall study and associated findings. Chapter five also elaborates on the conclusions drawn from the research, its implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research areas and opportunities.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

The literature review of this study focuses on three main areas. First, this review addresses the ambiguous definition of leadership, briefly outline the development and evolution of leadership theory, provides an overview of several of the leading leadership theories, and discusses the concept of leadership effectiveness. Second, this review explores military leadership and discusses some of the differences between civilian and military leaders. And third, this review explores the relationship between effective leadership and organizational success.

This literature review was developed by researching keywords and their interrelationships. The main keywords were identified by utilizing the topic flow from leadership to military, and civilian leadership differences to leadership skills, and traits to leadership's impact on team and organizational performance. The following topic searches were conducted;

- Leaders * AND Team,*
- Team Leadership,
- Effective Leaders *AND Teams,
- Effective Teams,
- Military AND Leaders,*
- Military Leaders* AND Teams,*
- Civilian* AND Leaders,*
- Civilian Leaders* AND Military Leaders,*
- Organizations* AND Teams,*

Research for this paper was conducted by utilizing online and library databases including *Science Direct*, *Sage Journals Online*, *Business Source Complete*, *Digital National Security Archive*, *ProQuest*, *Emerald*, and *SpringerLink* to source academic journals, e-books, textbooks, white papers, dissertations, and websites. These sources contained literature in industries including education, business, human resource development, leadership / management, psychology, information technology, and other social and hard sciences.

Leadership

Leaders Versus Managers

Leadership and management are terms that are often used interchangeably, and while they do have their differences, there are undeniable similarities and overlaps as well. Reynolds and Warfield (2010) describe managers as administrators and leaders as innovators. They explain that managers are primarily interested in and focused on the how and when aspects of leading people, while leaders are responsible for the what and why of leading people. Managers maintain, control, imitate, and copy, and they operate from a short-term perspective. Leaders, however, innovate and originate. They are motivated by people, they develop and inspire trust, challenge norms, and operate from a long-term perspective.

Table 1 highlights many of the accepted differences between leaders and managers.

Table 1

General Definitions of Managers and Leaders

Leaders	Managers
Read the future	Evaluate performance
Establish a vision	Plan and budget
Communication a unified message	Staff and recruit
Align and enable the organization	Assign task
Build motivation and commitment	Allocate resources
Develop individuals through coaching	Coordinate and track progress
Model by personal example	Provide training and guidance
Recognize and select future leaders	Solve problems

(Grundling, Hogan, & Cvitkovich, 2011, pp. 16-17)

While different in their perspectives, leadership and management do have areas of overlap, and as such, they are often difficult to separate (Toor, 2011). For example, Yukl & Heaton (2002) explain that leadership and management techniques are utilized interchangeably between managers and leaders, and because of that, they can be evaluated in the same ways and by the same means. Therefore, team and organizational performance as a result of leadership and / or manager effectiveness can also be evaluated the same way. Further, the most effective managers and leaders must effectively demonstrate and perform some of the same traits and activities as the other. As Mintzberg (1975) states, leaders and managers are neither the same nor different, they are intertwined. So, if one considers each responsibility from the perspective of the other (leaders and managers), it is reasonable that those responsibilities are shared to some degree. As such, their combined effect will be considered as a single perspective, and will be generically referred to as “leaders” for the purpose of this research.

Leadership Defined

The term leadership has many different definitions and constructs. Northouse (2012) defines leadership as “The process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to

achieve a common goal” (p. 5). Ivancevich and Matteson (2002) describe leadership as “the process of influencing others to facilitate the attainment of organizationally relevant goals” (p.7), and Stogdill (1950) says that leadership is, “the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement” (p.3). Due to the contextual influences that create the “real-world” a universally accepted definition remains in flux and has been challenging to define (Hackman, Walton, & Goodman, 1986; MacKie, 2014; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001).

Just as there are widely varied definitions of leadership, there are many different ways of evaluating leadership. Some theories suggest leadership is founded in individual traits, others focus on styles, and others consider different approaches to leading groups and individuals. Unfortunately, none of the dozens of theories are wholly correct and none are wholly incorrect as a representation of THE single theory that is effective with every individual or team in every situation. The reason that no existing leadership theory can be effectively applied to all conditions is because of the independent and situationally unique internal and external forces on leaders. As an example, Table 2 outlines some of thousands of influencers that effect leadership effectiveness,

Table 2 Leadership *Influences*

Loyalty	Fairness	Support
Praise	Heart	Praise
Enthusiasm	Tolerance	Psychology
Home Life	Relationships	Emotion
Commitment	Personal Sacrifice	Stimulus
Social Norms	Investment	Advancement Potential
Physiology	Responsibility	Sense of Achievement
Health	Desire	Perspective
Ethics	Work Ethics	Interest
Effort	Life Experience	Ability
Adaptability	Flexibility	Training
Laws / Rules	Attitude	Trust
Recognition	Culture	Morals
Rewards	Determination	Reputation
Skills	Needs	

Regardless of the definition of leadership that one chooses to embrace, there are two main ideas in all of them. They are, influencing others and goal achievement. According to Bass (1990), the most effective leaders are adept at both influencing and goal achievement, although subsequent research has not shown a definitive relationship between leadership effectiveness and proficiency in both dimensions (Sashkin, 1992).

While influencing and goal achievement are the foundation of the common understanding of leadership, there is another dimension of leadership as well. According to Boal & Hooijberg (2001) and Hunt (1991), leadership within an organization is either primarily responsible for the leadership *of* the organization or the leadership *in* the organization, or said another way, “strategic leadership” versus “supervisory leadership” (Boal & Hooijberg, 2001). As such, there is a need to acknowledge and differentiate between the two different levels of leadership.

There is limited research to quantifiably support the impact of “strategic leadership” on organizational performance (Hambrick, 2007), and generalizing leadership behaviors to both

strategic and supervisory leadership applications may or may not be applicable to this research project. As such, this study primarily focuses on “supervisory leadership theories.”

A Brief History of Leadership Theory Development

Leadership theory has been evolving since Plato stated that a leader is a “man of power with a sincerely truth-seeking vision” (Aaltio-Marjosola & Takala, 2000, p.148). However, the earliest leadership theories in the U.S. did not emerge until the beginning of the 20th century. They were created from two main theoretical schools of thought as described by Stogdill (1975, p.4);

1. *The environmentalist perspective* that considers leadership as being dependent on circumstance and focused primarily on activities.
2. *The personalist perspective* that describes leadership as inherent traits that enable an individual “to obtain respect and obedience.”

By the 1940s, new leadership theories began to emerge, and they developed independently, in parallel, and within the contexts of five approaches (A Brief History of Leadership Theory, 2005). The five contexts according to A Brief History of Leadership Theory (2005) are; Psychology and Biology, Sociology, Balancing People and Tasks, Based on Skills and Competencies and Based on Complexity.

Psychology and Biology Context

The Psychology and Biology approach to leadership theory development began with Thomas Carlyle’s Great Man Theory of Leadership (Carlyle, 1993). The Great Man Theory of Leadership forwarded the idea that great leaders are born, not created. In line with the Great Man Theory, the Psychology / Biology approach developed theories that championed the ideas of inherent characteristics of leadership. Trait theories embraced the ideas that effective leaders had inherent qualities that set them apart from others (Bass, 1990). Stogdill (1948) states that a

leader must possess specific leader traits in order to effectively lead and wrote the first comprehensive compilation of 29 identified leadership traits with the specific and unique traits of the leader being viewed as being most important.

On the heels of Stogdill came Personality Preferences, which was an interpretation although not a complete representation of Jung's personality types (Pittenger, 2005). The most famous of these being the Meyers – Briggs Trait Indicator that was developed in the 1940s (The Myers-Briggs Foundation, 2014).

The second half of the 20th century saw the development of theories based on personal characteristics, with theory of emotional intelligence being one of the most recent. Emotional intelligence is defined as an individual's ability to influence one's own and other's emotion(s) in order to affect an individual's or team's way of thinking and / or acting (Giardini, 2006; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008).

Sociological Approach

The sociological perspective of "leadership" theory evolved in the middle of the 20th century with "Group Dynamics." Group dynamics forwards that the characteristics, processes, and / or properties that make a team unique is specific to the group and not the individuals in the group (Cronin, 2011).

Greenleaf forwarded the theory of Servant Leadership in the 1970s. The Servant leadership theory states that if a leader focuses on his employees by putting them first, treating them fairly, and being open and honest, they will return the gesture with strong performance (Northouse, 2012).

In the 1990s, organizations recognized the value of diverse employee populations in order to embrace all of society's perspectives. Hewlett (2013) forwarded the following six diversity based behaviors that drive innovation. Which "ensuring that everyone is heard, making it safe to

propose novel ideas, giving team members decision-making authority, sharing credit for success, giving actionable feedback, and implementing feedback from the team” (p.1).

Shared Leadership is the most recent theory that stems from the sociological perspective. It posits the idea that shared leadership is “an emergent team property that results from the distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members” (Carson, 2007, p. 1218).

Balancing People and Tasks

Boss-centered and Subordinate-centered leadership theories created the pathway for two of the most influential leadership theories of the last 50 years, Path-Goal theory and Situational Leadership.

The Path-Goal Theory. The Path-Goal theory of leadership contends that leaders lead their teams effectively by clearly communicating the method and process (path) to achieve goals, rewarding teams and individuals for achieving those goals, and facilitating their success by removing obstacles (House, 1971).

Situational Leadership. Situational leadership is a leader’s ability to lead different individuals differently in different situations, and to effectively evaluate situations that arise (Hill, 1999).

Leadership Theories Based on Skills and Competencies.

Competency modeling in the 1980s and Organizational Competencies in the early 2000s are the latest theories to emerge and are based primarily on skills and competencies. Competency modeling is described by Campion (2011) as “collections of knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs) that are needed for effective performance in the jobs in question” (p. 226), and organizational competencies are the application of organizational knowledge and how those competencies interact and affect the performance and production of the organization (Edgar, 2008).

Leadership Theories Based on Complexity.

The Organizational Life Cycle theory was first forwarded in the 1970s and has continued to be refined into the 21st century. The Organizational life cycle theory is anchored by the development and evolution of leaders as part of a changing organization. Going one step further, Organizational Interdependencies theory explains that the structures, systems, and processes within an organization have a direct effect on one another (Khandwalla, 1973), and as such leadership is directly affected by the dynamics of the organization.

However, consensus on a single definition has been elusive. According to Quinn (1983), there are no fewer than nine models of organizational life cycle theory each of which utilize unique factors to explain organizational change over time and the change's effect on leadership.

Leading Leadership Theories

There are two distinct categories of leadership theory. They are, leader-centric theories and team / individual-centric styles. Team-centric and individual-centric theories focus on the team and the members of that team, while leader-centric leaders are focused on themselves, the leader. Both leader-centric and team / individual-centric leaders give direction, execute plans and encourage followers, however they primarily use different approaches in achieving their goals (Jayakody, 2008).

Some of the best known and widely accepted leader-centric and team / individual-centric theories are included in Table 3:

Table 3 *List of Leader-centric versus Team-centric Leadership Theories*

Leader-centric Theory	Team-centric Theory
Trait approach	Situational leadership
Skills approach	Fiedler’s contingency theory
Style approach	Path-goal theory
	Leader-member exchange theory
	Transformational leadership
	Servant leadership

Leader-centric Theories

Trait approach. Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks (2001) defined trait leadership as “relatively coherent and integrated patterns of personal characteristics, reflecting a range of individual differences that foster consistent leadership effectiveness across a variety of group and organizational situations” (p.6). The trait approach theory explains leadership as an innate quality that is born to the leader and therefore eliminates individuals that do not possess the recognized leadership traits from even being considered leaders.

However, there is a lack of consensus as to what leadership traits are most valuable when predicting a leader’s success. In fact, there are many inconsistencies and interpretations of what traits do and do not impact a leader’s ability to be successful. For example, according to Bennis and Nanus (1985), “confidence” is the most important leadership trait. Kouzes and Posner (2010, p.15) state that “Credibility is the foundation of leadership” and House (1976, p.4), following in the footsteps of Plato (Aaltio-Marjosola & Takala, 2000, p.148) says that “charisma has a profound and extraordinary effect on followers.”

The skills approach. There have been 65 different leadership behaviors identified. Among them are, collecting, processing, planning, maintaining, supervising, disseminating, developing, executing, maintaining, advising, conceptualizing and taking initiative (Fleishman, Mumford, Zaccaro, Levin, Korotkin, & Hein, 1991; Olmstead, Cleary, & Salter, 1975). The skills approach leadership theory purports that leadership skills are not exclusively innate conversely that they can be taught, learned and developed.

The style approach. The style approach leadership theory organizes leaders into categories of grouped behaviors or “styles”. Reddin (1970) identified eight different styles:

1. Deserter – Passive and uninvolved
2. Missionary – primarily interested in harmony
3. Autocratic – Directive and untrusting
4. Compromiser – Highly affected by work pressures
5. Bureaucratic – Rules driven
6. Developer – Trusting and devoted to employee’s development
7. Benevolent autocrat – Effective at managing results without resentment
8. Executive – Team oriented, results driven and manages to the individual.

Blake, Mouton, & Bidwell, (1985) identified five styles, one of which, team management is considered by Northouse (2012) to be one of the most effective styles.

Team-centric Leadership Theories

There are six team-centric leadership theories that are generally accepted. They are, Situational leadership theory, Fiedler’s contingency theory, Path-goal theory, Leader-member exchange theory, Transformational leadership theory, and Servant leadership theory. They are

similar in construct in that they all have an orientation toward the team of team member as opposed to the leader.

Situational leadership. The situational leadership theory is based upon the “relationship between the leader’s supportive and directive behavior, and the follower’s level of development” (Grimm, 2010, pp. 74-75). Situational leadership theory is founded on the ability of the leaders to effectively lead differently in different situations, to be able to effectively and efficiently recognize, evaluate and respond to changing situations and then to take the appropriate action (Hill & Christ, 1999).

Fiedler’s Contingency Theory. Fiedler’s contingency theory forwards that a significant input into a team’s effectiveness and efficiency is the result of the match between the leader’s leadership style and the situational demands of the circumstances (Hill, 1969). Fiedler’s contingency theory proposes that “situational factors alter the effectiveness of behavior and the leadership style of a particular leader” (da Cruz, Nunes, & Pinheiro, 2011, p.8). According to Fiedler’s contingency theory, a leaders’ characteristics, behaviors, and styles alone do not create effective leaders. Different leadership styles are situationally employed by leaders in order to be most effective. Stated differently, Fiedler’s contingency theory is an integration of leadership styles and situations that are favorable to the leader (Mitchell, Biglan, Oncken, & Fiedler, 1970). And, that the team and subordinate performance is dependent, at least in part, on the match between the leader’s leadership style and the situational demands (Fiedler, 1978; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Hill, 1969; House, 1971; Likert, 1967; Yukl, 1981).

Path-goal Theory. According to Northouse (2012), the foundation of path-goal theory is the idea that by focusing a leader’s activities on employee motivation, employee performance and satisfaction will be improved. House (1971) furthers that idea by stating that path-goal theory

explains that by clarifying the “path”, removing impeding obstacles, and rewarding teams and individuals for achieving goals, performance will improve. In other words, path-goal theory forwards that an employee will be most effectively motivated if they believe that the goal is achievable and that they will be rewarded for achieving it.

Leader-member Exchange Theory. The leader-member exchange purports that the relationship between leader and subordinate and the interactions they share directly impacts organizational performance (Jha & Jha, 2013). The Leader-member exchange theory emphasizes the leader’s communication effectiveness and his / her collaboration with subordinates, and focuses the leader’s attention on “performers” (Northouse, 2012).

Transformational Leadership. Transformational leadership theory is leadership through inspiration. The concepts of individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspiration drive a leader’s decisions that in turn effect and align the employee’s values into the goals of the organization (Choudhary, Akhtar, & Zaheer, 2013). According to Burns (1978) transformational leadership is “one or more persons engaging with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality” (p.20).

According to Northouse (2012), transformational leaders are excellent at building trust and leading through collaboration. Effective transformational leaders are ethical, maintain high standards, have a strong understanding of their own personal identity, and are excellent role models. Transformational leaders are adept at creating a vision that embodies the values and perspectives of their team members individually and collectively. They are heavily involved in the organization and have a significant effect on its culture. .

Servant Leadership Theory. Servant leadership forwards the concept that leaders see themselves as a servant to his or her employees. They are governed by ethics, and by a genuine concern for their subordinates (Greenleaf, 2013).

Servant leadership theory is distinctly different from other leadership theories in that leaders need not have any specific skills or traits. Rather, it supports the idea that by putting employee needs and desires first, and being honest and fair, employees will perform (Northouse, 2012).

Effective Leaders

While it is widely held “that leaders are instrumental in the creation of effective teams” (Wheelan, 2010, p. 91), there is a lack of consensus on the definition of effective leadership and how those leaders create effective teams (Zaccaro et al., 2001). Lynham & Chermack (2006) and Hambrick (2007) claim that there is no supporting research for a direct link between leadership and organizational performance. Hales (1986) and Noordegraaf & Stewart (2000) claim that there is limited existing research that clearly identifies the behaviors effective managers and leaders use to motivate their teams in pursuit of goals.

Some leadership theorists say that individual traits are fundamental to effective leadership (Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1948). Some theorists state that the leader’s skills are most important (Fleishman et al., 1992), or their style is most important (Reddin, 1970), and still others believe that the situational approach to leading is most important (Fiedler, 1978; Grimm, 2010; Hill, 1969; Mitchel et al., 1970). Unfortunately, none are wholly correct and none are wholly incorrect. There is no existing leadership theory that is applicable to all situations. That is due the unique circumstantial and conditional forces and influences (both internal and external) that effect leadership effectiveness. Some of those influencers are included in Table 4.

Table 4

Effects on Leadership

Ethics	Adaptability	Desire	Life Experience	Sense of Achievement	Morals
Loyalty	Physiology	Responsibility	Flexibility	Culture	Trust
Enthusiasm	Health	Personal Sacrifice	Determination	Needs	Training
Home Life	Effort	Relationships	Psychology	Support	Interest
Commitment	Laws / Rules	Tolerance	Attitude	Emotion	Ability
Social Norms	Recognition	Heart	Skills	Stimulus	Perspective
raise	Rewards	Fairness	Investment	Advancement Potential	Reputation

Military Leadership

Organizationally, the military is made up of two distinctly different career paths, enlisted and commissioned officer. The enlisted career path is “blue-collar” and more task oriented while the officer path is focused on strategic leadership. This difference is best clarified by the promotional practice. Promotion for enlisted personnel is more objective than officer promotion (Peters, 2009), and is based on the time in grade, time in service, skill level, performance evaluation point system score, and a recommendation from the service-member’s immediate commander (Williamson, 1999). Officer promotion on the other hand is subjective and is decided by a “promotion board” who evaluates officers based on potential, not necessarily on past performance (Peters, 2009). Both paths result in military supervisory roles, enlisted as front line and lower level managers, and officers as strategic managers of managers.

The U.S. Army defines an Army leader as “anyone who by virtue of assumed role or assigned responsibility inspires and influences people to accomplish organizational goals. Army leaders motivate people both inside and outside the chain of command to pursue actions, focus thinking, and shape decisions for the greater good of the organization” (Department of Army, 2006, p. 1-1).

According to Creech (2004), military leaders, must be role models who lead by example, and are also able to lead by authority and influence. They must be open and accessible. They must encourage a positive vision and culture. They must be able to differentiate between the severity of mistakes. They must be fair and consistent in their application of discipline without being discriminatory. They must eliminate the perception or existence of favoritism, and pay particular attention to eliminating nepotism, and cronyism. They must lead through trust and loyalty. And, finally, they must know when and how to discipline subordinates appropriately. Creech’s hallmarks of military leadership are not significantly different than behaviors

demonstrated by effective civilian leaders. However, military and civilian leaders are unique to one another, and each has its own strengths and weaknesses (Horn, 2014).

Weber (1947), through his research on government organizations identified seven “classical attributes of bureaucracy.” The seven attributes are, rules, specialization, meritocracy, hierarchy, separate ownership, impersonality and accountability. Weber claims that these attributes were the facilitators of governmental success, and while they exist in differing magnitudes in all organizations, they are most powerful in governmental bureaucracies. One of Weber’s attributes, hierarchy, is the foundation of military leadership. The military refers to its hierarchy as “command” whereas command is defined as “the authority that a commander in the military service lawfully exercises over subordinates by virtue of rank or assignment” (Department of Army, 2006, p. 2-3).

The concept of “command” is so fundamental to the military that it is specifically called out in the Oath of Enlistment as follows: “I will obey the orders of the President of the United States and the orders of the officers appointed over me, according to regulations and the Uniform Code of Military Justice. So help me God” (Department of Army, 2006, p. 2-2).

Operating in cooperation with Weber’s seven attributes and particularly with hierarchy (command) are three additional concepts that are unique to the military and facilitate the unique nature of military leadership. They are, the military discipline process, the legal commitment of enlistment and officer commissions and the “clan” culture.

In the military, there is a justice system separate and independent of U.S. civilian courts. It is the Uniform Code of Military Justice or the UCMJ. The UCMJ was created in 1775 by special session of the provisional congress to establish a legal system designed to empower military leaders to “keep good order, and, to the utmost of his power, redress all such abuses or

disorders which may be committed by any officer or soldier under his command . . .” (The Articles of War 1775 as cited by Hoyle, 2014, p.368). The UCMJ has been a role model for many later justice systems and initiated such fundamental concepts as “innocent until proven guilty” (Essex & Pickle, 2002), however, the UCMJ is unique in that it has two distinct punishment doctrines. They are, administrative and legal or nonjudicial and judicial. The UCMJ recognizes crimes that are uniquely military such as desertion and insubordination, and the application of the UCMJ is not geographically contingent (Rives & Ehlenbeck, 2002). The most powerful component of the UCMJ from a leadership perspective is the ability of a commander to take direct punitive action for offenses that are specifically work related and not criminal. These nonjudicial punishments can range from restriction to base or forfeiture of pay to reduction in rank or discharge from military service, and there is no due process required (Wilde, 2007). While seemingly the same as civilian employer discipline, nonjudicial punishment under the UCMJ is much more severe, and in the case of a nonjudicial military discharge, results in the loss of veteran benefits and the lifelong stigma of not having served the country honorably (Yarmolinsky, 1971).

Logically, the question arises, “why not quit the military?” The answer to that question is fundamental to the second major difference between military and civilian leadership which is the contractual nature of military membership. Regardless of whether a service member has taken the oath of enlistment or has accepted a commission as a military officer, he / she is bound by the UCMJ to complete his / her commitment. Leaving the military without permission is initially classified as absent without leave or AWOL. However, after 30 days of being AWOL during peace time or immediately during war time, a service member may be charged with desertion. While the consequences for being AWOL are generally handled through nonjudicial punishment,

desertion is a serious offense which during war time can result in a death sentence (Hartnagel, 1974).

The third major difference between military and civilian leadership is the exceptional opportunity to build and participate in teams. This is due primarily to the commonality of values and goals, the feeling of membership and cohesion of teams, the ability to participate, and the general feeling of ‘we-ness’ that makes the teams feel more like a family than an organizational entity (Yardley & Neal, 2007). Also known as “clan culture”, these intense team orientations are generally oriented toward teamwork and employee commitment, and facilitate a great feeling of trust that empowers military leaders beyond civilian leaders (Cameron & Quinn, 1999).

As a result of these main differences between military and civilian environments, and the very nature of military leadership responsibilities and relationships, military leaders are empowered with the authority to use his / her command capacity to give direction and make decisions with greater consequences for their subordinates than their civilian counterparts. In effect, they have “more teeth”. As a result, military and civilian leaders lead and manage differently, and it would stand to reason that some of the behaviors learned and refined in the military would be carried forward into post military leadership capacities.

The Impact of Effective Leadership on Team and Organizational Success

Organizational success is most often evaluated by the organization’s financial performance such as profitability (EBITDA, which is earnings before interest, taxes and the depreciation of assets), shareholder equity and stock price, as well as other measures that may also indicate organizational success. Some of these measures are, organizational growth, market share, expansion, scalability, safety record, efficiency and productivity (Crumpton-Young &

Ferreras, 2013). Regardless of the success measures that are being considered, leadership is a key contributor to achieving it (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Greenleaf, 1970; Jones, 2012; Mukli, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2005; Wheelan, 2010). Effective leaders lead teams who finish projects faster, produce higher quality products and services, and generate more revenue than less effective teams (Wheelan, 2010).

Kurt Lewin first explained that group dynamics is key to shaping the behavior of its members. Lewin claimed that “it is fruitless to concentrate on changing the behavior of individuals because the individual in isolation is constrained by group pressures to conform.” (Burnes, 2004, p.983). As such, teams, not individuals have the greater influence on organizational effectiveness and teamwork is the vehicle that is most impactful to the achievement of organizational goals (Burke, 2010, LaFasto & Larson (2001). However, “Effective team performance is not the automatic result of bringing together qualified individuals.” (Dalenberg, Vogelaar, & Beersma, 2009, p.S32). An effective team requires an effective leader, and the greater that leader’s interpersonal and collaborative skills are, the more effective he or she will be at leading effective teams (LaFasto & Larson, 2001). Effective leaders impact team and ultimately organizational success by adding value to areas of business such as process and performance, communication, instilling values, modeling behaviors, driving accountability and managing resources (Kaplan & Norton, 1995). Even though team leadership has become more efficient due to advances in technology, the fundamentals of leadership remain the main driver of organizational success and failure (Wheelan, 1994).

Effective Teams

The workplace continues to evolve and as it does, it continually becomes more team-centric (Sundstrom, De Meuse, & Futrell, 1990). Northouse (2012) identifies two outcomes of effective teams, performance results and development results. Performance results are achieved when effective teams successfully perform tasks and achieve goals as a shared entity, (Lindsley, Brass, & Thomas, 1995) and they are a result of quality decision making and implementation, shared problem solving, goals achieved and work completed, and “institutional leadership” provided by the team (Nadler & Spencer, 1998). Team development on the other hand is “the cohesiveness of the team and the ability of group members to satisfy their own needs while working effective with other team members” (Nadler & Spencer, 1998, p. 24).

According to Zacarro et al. (2001), the effectiveness of a team can be evaluated by considering four specific elements: The cognitive levels of the team and their leader, how motivated team members are, the moods, feelings and attitudes of team member, and the processes for team coordination. Hackman & Walton (1986) say an effective team has clear, engaging direction, enabling performance situations that contain structure, support and coaching, and adequate resources. Larson and LaFasto (1989) cite eight characteristics of team effectiveness, clear and elevating goals, results-driven structure, competent team members, unified commitment, a collaborative climate, standards of excellence, external support and recognition and principled leadership. Nancarrow, Booth, Ariss, Smith, Enderby, & Roots (2013) identifies the following ten principles of effective teams. They must have a leader who establishes a clear direction and vision for the team, incorporate a shared set of values, demonstrate a culture of trust, ensure appropriate processes and procedures, effectively utilize feedback to improve quality, utilize effective communication strategies, have members with an

appropriate mix of skills, competencies, and personalities, demonstrate team-centric competencies (team functioning, collaboration, communication, and professional skills and experience), promote autonomy with team cooperation and facilitate individual and team development.

Leadership's Contribution to Effective Teams

There is no consensus and little clarity as to a true definition and description of an effective team. This is due to individual interpretations and the situational, environmental and contextual influences occurring simultaneously that veil a leader's contributions (MacKie, 2014). That said, there is no need to confirm a single universally accepted definition or an understanding of the magnitude of a leader's contribution to an effective team, as a team's success is contingent, at least in part, on its leader's contributions. Leaders do in fact have an important contribution in shaping team processes and performance, and are therefore central to team effectiveness (Hackman & Walton, 1986; Zaccaro et al., 2001). Stated simply, "leaders are instrumental in the creation of effective teams" (Wheelan, 2010, p. 91).

Fleishman et al. (1992), identified the following four categories of effective team leadership, information search and structuring, problem solving, personnel resources management and managing material resources managing personnel resources being twice as impactful as any other category (Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas, & Halpin, 2006). Kaplan & Norton (1995) elaborate on Fleishman's four categories by identifying six distinct functional areas where leadership directly effects team effectiveness. They are, process and performance, communication, communicating and instilling values, modeling behaviors, driving accountability and managing Resources.

Process and Performance. The effectiveness of a team impacts business success by executing the business's core business processes and leaders play an important role in shaping team processes and performance (Hackman & Walton, 1986). According to Singh (2012, p.22), teams and their leadership directly influence business processes in the following areas. customer marketing, employee development, employee satisfaction, quality, process improvement, change management, financial analysis, reporting, capital management, management, sales, product development, product and / or service delivery, accounting and technology

Communication. Sharing knowledge throughout an organization is another key area of leadership that directly impacts an organization's ability to create and sustain a competitive advantage (Teece et al., 1997). In order to effectively share information and knowledge, an organization must employ leaders who are effective at communication (Awamleh & Gardner 1999). Redding (1972) identifies four leadership practices that are characteristic of effective leaders and are rooted in effective communication. 1. Effective leaders are more vocal and communication-oriented than ineffective leaders. 2. They are more responsive to employee questions. 3. They tend to manage through questioning as opposed to being directive. 4. They explain the reasons and rationale of changes and direction and they are more open (Redding, 1972).

Instilling Value. Exposure to the ideals and values modeled by a team's leader facilitates a team's creation and sharing of a representative ideal of the leader's behaviors (Charbonnier-Voirin, 2010). According to Waldman & Galvin (2008), by creating the rules for decision-making, facilitating a specific leadership style, influencing beliefs, modeling attitudes, and directing team behaviors, a leader is most effective at creating and instilling values in his or her team. By exposing team members to these behaviors, leaders are able to facilitate the

development and sharing of their ethical orientations and values with their team (Brown & Trevino, 2006). Further, consistent ethics and values have been shown to improve profitability by preserving a company's reputation and creating a climate of customer trust (Babin, Boles, & Robin, 2000).

Modeling Behaviors. According to Barling, Weber, & Kelloway (1996), a team leader's behaviors directly influence team performance, and according to Yukl (2012), the four categories of leadership behaviors that are effective at leading teams are, task orientation, relations orientation, change orientation and external orientation. Yukl (2012) defines his four categories of leadership behaviors as follows;

1. Task Orientation consists of:
 - a. Planning – such as decision making, organization, assigning tasks, scheduling activities and resources allocation
 - b. Clarifying – such as explaining tasks, responsibilities and accountabilities, establishing and communicating priorities and deadlines, establishing performance standards and communicating policies, procedures and processes
 - c. Monitoring operations – such as direct observations, document review, information systems, and conducting employee meetings
 - d. Problem solving – such as leading change, facilitating disciplinary actions, continuously reviewing and revising processes and procedure
2. Relations- Orientation consists of;
 - a. Supporting – such as demonstrating supportive behavior, building cooperation, counseling and advising

- b. Developing – such as facilitating career counseling, training, experiential learning and developmental coaching
 - c. Recognizing – such as praise and appreciation
 - d. Empowering – such as providing autonomy and soliciting, considering and using employee input
3. Change Orientation
- a. Advocating change – such as explaining the consequences of change or not changing and influencing the acceptance of change initiatives
 - b. Envisioning change – such as effectively communicating the future state of the organization after change occurs
 - c. Encouraging innovation – such as encouraging continuous improvement, considering different perspectives, experimenting with options and creating a climate of trust
 - d. Facilitating collective learning – such as reviewing and improving the existing learning environment, exploring other learning options, enhancing and facilitating knowledge and knowledge exchange, benchmarking effectiveness and value and conducting post-mortem reviews
4. External Orientation
- a. Networking – such as attending meetings and conferences, participating in applicable associations and networks; professional socializing and relationship building
 - b. External monitoring – such as monitoring economic and industry specific change, identifying potential business threats and opportunities, gathering information and

business intelligence, reviewing publications and industry reports, conducting and reviewing market research, and evaluating competitors

- c. Representing – such as conducting transactions and communication with superiors, peers, subordinates, clients, suppliers and investors, requesting additional resources as needed and promoting the team and negotiating agreements

Driving Accountability. Performance accountability drives effort and motivation (Koonce, Anderson, & Marchant, 1995). Effective leaders are able to drive accountability through transparency, applying rules of equality, conducting themselves with integrity, and being responsible, responsive, and efficient (Behn, 2001). Through those actions, and the projection of those actions in all directions including up, down, lateral, inward, and upward (Burke, 2005) effective leaders are able to create an environment of accountability and efficiency.

Managing Resources. In order to effectively leverage a firm's capabilities, and to maximize shareholder and customer value, an organization must be able to effectively identify, acquire and allocate necessary resources (Sirmon, Hitt, & Ireland, 2007). Managing resources includes material resources, as well as personnel resources. Even though effectively managing personnel resources is twice as effective at driving team productivity (Burke et al., 2006), effectively managing material resources has a positive effect on team performance as well (Weiss, Hoegl, & Gibbert, 2013).

Theoretical Framework

Lynham & Chermack (2006, p.73), claim that “the direct link between leadership and business performance is implied rather than explicit, i.e., the majority of studies that examine leadership are not studies that tend to link leadership practices to objective outputs of the

leadership system”. Hambrick (2007) states that research in support of the definitive leadership on organizational performance is lacking. Going beyond the absent linkages of leadership to performance, there is also a lack of empirical research that clearly identifies the behaviors that effective managers and leaders use to motivate their teams in pursuit of goals (Hales, 1986; Noordegraaf & Stewart, 2000).

Despite the lack of significant empirical evidence supporting the explicit linking of leadership and managerial effectiveness to either team or individual performance, Yukl (2012) maintains that leadership effectiveness is the ability of leaders to “improve the performance of a team or organization by influencing the processes that determine performance” (p. 66). As such, leadership effectiveness is extremely important to organizational success (Galvin & Lange, 2012; Hackman & Walton, 1986; Jones, 2012; Liden, Wayne, Chenwei, & Meuser, 2014; Peterson, Sipe, & Frick, 2009; van Dierendonck, 2011; Wang et al., 2014; Zaccaro et al., 2002).

This study acknowledges the vague definition of leadership and accepts that there remains a debate as to what leader / managerial constructs are most applicable and impactful on the perception of leadership / managerial effectiveness (House & Aditya, 1997), or if effective leader effectiveness is influenced by the unique environmental situation in which a leaders / manager operates (Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971). This study does not differentiate between universal or contingency theories, it focuses on four constructs that literature supports as being applicable and impactful on perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness. This paper does not intend to imply that the four chosen constructs are the only and / or the best constructs, only that they are four that have been shown to be applicable and impactful.

Wong & Laschinger (2013) state that employees “have more input into how their work is done and when they have the information and the resources needed to perform their roles, this

should motivate them to assume more responsibility and to take greater ownership of work unit outcomes, especially where they see the manager as being trustworthy, ethical, balanced, and fair in their decision-making” (p. 956). In other words, employees who view their supervisor as being “authentic”, participate in effective “communication”, and are “empowered” to perform their jobs feel as if they are held “accountable”. Further, Wong & Laschinger (2013) posit that the perceived authenticity of leaders directly affects the perceptions of structural empowerment and Laschinger & Wong (1999) states that access to empowerment “structures” results in higher collective accountability, and ultimately higher productivity, and that authentic leaders can facilitate greater organizational citizen behaviors of which accountability is one of the identified behaviors (Cottrill, Lopez, & Hoffman, 2014).

Accountability

Laschinger & Wong (1999) define accountability as being “the willingness to be answerable for one’s actions” (p. 7). Hall, Frink, Ferris, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Bowen (2003) define accountability as “an implicit or explicit expectation that one’s decisions or actions will be subject to evaluation by some salient audience(s) with the belief that there exists the potential for one to receive either rewards or sanctions based on the expected evaluation” (p. 33). The concept of accountability has been demonstrated to support both motivation (Enzle & Anderson, 1993) and performance (Hochwarter et al., 2007; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989). In fact, when perceived accountability is high, perceived leadership effectiveness is high and store sales increase (Wallace, Johnson, Mathe, & Paul, J. (2011). Further, as stated above, an employee’s feeling of accountability is directly linked to an employee’s feeling of empowerment and to the perception that his / her leader is authentic (Wong & Laschinger, 2013).

Authenticity

Authentic leadership occurs when leaders know and understand their strengths, weaknesses and values, and leverage those understandings to strengthen and guide their interpersonal interactions (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), or said differently, it is “a process whereby leaders become self-aware of their values, beliefs, identity, motives and goals, and grow to achieve self-concordance in their actions and relationships’ (Gardener, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2007, p.392).

According to Cottrill et al., (2014), authentic leaders can facilitate greater organizational citizen behaviors. Accepting Organ, (1988) description of an organizational citizen behavior as being an “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4), we can conclude that perceived leaders / managerial authenticity is impactful on organizational performance.

Communication

Sharing knowledge throughout an organization is another key area of leadership that directly impacts an organization’s ability to create and sustain a competitive advantage (Teece et al., 1997). In order to effectively share information and knowledge, an organization must employ leaders who are effective at communication (Awamleh & Gardner 1999). Redding (1972) identifies four leadership practices that are characteristic of effective leaders and are rooted in effective communication. They are, first, effective leaders are more vocal and communication-oriented than ineffective leaders. Second, they are more responsive to employee questions. Third, they tend to manage through questioning as opposed to being directive. Fourth, they explain the reasons and rationale of changes and direction and they are more open. Saonee, Manju, Suprateek, & Kirkeby (2011) forward that the development of trust in a relationship and

subsequent job performance require communication. Scarnati (2000) says that poor communication hinders performance and Morgeson, Reider, & Campion (2005) says that communication facilitates “discussions of performance strategies and development of norms; thus, communicators are likely to be perceived as key contributors to their team’s success. And, communicative individuals have been shown to exhibit “elements of positive affectivity” (p.588).

Empowerment

Laschinger & Wong (1999) forward that access to empowerment “structures” results in higher collective accountability and ultimately higher productivity. In fact, accountability and empowerment are closely related (Wallace et al., 2011). Wong & Laschinger (2013) posit that the authenticity of leaders effects the perceptions of structural empowerment. In fact, employees who feel empowered feel as if they have greater authority and responsibility than they would if they were not empowered (Kanter, 1982).

Trustworthy, ethical, balanced, and fair supervisors are viewed by their subordinates as being “authentic” and as a result, they are “empowered” with the freedom to perform their jobs as they see fit (Wong & Laschinger, 2013). Because of this, Wong & Laschinger (2013) claim employees feel as if they are held more “accountable” for their performance and productivity.

Summary

The literature review of this study focused on three main areas of existing literature and research including, first, the ambiguous definition of leadership, a brief outline of the development and evolution of leadership theory, an overview of several of the leading leadership theories and a discussion on the concept of leadership effectiveness. Second, an exploration of military leadership and an outline of some of the differences between civilian and military

leaders. Third, an exploration of the relationship between effective leadership and organizational success.

The literature review chapter also discusses the importance of this study to human resource development and organizational development practitioners. This discussion included, the unique nature of comparing the leadership effectiveness of veterans and civilian developed leaders, creating an opportunity for additional research around the large number of veterans in and entering the workforce, creating an understanding of how to effectively and appropriately employ veterans joining the civilian employment market, and helping to understand the backgrounds of successful leaders. This chapter also identified areas of value to HRD scholars such as identifying existing gaps in literature, providing guidance on future research, adding to the existing knowledge base and potentially linking research areas not previously considered.

Chapter Three

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the perceived leadership and managerial effectiveness of veteran and civilian developed leaders in a civilian context, and compare those perceptions in an effort to determine whether there is a discernable and statistically valuable difference between the two groups. The intent of this study is to provide empirical evidential support to answer the question, who makes a better perceived leader, a military veteran or a civilian developed leader?

This study was of a quantitative design study and utilized a specialized survey tool to collect data from a global employee population using commercial electronic survey tools Qualtrics and MTurk. The collected data was analyzed to test this study's research questions and five research hypotheses, and utilized structural equation modeling as well as both descriptive and inferential statistical methods for the analysis. Chapter three presents the methodology for this study that includes, the research questions and hypotheses, the design of the research, the rationale for the selection of the design, survey development and validation, the target population and sample, the procedures and process for sample collection, external validity, an overview of the pilot study, instrumentation description and rationale for utilization, validity and reliability, data collection, expected data analysis, and limitations and weaknesses.

Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses were as follows:

H₁: supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of their feeling of accountability and their perception of his / her supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness.

H₂: A supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of the supervisor's authenticity and their perception of his / her supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness.

H₃: A supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of the supervisor's communication effectiveness and their perception of his / her supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness

H₄: A supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of their feeling of empowerment and their perception of his / her supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness.

Based on these research hypotheses, Figure 1 depicts the conceptual hypothesized model.

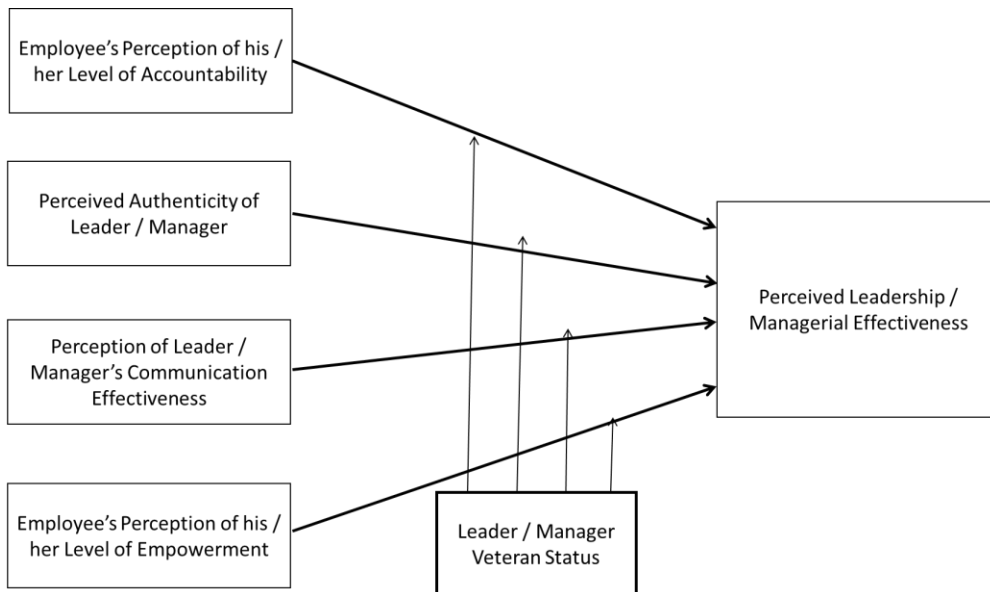


Figure 1. Hypothesized Model 1

The relationships identified in the hypotheses (above) were based on the existing literature on leadership / management effectiveness, employee's perceived feeling of

accountability (Enzle & Anderson, 1993; Hall, Frink, Ferris, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Bowen, 2003; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Laschinger & Wong, 1999; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989; Wallace et al., 2011) perceived leader authenticity (Avolio and Gardner, 2005; Cottrill et al., 2014; Gardener, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2007; Organ, 1988), perceived leader communication (Awamleh and Gardner, 1999; Luthans, 1988, Redding, 1972; Teece et al., 1997), and perceived employee empowerment (Kanter, 1982; Laschinger & Wong, 1999; Wallace et al., 2011; Wong & Laschinger, 2013).

Research Design and Its Appropriateness

This study was based on a quantitative research design approach. This method was chosen because it provided “a deductive approach to the relationship between theory and research, in which the accent is placed on the testing of theories.” This method followed the “the practices and norms of the natural scientific model” and incorporate the idea that “social reality as an external, objective reality” (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 27).

This research study utilized non-experimental, descriptive, and inferential quantitative methods through a self-reporting survey tool in order to gather data for the analysis of the perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness of both veteran and civilian developed leaders / managers in a civilian context. Participants were contacted by way of the online survey tool, MTurk.

The quantitative data was collected using a survey of a generic population of subordinate direct reports of both civilian developed and veteran leaders / managers. A quantitative approach was chosen for this study as quantitative research is a measure of “objective reality” with the aim of the research to “determine how closely the data of the study approach ideal data as established

by the normal curve and whether the divergence, if any, is 'significant' within certain prescribed statistical parameters" (Leedy, 1997, p.111).

Due to the large number of civilian and veteran employees in the workforce, and the desire to approximate ideal data as established by a normal distribution, a quantitative approach was determined to be most appropriate.

Survey research is extremely flexible due to the variety of formats by which it can be conducted such as email, traditional mail, telephone, face-to-face, and online via the Internet. However, since veterans make up a small percentage of the total workforce (7%, U.S. Department of Labor, 2015), a large population of respondents was needed in order to gather enough veteran responses to be statistically valuable. As such, the survey for this study was conducted using the online survey and analysis tools MTurk and Qualtrics. Utilization of this approach limited financial cost, limited time spent by the researcher in administration of the surveys, allowed for the electronic gathering of results, minimized the opportunity for data entry errors, and allowed for design flexibility (Tourangeau, 2004). Further, during the pilot study that was conducted in the development of the survey for this study, respondents identified the ease of use and flexibility of a web based survey as components of the survey that they found most valuable. A literature review of survey design techniques also supported the pilot respondent's perspective.

This study was exploratory in nature and as such, it required a method appropriate to gather perceptions from a large group of both veteran and civilian developed leaders. Further, there is limited, if any, solid empirical research on the perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness of both veteran and civilian developed leaders / managers in a civilian context, and because of the limited research, there was no existing validated model on which to base this

study. In the absence of an existing model, this study utilized previous research on general perceptions of leadership / managerial effectiveness as they apply to a homogenous mix of all US leaders and managers, regardless of veteran status. The model for the survey utilized in this study is derived from, and builds upon the previous research of Cottrill, Lopez, & Hoffman (2014), Laschinger & Wong (1999) and Wong & Laschinger (2013). This study utilized the constructs of perceived employee accountability, perceived leadership / managerial authenticity, perceived leadership / managerial communication effectiveness, perceived employee empowerment, and overall leadership effectiveness as the key components as put forth by the authors listed in the previous paragraph.

Population and Sample

The U.S. workforce consists of approximately 185,000,000 (US Department of Labor, 2015) workers of which approximately 7.7 percent are veterans (United States Department of Veterans Affairs, 2015). Accepting these theoretical populations are representative of a cross-section of the entire U.S., this study assumed that veterans and civilian developed leaders / managers exist in all industries regardless of geography. As such, a generalizable voluntary nonprobability sample of respondents was utilized by way of online survey tools that have been demonstrated to be an effective sampling strategy (Schillewaert, Langerak, & Duhamel, 1998).

Potential respondents were gathered from online survey participants who elected to participate in exchange for a minimal financial payment of \$0.50. The benefits of online surveys are that the researcher can get immediate delivery of the survey, gather and track data in real-time, experience higher response rates, reduce costs, and guarantee a greater level of respondent anonymity than traditional surveying techniques (Leong & Austin, 2005). The estimated response rates for online research ranged anywhere from 0% to 85.3% (Leong & Austin, 2005).

The survey was administered using Qualtrics that was available through the University of Texas at Tyler graduate school. Qualtrics allowed for the creation and administration of a confidential, on-line survey capable of tracking responses and collecting formatted data that is readily downloadable into Excel or IBM® SPSS® software.

The $N \geq 100$ rule of thumb (Kline, 2005) stated that a sample size of 100 should be considered small, a sample size between 100 and 200 should be considered medium, and a sample size exceeding 200 should be considered large as sample size influences the chi square and the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) fit indices (Hoelter, 1983) as well as power and standard errors (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). In'nami, (2013) validated the $N \geq 100$ rule of thumb stating that, "It follows that sample size for these SEM models may be said to be overall adequate. One caution was that the results were limited to the studies and models that could be analyzed in terms of precision and power" (p. 345). Keeping with the $N \geq 100$ rule of thumb, and the recommendations of Hoelter (1983), In'nami, (2013), Kline (2005), and Schumacker & Lomax (2010), the minimum sample size for this study was expected to be around 200. The actual sample size was 153 from both groups or 306 for the combined sample.

Instrumentation

Although there is quite a bit of existing literature supported by previously validated surveys that explore other constructs of leadership / management, the researcher was unable to identify any that was specifically designed to evaluate the perceived effectiveness of veteran and civilian developed leaders in a civilian context. Further, due to the unique environmental and cultural factors of the military as discussed in the literature review, not all leadership / managerial constructs were deemed appropriate to apply in equal magnitude for both veteran and civilian leaders / managers. As a result of the lack of robust empirical research and an applicably tailored survey tool, this study used a survey that was specifically developed to gather data that will be statistically relevant and valid for both veteran and civilian developed leaders. The survey in this study was designed to gather self-reported data and respondents' attitudes (Babbie, 2004) as well as demographic information about the participants and the participant's supervisor including age, gender, tenure, years of experience, respondent's supervisor's veteran status, military rank, and the respondent's perception of his supervisor's leadership / managerial effectiveness.

As a result of the comprehensive leadership focused literature review and feedback from scholars and practitioners in the research field, four antecedents of effective leadership / management were chosen as being those indicators that best predicted the perception of leadership / managerial effectiveness. As such, accountability, authenticity, communication, and empowerment were selected as the constructs for the survey design.

In order to answer and test the hypotheses outlined in this paper, the researcher developed a survey instrument based on four leadership / managerial constructs that support perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness as indicated by the literature review. A set of indicators that

is supported by the literature review and has been identified as being applicable and impactful on perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness was developed for each of the four constructs, accountability, authenticity, communication, empowerment, and overall leader effectiveness resulting in 27 survey questions. One question was added after review of the pilot survey results. Additionally, twelve demographic questions were included in the survey.

Pilot Survey

The pilot survey that was distributed to approximately 100 participants from a convenience sampling were asked to answer twelve demographic and 25 leadership / managerial effectiveness questions in the online survey. A pilot survey was conducted so that the results could be used to modify, adjust, and revise the survey to enhance reliability and validity, and ensure the best structural fit (Kim, 2010).

The 25 leadership / managerial effectiveness questions asked the respondent's how often his / her current or most recent supervisor demonstrates a particular behavior. The respondent's opinions were recorded on a five-point Likert scale as follows, 5 = never, 4 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 2 = often, and 1 = always. Demographic information about the supervisor, the respondent, and his / her organization was also gathered to be used for associational and comparative analysis. Demographic information collected included, respondent's gender, respondent's age, respondent's employment status, whether the respondent directly supervises or manages others, respondent's career level, respondent's tenure at current job, respondent's tenure in current position, the industry that best describes the respondent's organization, the respondent's direct supervisor's gender, the respondent's direct supervisor's approximate age, the respondent's direct supervisor's veteran status and, the respondent's direct supervisor's military rank (if applicable).

Data Collection Approaches and Procedures

Prior to any data collection, the researcher applied for and received an IRB approval letter from the University of Texas at Tyler. Upon receipt of IRB approval, the previously validated survey was posted on MTurk and respondents were invited to participate. The intent of the survey was to gather data for a representative sample of the United States. Participants were selected at random with no consideration given to any factor other than U.S. location and the respondent's willingness to participate.

Once potential respondents were identified and demonstrated the desire to participate, only those who formally agreed to complete the survey in accordance with IRB requirements were allowed to participate. Surveys were made available to potential respondents by self-selection into the study by way of online survey tool, MTurk. Respondents received a minimal payment of \$0.50 for their participation. This method incorporated an anonymous electronic survey link in order to protect the respondent's identity.

Survey respondents were asked to consider his / her current or most recent (if unemployed) direct supervisor when answering the survey questions. For the purpose of this research any U.S. resident who has been or is currently employed was allowed to participate in the survey. The final validated survey was 37 questions long, including demographic questions, and should have taken less than five minutes to complete.

All respondents were informed that his / her participation as well as his / her responses would be confidential and an informed consent would be requested by electronic signature at the beginning of the survey. Respondents were also informed of his / her option to opt out of the survey at any time and were provided with information as to who to contact with questions and / or concerns. Respondents from the convenience sample population were given two weeks to

complete the survey and an email reminder was sent after one week. The MTurk respondents had the opportunity to participate at any time until the desired sample size was met. Due to the relatively small percentage of veterans in the general population (<8%) (U.S. Department of Labor, 2015) it was necessary to limit MTurk responses to only those respondents who could affirmatively say that his / her current or most recent supervisor is a veteran. When that situation arose, it was in the form of a go / no-go question at the beginning of the survey.

In order to ensure the reliability of the responses, each survey response was recorded in an electronic format and maintained in Qualtrics until exported to SPSS for analysis. In order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity of the research respondents, care was taken by the researcher not to allow any free text or other vehicle that might disclose identifying characteristics of the research subject.

Data Analysis

The results of the survey responses were reviewed for missing and inaccurate data in order to minimize the adverse effects of data contamination. The data gathered for this study was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and data responses were converted to numerical responses for ease of analyses. Two questions, EMP5 and ACC4, required reverse coding prior to conducting any analysis. A descriptive statistics analysis was conducted in order to evaluate and organize the data set.

The results of this study were analyzed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as well as structural equation modeling (SEM). These two independent analyses evaluated the existence and strength of the structural associations and relationships among the variables, perceived employee accountability, perceived leader authenticity, perceived leader communication effectiveness, perceived employee empowerment, and overall perceived leader effectiveness

(Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling was modeled utilizing the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) software. Confirmatory factor analysis determined if the measurement model variables were valid indicators of the model constructs they were intended to measure (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). A factor analysis “attempts to determine which sets of observed variables share common variance-covariance characteristics that define theoretical constructs or factors (latent variables)” (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010, p. 164). This study utilized a factor analysis in order to determine the degree to which factors interrelate with each other as well as with the perceived overall leader effectiveness.

Structural equation modeling was chosen for this study because it is the most appropriate method of analysis to examine and evaluate observed and latent variable relationships in a confirmatory, hypothesis-testing approach to the data (e.g., Byrne, 2012; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Ullman, 2007). Further, SEM provides a method to test theoretical models and determine “how sets of variables define constructs and how these constructs are related to each other” (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010, p. 2). SEM also allows for a large number of variables, can test and evaluate complex relationships, account for measurement error, and provide accurate statistical analysis of the study data (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

The Quantitative data collected for this study was analyzed and interpreted through the utilization of descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics allowed for analysis of the data by the participant’s supervisor including industry, age, gender, tenure, years of experience, respondent’s supervisor’s veteran status, and respondent’s supervisor’s military rank. Inferential statistics was utilized to determine if there are differences in survey scores in perceived overall leader effectiveness, perceived employee accountability, leader authenticity,

perceived leader communication effectiveness, and perceived employee empowerment when evaluated by industry, age, gender, tenure, years of experience, respondent's supervisor's veteran status, and respondent's supervisor's military rank independently. The inferential statistical analysis provided for an understanding of what magnitude perceived leader effectiveness and its constructs vary by the independent variables. Inferential statistical techniques of factor analysis, correlation, and multiple regression analysis were utilized on the study data. Specifically, the Pearson product-moment correlation was used to evaluate the strength and direction of the correlation of the relationship between variables. Multiple regression analysis was utilized to determine relationships between independent variables, perceived employee accountability, perceived leader authenticity, perceived leader communication effectiveness, and perceived employee empowerment, the dependent variable overall leader effectiveness as well as the independent variable of leader veteran status and the dependent variables of perceived leader authenticity, perceived employee accountability, perceived employee empowerment, perceived leader communication effectiveness, and overall leader effectiveness.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability

Reliability is an instrument's ability to consistently measure what it was designed to measure (Stone, 2015) as well as evaluate whether the concepts measured are consistent (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Similarly, in this study, in an effort to ensure that the internal consistency (reliability) was satisfactory for the overall survey as well as each of the four constructs, a Cronbach's alpha analysis was conducted on the results of the pilot survey. Individual

Cronbach's alpha analysis were conducted for each of the four constructs (accountability, authenticity, and communication, empowerment).

Leedy (1997, p. 35) states that "The higher the score the better the evidence that items in the instrument are measuring the same trait," and Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) indicate that satisfactory Cronbach's alpha scores should be between .7 and .95. However, Streiner (2003) states that a Cronbach's alpha score beyond .9 may indicate a redundancy of questions. While the CA scores for all of the constructs were high indicating excellent (>.9) for communication, authenticity, and empowerment or good (>.8) for accountability, no individual constructs scored greater than .95 which is the high score cutoff according to Nunnally & Bernstein (1994). As such, the individual scores are indicative of good reliability although cross construct question redundancy may exist.

Validity

Validity is described as the degree to which a measure accurately depicts the true meaning of the concept (Babbie, 1999).

Content Validity. The American Education Research Association (1999) defines validity as "the degree to which evidence and theory support the interpretations of test scores" (p. 9). Content validity examines whether the measure reflects the construct in both content and scope (Johnston, Dixon, Hart, Glidewell, Schröder, & Pollard, 2014. p.241) or stated differently, "the accuracy with which an instrument measures the factors or situations under study—that is, the 'content' being studied" (Leedy, 1997, p.33). This survey was developed and based upon previous research that is applicable to a generic cross section of leaders / managers regardless of veteran status and as such, its content validity is applicable and sound. Additionally, the constructs and specific items were derived directly from the existing theories and direct feedback

and input from experienced practitioners and scholars thereby ensuring that the survey considered appropriate and applicable measures.

The literature review demonstrated that there are relationships between perceived leadership accountability, authenticity, communication, and empowerment. In order to demonstrate those relationships, this study refines and integrates four models as component constructs of the greater theory of overall leadership / managerial effectiveness. The first model is divided into three theoretical subsections. The first, supported by Wong & Laschinger (2013) posits that the perceived authenticity of leaders affects the perceptions of structural empowerment. The second, forwarded by Laschinger & Wong (1999) states that access to empowerment “structures” results in higher collective accountability and ultimately higher productivity. The third forwards that authentic leaders can facilitate greater organizational citizen behaviors, of which accountability is one of the identified behaviors (Cottrill et al., 2014).

In support of authenticity, empowerment, and accountability’s impact on effective leadership, Wong & Laschinger (2013, p. 956) state that employees “have more input into how his / her work is done and when they have the information and the resources needed to perform his / her roles, this should motivate them to assume more responsibility and to take greater ownership of work unit outcomes, especially where they see the manager as being trustworthy, ethical, balanced, and fair in their decision-making.” In other words, employees who view his / her supervisor as being “authentic” and are “empowered” to perform their jobs are feel as if they are held “accountable.”

Communication is also supported by existing research as affecting the perception of leadership / managerial effectiveness and is “central” to leadership in general (Awamleh & Gardner 1999; Bass, 1949; de Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; Frese, Beimeel, &

Schoenborn, 2003; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003; Spangler & House, 1991).

Construct Validity. Construct validity is an examination of whether a theory accurately predicts how the measure of a construct will operate and the degree to which it is measured (Johnston, Dixon, Hart, Glidewell, Schröder, & Pollard, 2014; Leedy, 1997). In order to maximize the construct validity of this study, careful development of the survey was undertaken. Specifically, the survey was not developed until after a thorough review of the existing literature. The literature review guided the researcher in developing the four generic categories that are applicable to all leaders / managers and therefore applicable to veterans and civilian developed leaders alike. Those broad categories were translated into 25 items on the pilot survey, and results of the pilot survey indicated the need for one additional question.

Once the categories, items, and demographic requirements were identified and the survey developed, it was piloted by collecting and analyzing the data provided by 78 respondents who consisted of university professors, corporate executives, and college MBA, DBA, and PhD students. Pilot survey results will be analyzed using factor analysis for overall leadership / management effectiveness as well as the four constructs of authenticity, accountability, empowerment, and communication. Once the results of the pilot study factor analysis were analyzed and evaluated, adjustments to the model were made in order to ensure that the survey captured the intended responses as well as maximize the structural validity of the survey. After adjustments were made, the survey was piloted again with a group of 20 members of the target population. The results of the second survey pilot were analyzed again using the same factor analysis in order to ensure that the survey revisions were successful in structuring the revised

pilot survey to effectively capture the intended responses, as well as support survey validity which they did.

As a supplement to the pilot survey, approximately two dozen academic and practitioner experts were solicited to provide feedback and guidance in an effort to ensure applicability of the survey instrument and provide face validity. Utilizing professional experts in the field of leadership academia and practice assisted in increasing the face validity of the survey instrument by asking those experts to assess and provide feedback on the survey question's structure, applicability, and wording, as well as the overall survey design and item order. All of the experts who provided feedback were senior level HRD practitioners, university scholars or, HRD PhD, MBA or DBA students.

External Validity

External validity is defined as the extent to which the results of a study can be generalized across situations and people (Bryman & Bell, 2011) or the suggestion that the causal relationships of the study can be generalized across other settings, measures, persons, and times (Cook & Campbell, 1976). This study will utilize a mix of both nonprobability convenience sampling and nonprobability voluntary sampling in order to get a broad and generalizable set of respondents. It is expected that the results of this study will be generalizable across other settings, measures, persons, and times (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Cook & Campbell, 1976). Further, the data collected in this study can serve as a foundation for future research regarding overall leader effectiveness, its four constructs, and veteran status.

Limitations

The following are some of the limitations of this study:

1. The response rate may be affected by the length survey. The survey included 27 leader effectiveness questions and ten demographic questions. Due to the similarity of behaviors that affect more than one of the four constructs simultaneously, the validity / reliability of the scale may be artificially high.
2. The nature of a survey-based, quantitative research design eliminates the ability to ask open ended questions and therefore eliminates the ability to gather additional details such as motivations and feelings.
3. Respondents will only be gathered from a U.S. population. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to other populations.
4. Self-report bias (common rater effect) may result in common method variance because the respondent was the same individual for both the predictor and criterion variable (Podsakoff et al., 2003).
5. Part of the sample for this study was gathered by way of nonprobability sampling and as such, the external validity may be negatively impacted and results may not be clearly generalizable.
6. The high Cronbach's alpha scores beyond .9 may indicate a redundancy of questions (Streiner, 2003). While the researcher does not believe this to be the case, it warrants further analysis and consideration.
7. Since the percentage of the U.S veteran employee population is so small (7.7%), it may be challenging to gather a sufficient number of veteran responses to provide statistically relevant results.

Significance

From a veteran-centric perspective, this study offers an important perspective to civilian leadership in three ways. First, while there are many studies on leadership from both a civilian and military context, there are few if any that evaluate and compare the leadership effectiveness of veterans and civilian developed leaders. This study provides an initial comparison of the two groups in the civilian context and as such provides a starting point for future quantitative and qualitative studies on the topic.

Second, with approximately 25,000,000 veterans (United States Department of Veterans Affairs, 2014; Defense Manpower Data Center, 2014) existing in or soon to enter the United States workforce, and the strong commitment of U.S. employers to hire them (Whitehouse Press Release Blog, 2014), it is increasingly important to understand where to employ veterans as well as how to employ them. This is a particularly significant concern since “Every soldier is a leader in the making and the necessities of combat may place soldiers into leadership positions sooner than they expected. So even junior enlisted soldiers should begin learning about leadership early in their careers” (U.S. Army Field Manual, 1993, section 1-67). As such, offering a veteran a “job” with a civilian employer may not be an appropriate use of his / her talent nor meet his / her needs and desires (Arendt & Sapp, 2014). This study provides a vehicle for bringing the issue of appropriate veteran employment in civilian contexts and allows for a first pass comparison of veteran / civilian leadership effectiveness.

Third, furthering the understanding of the backgrounds of successful leaders will provide a foundation for increasing leadership effectiveness regardless of industry (Yukl, 2012) since leadership effectiveness is extremely important to organizational success (Hackman & Walton, 1986; Jones, 2012, Liden et al., 2014; Peterson et al., 2012, Sipe & Frick, 2009; van

Dierendonck, 2011; Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014; Zaccaro et al., 2002). This study does not seek to clarify the vague definition of leadership, debate which “set” of leader / managerial behaviors are applicable to effective leaders or managers, or attempt to determine if effective leader behaviors are influenced by the unique environmental situation in which a leader operates. Rather, this study focuses a generic set of managerial / leader constructs that empirical research has demonstrated as being components of effective leadership / management. This study is valuable in that it helps identify which of the four constructs are more or less valuable when evaluating leader effectiveness.

This study also provides information and evidence-based support for employers considering or actively employing veterans. For practitioners, evaluating leadership / managerial effectiveness of former military effectiveness from the perspectives of selecting, assessing, and developing leaders is a valuable tool for understanding the background of the most effective civilian leaders.

From a more holistic generic practical perspective (not exclusive to veteran employment), this research and others like it will help to enhance management / leadership practice by providing research and evidence based support for effective (and not effective) management / leadership behaviors. Further, this research can help with providing assessment tools and developmental guidance for managers and leaders and will facilitate the development of empirically supported training and development programs such as those developed by HRD practitioners.

This study will also assist scholars in identifying existing gaps in literature, providing guidance on future research concepts, adding to the existing knowledge base, and potentially linking research areas not previously considered. It also brings to light some of the challenges

that civilian employers may face when hiring, developing, and managing veterans. The results of this study will help to create further awareness of generic leadership / managerial behaviors, and will assist human resource development practitioners in developing strategy, learning programs, and in selecting, evaluating and, developing the best leaders in order to improve the probability of success of veterans in civilian leadership capacities.

Opportunities for Future Research

This study contributes to the existing knowledge base of leader effectiveness and veteran / non-veteran leadership / management effectiveness in a civilian context, however, additional research would be beneficial in furthering the overall understanding of the concepts discussed here. Since this study is quantitative in nature, it may not be able to provide the level of detail and richness of information that results from qualitative research. Specifically, due to the complexity of leadership and management theory and the subjectivity of interpretations and perceptions, qualitative studies may be able to provide greater insight and understanding of the unique perspectives of effective leadership / management. Further studies on leadership / management effectiveness using qualitative research methods would allow for more detailed explanations of behaviors and observations in differing contexts that are uniquely from the respondent's perspective and not a result of the unintentional influence of the researcher. Additionally, qualitative research provides for the emergence and development of theory from data collection beyond the testing (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

This study could be more robust and rigorous by evaluating multiple levels of management and subordinates, studying other sources of participants (global), and utilizing a larger sample set to increase reliability. Also, replication of this and similar studies may increase the reliability of the survey tool in order to further understand cross-cultural and cross-organizational generalizability (Hamlin, 2011). Additional research on military leader behaviors

should be conducted in order to evaluate the development of leader behaviors in a military context. Additional research studying the context of the work environment and its effect on the perception of leader behavior would be valuable.

This study is limited to only four constructs of veteran and civilian developed leader effectiveness. As such, there is tremendous opportunity to conduct additional research from any of the dozens of potential antecedents of effective leadership / management and how they influence leader effectiveness both independently and as a combined influence. This study is also limited to only one perspective of veteran and civilian developed leader effectiveness, and that is from the subordinate point of view. Future studies evaluating veteran and civilian developed leader effectiveness from top down, peer, and performance perspectives would provide additional and valuable research opportunities, as would the development of new and / or utilization of existing survey tools.

In addition, further analysis, validation, and review of the leader effectiveness tool used in this study is warranted because there may be direct paths within the model that were not identified in this research. Although this study discusses literature in support of relationships between and among the constructs, it does not include all of the potential relationship, nor does it explore the relative magnitude of the individual and combined effects of the constructs in this study or others that may exist. Continued in-depth literature review of leader effectiveness constructs as well as additional empirical research would provide for a more robust and accurate model.

Summary

Chapter three outlines the proposed methodological approach to the research. It describes, in detail, the design of the study, a description of the proposed population and sample,

an overview of the instrumentation, and the justification for the instrumentation selection.

Chapter three also provides details about the measurement technique, the data collection and analysis procedures, study reliability and validity, and the expected limitations of the study.

Chapter Four

Findings

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the perceived leader effectiveness of veteran and non-veteran leaders in a civilian context, and compare those perceptions in an effort to determine whether there is a discernable and statistically significant difference between the two groups. This paper built upon the theories of Awamleh & Gardner (1999), Cottrill, Lopez, & Hoffman (2014), Laschinger & Wong (1999), Redding (1972), Teece, Pisano, & Shuen (1997), and Wong & Laschinger (2013), and utilized the constructs of employee perceptions of his / her own accountability, employee perceptions of his / her leader's authenticity, employee perceptions of his / her leader's communication effectiveness, and employee perceptions of his / her own empowerment, as the key components a leader's overall leadership effectiveness. This study also explored the moderating role of a leader's veteran status, and its influence on the relationships of the constructs within the causal model.

The participant sample for this study was selected by way of nonprobability convenience sampling (Bryman & Bell, 2011) from an opt-in total population of U.S. users of the online survey tool, MTurk. MTurk has a total population of registered users of approximately 500,000, with 80% of those in the U.S. (AWS Developer Forums, 2012). Of the registered MTurk users, 1,113 elected to participate, 306 completed the survey, 114 were not eligible to participate because they reported that they were on active duty in the military, 748 were not eligible to participate because they reported that they did not know if their supervisor had served in the military, and seven were eliminated due to missing data. As such, 306 completed the survey in its entirety and were included in this analysis. This resulted in a 27.5% completion rate. The

listwise deletion technique (Byrne, 2010) was used to eliminate any respondent with missing variable data. This study's complete respondent demographic information is included in Table 5.

Respondent Demographics

The typical respondent who completed this survey was an employed (97.4%) male (62%) between the ages of 26 – 35 (50%) who was employed in a supervisory capacity (60.1%). The typical respondent had also been employed by his / her current employer for between one and three years (46.7%), and in his / her current position for between one and three years (41.5%).

Respondent's Supervisor Demographics

This study also asked respondents for demographic detail about their immediate supervisor. The typical respondent's supervisor was male (73%), between the ages of 36 and 45 (36%).

Respondents were asked about their supervisor's veteran status. They were specifically asked if their supervisor served in the military, and if so, were they enlisted or commissioned. If the respondents were unable to definitively state if their supervisor had served in the military, they were not allowed to advance further than the second question in the survey. As such, they are not included in the demographics or in the study. Of the respondents who definitively stated that their supervisor had served in the military, exactly 50% (153 respondents) stated that their supervisor had served in the military, and 50% (153 respondents) stated that their supervisor had not served in the military. Of the 153 respondents who definitively stated that their supervisor had served in the military, 19% stated that their supervisor was an officer, 13.4% stated that their supervisor was enlisted, and 67.7% stated that they did not know if their supervisor was enlisted or officer.

Table 5

Respondent Demographics	
n=306	
Factor	%
Supervisor Veteran Status	
<i>Military Veteran</i>	50.0%
<i>Non-Military Veteran</i>	50.0%
Supervisor Military Rank	
<i>Officer</i>	19.0%
<i>Enlister</i>	13.4%
<i>Do not Know</i>	67.7%
Supervisor Gender	
<i>Male</i>	72.9%
<i>Female</i>	27.1%
Supervisors Approximate Age?	
<i><25</i>	2.3%
<i>26 - 35</i>	18.6%
<i>36 - 45</i>	36.0%
<i>46 - 55</i>	26.8%
<i>56 - 65</i>	14.1%
<i>>66</i>	2.3%
Respondent's Gender	
<i>Male</i>	20.3%
<i>Female</i>	7.2%
Respondent's Approximate Age?	
<i><25</i>	16.0%
<i>26 - 35</i>	50.0%
<i>36 - 45</i>	20.3%
<i>46 - 55</i>	7.9%
<i>56 - 65</i>	4.9%
<i>>66</i>	1.6%
Respondent's Employment Status	
<i>Employed</i>	97.4%
<i>Unemployed</i>	2.6%
Respondent's Management Status	
<i>Manages People</i>	60.1%
<i>Does Not Manage People</i>	39.9%

Table 5 Continued

Respondent Demographics	
n=306	
Factor	%
Respondent's Career Level	
Front-line Employee	34.3%
Supervisor	29.4%
Manager	27.5%
Director	3.9%
Executive	4.9%
Tenure in Current Position	
< 1 year	46.7%
1 - 3 years	21.9%
4 - 6 years	9.8%
7 - 10 years	5.6%
11- 15 years	3.6%
>15 years	
Tenure with Current Employer	
< 1 year	11.4%
1 - 3 years	41.5%
4 - 6 years	27.5%
7 - 10 years	10.5%
11- 15 years	5.2%
>15 years	3.9%
Respondent's Employer's Primary Industry	
Construction	3.7%
Waste Management	0.0%
Finance / Insurance	13.1%
Transportation / Warehousing	3.6%
Professional Services	17.3%
Entertainment	0.5%
Retail / Wholesale Trade	13.1%
Manufacturing	11.1%
Real Estate	0.3%
Hotel Restaurant	0.3%
Healthcare	0.9%
Mining / Oil and Gas	0.2%
Education	12.8%
Government	0.5%

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis using structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted using AMOS 18 software in order to create the initial measurement model (Byrne, 2001). The design of the initial model was consistent with the theories described in the literature review. The SEM analysis approach was used in order to test construct validity and to ensure that the measure of the construct operated as it was intended (Johnston, Dixon, Hart, Glidewell, Schröder, & Pollard, 2014; Leedy, 1997).

The measurement model was evaluated to:

1. assess that reliability coefficients are greater than Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) minimal Cronbach's alpha score .70,
2. evaluate the overall fit of the measurement model as indicated by, a Comparative Fit Index (CFI) greater than .90 (Bentler, 1990; Byrne, 2001), a Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA) value less than .08 (adequate) or less than .05 (close fit) (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004), and
3. test whether the latent variable regression weights indicated that the model was statistically and practically significant as indicated by a standardized regression weight greater than .40 (Harman, 1976).

In addition to the reliability measures, the Perceived Leader Effectiveness was tested, and the initial study measurement model is presented in Figure 2.

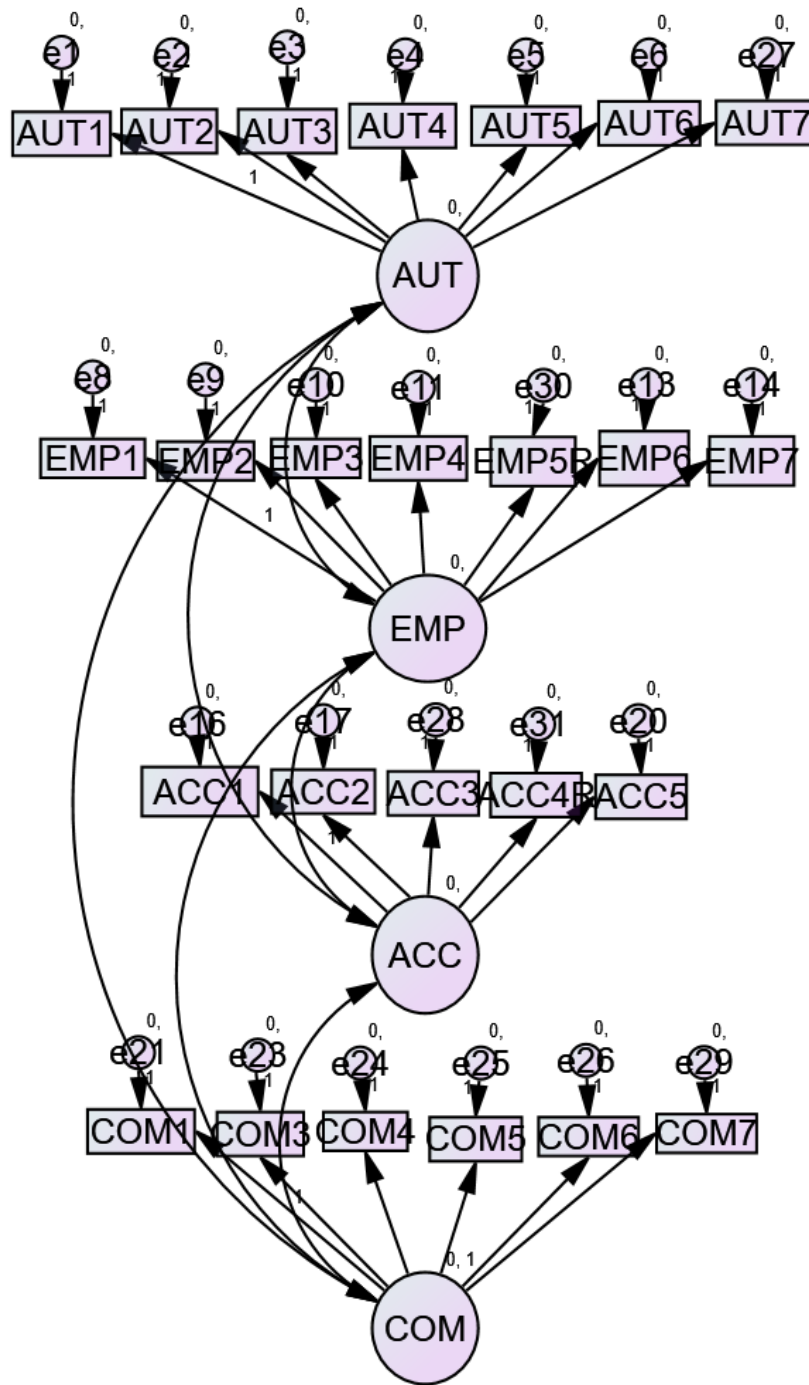


Figure 2. Measurement Model

The measurement model tests each construct in order to examine the latent variables and to obtain factor loadings of each scale item (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2015). The factor loadings explain the “extent to which the observed variables are generated by the underlying latent constructs and the strength of the regression paths from the factors to the observed variables” (Byrne, 2010, p. 6). Factor loadings should be above the .5 minimum threshold or exceed the more stringent threshold of 0.7 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). CFA was also used to examine “how, and the extent to which, the observed variables are linked to their underlying latent factors” (Byrne, 2010, p. 6), and to determine whether the measurement model variables are valid indicators of the model constructs they were intended to measure (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

The results of the CFA indicated that the kurtosis score for ACC3 was 2.902 and outside of the recommended acceptable range of 2.0 to -2.0 (George & Mallery, 2003). Because kurtosis is a measure of the degree of peakedness of a distribution (Weisstein, 2002), a score outside of the acceptable range indicates that the distribution is either heavy-tailed and peaked or light-tailed and flat as compared to a normal distribution (DeCarlo, 1997). As a result of the kurtosis being 2.902 or heavy tailed and peaked compared to normal distribution, ACC3 was deleted from the model.

The CFA results also indicated that both AUT7 and COM7 were cross-loaded on ACC. As a result, AUT7, and COM7 were also removed from the model (Schumacker et al., 2010). The items (ACC3, AUT7, and COM7) were removed in order to improve model fit. The decision to eliminate those items from the constructs was deemed an acceptable strategy because the elimination of items does not have a negative impact on a construct’s function nor its measurement ability (Yuan & Bentler, 1997).

The CFA indicated that the majority of the factor loadings in the initial analysis were greater than the preferred value of 0.7. Two of the factor loadings (EMP6 and COM6) were lower than 0.7, with factor loadings of 0.506 and 0.540 respectively. However, both EMP6 and COM6 loaded above the minimum acceptable threshold of 0.5 (Yuan & Bentler, 1997), and were included in the model. Factor loadings and composite reliabilities for each of the four constructs (ACC, AUT, COM, and EMP) are found in Table 6.

After all trimmings were performed for model fit and reliability, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed in order to evaluate the relationships and interactions among the final measurement model constructs. The CFA supported the empirical studies by Awamleh & Gardner (1999), Bass (1949), Cottrill et al., (2014), de Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, (2010), Frese, Beimeel, & Schoenborn, (2003); Kirkpatrick & Locke (1996), Laschinger & Wong, (1999), Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, (2003), Spangler & House, (1991), and Wong & Laschinger (2013). The CFA also supported that the measurement model was recursive, meaning that it flows only one direction (Cortina, 2005).

In order to evaluate the fit of the measurement model within the study data, chi-square (χ^2), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), fit indices were conducted on the revised model to evaluate whether they met or exceeded the recommended minimum values (Hair et al. 2015; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). The target minimum values for the analyses of X^2 , was to have statistically significant p values. The target for CFI was to be equal to or greater than the convention standard of .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), and the target for RMSEA was to meet or exceed the good fit standard of .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model indicated acceptable fits as indicated by Chi-square $\chi^2 (203) = 469.77, p = 0.000, \chi^2/df$ ratio = 2.31, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.93, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.066. The satisfactory fit indices indicate that the final model is consistent, can satisfactorily reproduce the data, and does not require respecification (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). The final measurement model after analysis and item trimmings is represented in Figure 3.

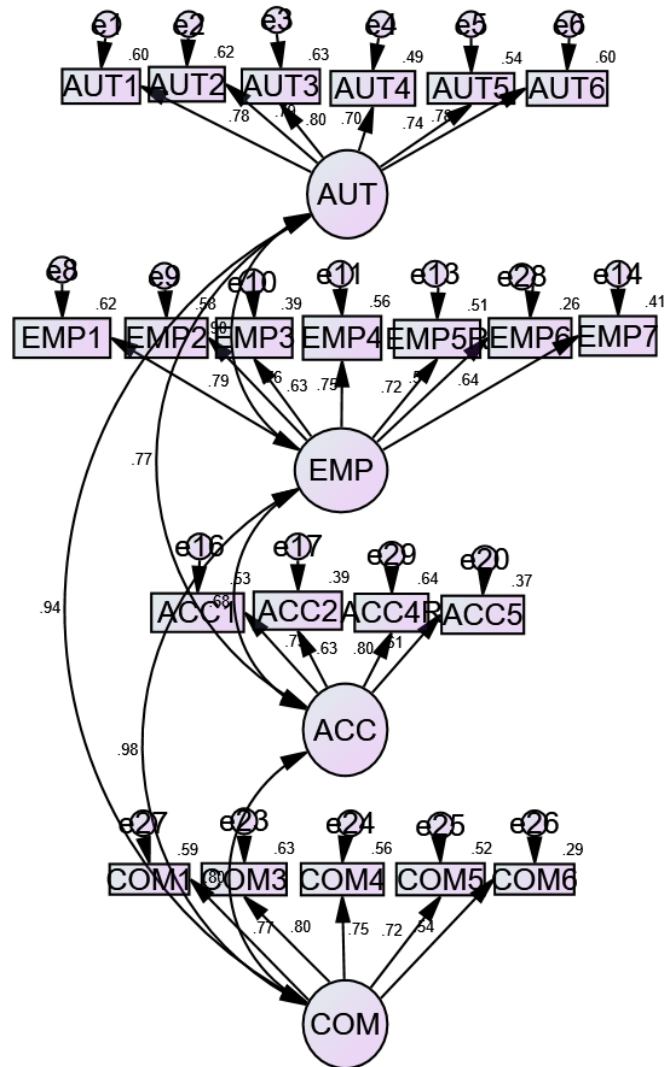


Figure 3. Final Measurement Model

Upon completion of the confirmatory factor analysis, SPSS statistical analysis software was utilized instead of Amos Structural Equation Modeling software. This decision was made because AMOS will not allow analysis of factors that have a single indicator. In this case,

OVR1, the dependent variable, has only one indicator, and as a result cannot be analyzed with AMOS. All further analysis in this study was conducted using SPSS.

Reliability

Reliability is an instrument's ability to consistently measure what it was designed to measure (Stone, 2015) as well as evaluate whether the concepts measured are consistent (Bryman & Bell, 2011). As such, a reliability analysis of the scale measures was performed in order to ensure the internal consistency of the Perceived Leader Effectiveness Survey instrument (Salkind, 2011). A Cronbach's alpha analysis was conducted to ensure that the internal consistency was satisfactory for each of the four constructs (ACC, AUT, COM, EMP) of the study.

Leedy (1997, p. 35) stated that "The higher the score the better the evidence that items in the instrument are measuring the same trait," and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) indicate that satisfactory Cronbach's alpha scores should be between .7 and .95. However, Streiner (2003) stated that a Cronbach's alpha score beyond .9 may indicate a redundancy of questions.

The resulting Cronbach's Alpha scores of the initial measurement model in this study demonstrated acceptable levels of reliability among the constructs. Authenticity, communication and empowerment showed good CA scores of .891, .836 and .862 respectively, while accountability had a slightly lower, although still acceptable CA score of .775. The CA scores for all four constructs in this study are satisfactory as indicated by scores above the 0.7 minimum cut-off (George & Mallery, 2003) and below the 0.9 maximum cut-off (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Streiner, 2003) thus eliminating any concern of question redundancy.

Additionally, the average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability were evaluated for the four constructs (ACC, AUT, COM, and EMP) in order to determine convergent

validity (Hair et al., 2015) and internal consistency. Hair et al., (2015) defined average variance extracted as “summary measure of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct” (p. 601) and Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, (2015) stated that “AVE represents the average amount of variance that a construct explains in its indicator variables relative to the overall variance of its indicators” (p.116).

Composite reliabilities for each of the four constructs ranged from 0.787 to 0.893, which demonstrated adequate internal consistency (Hair et al., 2015). Each factor, with the exception of ACC, had an average variance extracted (AVE) greater than 0.50, which indicated acceptable convergent validity (Hair et al., 2015).

The AVE for ACC was less than the 0.50 minimum acceptable value. However, in support of using AVE values of less than 0.50 on “new” theoretical models, Ping (2009) stated, "the logic for possibly ignoring low AVE might be that many "interesting" theoretical model-testing studies involve a "first-time" model, and an initial model test, that together should be viewed as largely "exploratory." This "first test" usually uses new measures in a new model tested for the first time, etc., and insisting that the new measures be "perfect" may be inappropriate because new knowledge would go unpublished until a "perfect" study is attained” (p.2). Further, if AVE is less than 0.5 and composite reliability is higher than 0.6 for the respective factor, the convergent validity is acceptable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In this case, the AVE for ACC was very close to the minimum threshold of 0.50 at 0.483 and the composite reliability was well above the 0.6 minimum for composite reliability at 0.787. In recognition of this study forwarding a new theoretical model and the AVE for ACC being near the 0.05 cutoff with good composite reliability, the lower than recommended AVE score for ACC was considered acceptable.

Table 6 shows all scale items with associated factor loadings and composite reliability scores before and after modification.

Table 6
Scale Items With Composite Reliability and Factor Loading

Scale	Survey adjusted scale items	Composite Reliability	Factor loading ***
<i>Perceived Leader / Manager Effectiveness Scale</i>			
Accountability	My immediate supervisor / manager holds people accountable.	0.787 (0.775*)	0.728***
	My immediate supervisor / manager does not allow me to blame others for my short falls.		0.627***
	My immediate supervisor / manager does not allow me to blame others for my short falls.		0.609***
Authenticity	My immediate supervisor / manager holds employees responsible for their performance.	0.893 (0.891*)	0.799***
	My immediate supervisor / manager creates an atmosphere of trust and respect.		0.776***
	My immediate supervisor / manager demonstrates integrity.		0.785***
	My immediate supervisor / manager is fair.		0.796***
	My immediate supervisor / manager does what he / she says he'll / she'll do.		0.700***
Communication	My immediate supervisor / manager is ethical.	0.865 (0.836*)	0.738***
	communicates effectively with his or her subordinates.		0.776***
	My immediate supervisor / manager encourages honest communication.		0.795***
	My immediate supervisor / manager focuses his / her team on common goals.		0.752***
	My immediate supervisor / manager keeps me informed of my individual performance.		0.722***
Empowerment	My immediate supervisor / manager effectively communicates with his or her subordinates.	0.863 (0.862*)	0.540***
	My immediate supervisor / manager motivates employees to do their best.		0.767***
	My immediate supervisor / manager empowers others appropriately.		0.765***
	My immediate supervisor / manager solicits the input of others.		0.627***
	My immediate supervisor / manager provides his / her team with the tools to be successful.		0.752***
	My immediate supervisor / manager eliminates barriers to success.		0.506***
	My manager allows me the authority to make decisions		0.644***
	My immediate supervisor / manager encourages others to challenge their limits.		0.716***

Notes:*value prior to modifications, ***<0.001

Correlation Analysis

A Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted in order to evaluate the relationships between and among each of the constructs and the dependent variable. The data showed no violation of normality, linearity, or homoscedasticity. The results indicate that there is a positive correlation between all of the constructs of ACC, AUT, COM, EMP, and overall leadership effectiveness as follows, ACC and OVR1 ($r = .529, n = 306, p < .0005$), AUT and OVR1 ($r = .730, n = 306, p < .0005$), COM and OVR1 ($r = .734, n = 306, p < .0005$), and EMP and OVR1 ($r = .683, n = 306, p < .0005$). Variable correlations are contained in Table 7.

Table 7

Correlation of Variables						
	<i>Variable</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
Pearson Correlation	OVR1	1.000				
	ACC	.529	1.000			
	AUT	.730	.665	1.000		
	COM	.734	.661	.817	1.000	
	EMP	.683	.555	.787	.835	1.000

N=306

Construct Regression Analysis

After confirming that each of the four constructs were positively correlated, a stepwise linear regression was conducted in order to evaluate the relationships between the dependent variable (OVR1) and each of the four independent variables (ACC, AUT, COM, and EMP). The results of the analysis showed that neither ACC ($\beta = -.009, t(305) = -.182, ns$), nor EMP ($\beta = .109, t(305) = 1.536, ns$) significantly predicts the value of OVR1. However, AUT ($\beta = .392, t(305) = 6.141, p < .005$) and COM ($\beta = .414, t(305) = 6.490, p < .005$) do significantly predict OVR1.

The regression results indicate that two of the four constructs, AUT and COM significantly predict the dependent variable (OVR1), and two variables (ACC and EMP) do not. AUT and COM statistically significantly predicted OVR1, $F(2,303) = 217.435, p < .0005$, adj. $R^2 = .051$. The two variables, AUT and COM added statistically significantly to the prediction, $p < .05$.

Veteran / Non-veteran Analysis

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted to determine whether there was a difference in the average variable scores between veteran and non-veteran leaders (Salkind, 2011). The independent samples *t*-Test results for variables AUT, COM, and EMP revealed that both the veteran and non-veteran groups were the same and that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups. The *t*-Test results for ACC indicated that military veteran leader employees had statistically significant higher feelings of accountability ($M = 4.08, SD = .705$) as compared to non-veteran military veteran leader employees ($M = 3.89, SD = .793$); $t(304) = 2.229, p = 0.027$.

Additionally, the *t*-Test results for OVR1 indicated that employees of military veteran leaders have a statistically significant higher perception of their supervisor's overall leadership / management effectiveness ($M = 4.07, SD = .844$) as compared to non-veteran military veteran leader's employees ($M = 3.76, SD = 1.082$); $t(286.920) = 2.828, p = 0.005$. These preliminary results suggest that leader veteran status does have an effect on employee perceptions of their own accountability. The results also indicate that leader veteran status also impacts employee perceptions of their supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness. Specifically, these results suggest that military veteran leaders in civilian contexts are perceived as facilitating their employee perceptions of their own feelings of accountability at a higher level than non-veterans,

and that military veteran leaders are perceived by their employees as being more effective overall leaders than non-veteran leaders.

Hypotheses Testing

This study included hypothesized relationships among four independent variable constructs of accountability (Enzle & Anderson, 1993; Hall, Frink, Ferris, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Bowen, 2003; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Laschinger & Wong, 1999; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989; Wallace et al., 2011) perceived leader authenticity (Avolio and Gardner, 2005; Cottrill et al., 2014; Gardener, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2007; Organ, 1988), perceived leader communication (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Luthans, 1988, Redding, 1972; Teece et al., 1997), and perceived employee empowerment (Kanter, 1982; Laschinger & Wong, 1999; Wallace et al., 2011; Wong & Laschinger, 2013).

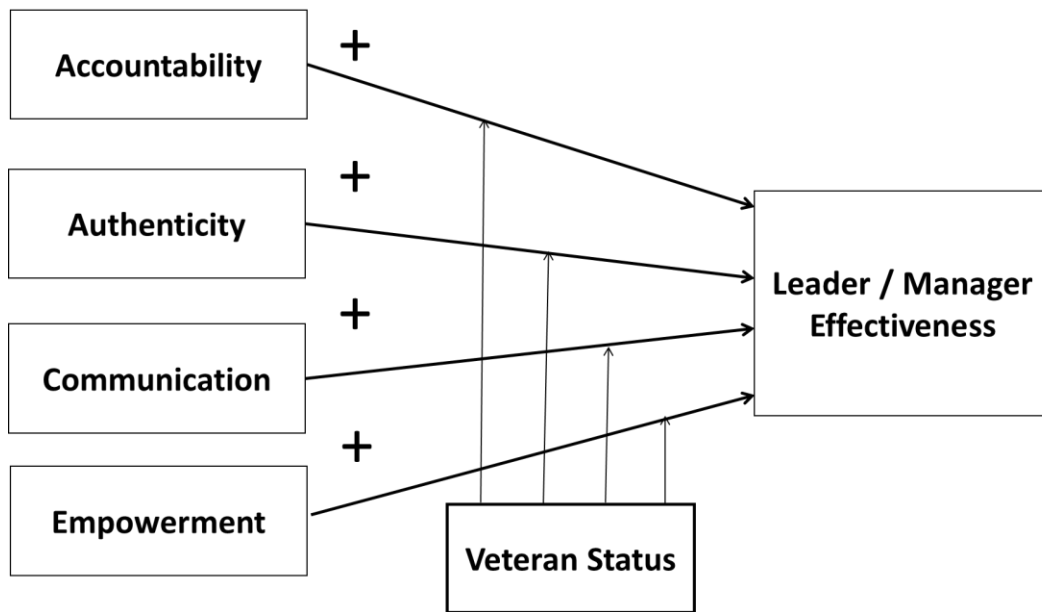


Figure 4. Conceptual Model

A moderated regression analysis was conducted to determine the moderating effect of supervisor veteran status on the predictive ability of AUT, COM, on OVR1. In the previous stepwise linear regression analysis, ACC and EMP were determined to be statistically insignificant predictors of OVR1. As such, they were removed from the analysis. The results of the stepwise moderated regression on AUT, COM, and OVR1 indicated that the relationships between AUT and OVR1 ($\beta = .002, p = ns$), and COM and OVR1 ($\beta = .003, p = ns$) are not significantly different from zero. The results were further supported in that there was no statistical difference when the analysis was conducted on non-veterans and veterans independently as shown in Table 8.

Table 7

Results from the moderated regression analysis of the effect of supervisor veteran status on the predictive ability of AUT and COM on OVR1

Measurement	B	β	R2	Adjusted R2	R2Change
Veteran	-	-	.596	.592	0.007**
AUT_SUM	.014	.390	-	-	-
COM_SUM	.017	.407	-	-	-
Non-Veteran	-	-	.619	.614	.025*
AUT_SUM	.110	.511	-	-	-
COM_SUM	.085	.303	-	-	-

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Results of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis H₁ predicted that a *supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perceptions of their feelings of accountability and their perception of the supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness.*

H₁ was not supported because ACC ($\beta = -.009, t(305) = -.182, ns$) is not a significant predictor of OVR1 as indicated by the regression analysis conducted to determine the relationships between the factors and OVR1. Further, the independent samples t-Test results for

ACC indicate that the employees of military veteran leaders have significantly higher feelings of accountability ($M = 4.08$, $SD = .705$) than those of non-veteran military veteran leaders ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .793$), $t(304) = 2.229$, and $p = 0.027$. Similarly, the independent samples t-Test for OVR1 results indicate that employees of military veteran leaders have a significantly higher perception of their supervisors overall leadership effectiveness ($M = 4.07$, $SD = .844$) than employees of non-veteran military veteran leaders ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.082$), $t(286.920) = 2.828$, and $p = 0.005$. The t-Test results suggest that supervisor veteran status does affect ACC and OVR1; however, regression analysis indicates that it is not a moderator between the two.

The nature of the collection methods and the inability to effectively eliminate all competing effects on the variables make it impossible to determine the specific cause of veteran status' impact on ACC and OVR1 (Hayes, 2013). Since ACC is not a significant predictor of OVR1, supervisor veteran status cannot moderate the relationship between ACC and OVR as predicted in the hypothesis. However, both ACC and OVR1 are affected by supervisor veteran status.

Hypothesis H₂ predicted that a *supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of the supervisor's authenticity and their perception of his / her overall leadership effectiveness.*

H₂ was not supported because the moderated linear regression on AUT and OVR1 indicated that there was no statistically significant moderating effect by supervisor veteran status on the relationship between AUT and OVR1 ($\beta = .002$, $p = ns$). This result seemingly supports accepting H₂. However, the results for the independent samples t-Test for OVR1 indicate that employees of military veteran leaders have a significantly higher perception of their supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness ($M = 4.07$, $SD = .844$) than employees of non-veteran military

veteran leaders ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.082$), $t(286.920) = 2.828$, and $p = 0.005$. In effect, the t-Test results suggest that supervisor veteran status does affect OVR1. As such, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status although not as a result of its moderating the relationship between AUT and OVR1.

In summary, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status from some source other than AUT as indicated by the moderated linear regression analysis and the independent samples t-Test. As a result, the moderating effect of veteran status on the contribution by AUT to OVR1 may or may not be statistically significant (Hayes, 2013).

Hypothesis H₃ predicted that a *supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perceptions of the supervisors communication effectiveness and their perception of their supervisor overall leadership effectiveness.*

H₃ was not supported because the moderated linear regression on COM and OVR1 indicated that there was no statistically significant moderating effect by supervisor veteran status on the relationship between COM and OVR1 ($\beta = .003$, $p = ns$). The results for the independent samples t-Test for OVR1 indicate that employees of military veteran leaders have a significantly higher perception of their supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness ($M = 4.07$, $SD = .844$) than employees of non-veteran military veteran leaders ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.082$), $t(286.920) = 2.828$, and $p = 0.005$. In effect, the t-Test results suggest that supervisor veteran status does affect OVR1. As such, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status although not as a result of its moderating the relationship between COM and OVR1.

In summary, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status from some source other than COM as indicated by the moderated linear regression analysis and the independent samples t-

Test. As a result, the moderating effect of veteran status on the contribution by COM to OVR1 may or may not be statistically significant (Hayes, 2013).

Hypothesis H₄ predicted that a *supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of their feelings of empowerment and their perception of their supervisors overall leadership effectiveness.*

H₄ was not supported because there was no significant moderating effect by EMP on OVR1 ($\beta = .006, p = ns$). This conclusion is made because EMP ($\beta = .109, t(305) = 1.536, ns$) is not a significant predictor of OVR1 as indicated by the regression analysis conducted to determine the relationships between the factors and OVR1. Further, the independent samples t-Test for OVR1 results indicate that employees of military veteran leaders have a significantly higher perception of their supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness ($M = 4.07, SD = .844$) than employees of non-veteran military veteran leaders ($M = 3.76, SD = 1.082, t(286.920) = 2.828, and p = 0.005$). The t-Test results suggest that supervisor veteran status does affect ACC and OVR1, however not as a moderator between the two.

In summary, there is no significant relationship between EMP and OVR1, and therefore, supervisor veteran status does not moderate the relationship between EMP and OVR as predicted in the hypothesis. However, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status and therefore, the moderating effect of veteran status on the contribution by EMP to OVR1 may or may not be statistically significant (Hayes, 2013).

Post Hoc Analysis

A post hoc analysis was conducted to further explore the relationship between supervisor veteran status, the constructs of leader effectiveness, and the perception of overall leader effectiveness. While the regression analysis demonstrated that supervisor veteran status did not moderate any of the four constructs of leader effectiveness, the post hoc analysis indicated that veteran supervisors were perceived as being more effective leaders than non-veteran supervisors for AUT and COM.

ACC and EMP were removed from the post hoc analysis because they were not significant predictors of OVR1 as indicated in a previous regression analysis. AUT and COM are significant indicators of OVR1 and were included in the post hoc analysis. The results of the analysis indicate that respondents perceived veteran leaders as being statistically significantly more effective ($(F_{3,302})=148.692, p<.05$) than non-veteran leaders ($(F_{2,303})=217.435, p<.05$), with an R^2 of .007. Recognizing that the regression analysis failed to establish any significant moderating effect between any of the four independent variables (ACC, AUT, COM, and EMP) and the dependent variable (OVR1), and that the post hoc analysis indicated that supervisor veteran status did contribute to positive perceptions of overall leadership effectiveness, it is clear that factors external to the model are enhancing the perception of overall leadership effectiveness. While competing causes cannot be wholly eliminated from the analysis (Hayes, 2013), the potential causes for this finding are explored in detail in chapter five.

Summary

Chapter four provided a detailed description of the data analysis conducted in this study. This analysis included descriptive statistics, the results from survey instrument reliability testing, results of the confirmatory factor analysis, an analysis of the results of the measurement model,

details and analysis of the structural equation model, and conclusions of the research hypotheses and post hoc analysis.

Results from analysis demonstrate that the survey instrument (the Perceived Leader Effectiveness Scale) used in the study exceeded the minimum threshold for internal consistency. The confirmatory factor analyses conducted for this study supported that the observed variables are linked to the related factors of the Perceived Leader Effectiveness Scale as demonstrated in the literature review of previous empirical studies. The analysis also indicated that the measurement model is an acceptable fit to the study data.

The structural model supported acceptable goodness-of-fit between the model and study data. However, this study revealed that the constructs of the Perceived Leader Effectiveness Scale support a causal relationship between only two of the four constructs (authenticity, communication) and not accountability and empowerment as suggested in the literature review.

In conclusion, none of the four hypothesis were supported. Accountability and empowerment were determined through statistical analysis not to be significant predictors of overall perceived leader effectiveness, and therefore no moderating effect could exist. Supervisor veteran status does not moderate the relationship between authenticity and overall perceived leader effectiveness nor communication and overall perceived leader effectiveness as indicated by the regression analysis. However, the post hoc analysis indicated that supervisor veteran status does increase the perception of leadership effectiveness, although not as a moderator.

Chapter Five

Discussion

Chapter five discusses the findings of the study, conclusions from the research, practical uses of the research, implications, and opportunities for future research.

The comprehensive literature review presented in chapter two of this study provides an exhaustive look at the ambiguous definition of leadership, briefly outlines the development and evolution of leadership theory, provides an overview of several of the leading leadership theories, and discusses the concept of leadership effectiveness. The review also explores military leadership and discusses some of the differences between civilian and military leaders as well as the relationship between effective leadership and organizational success. This study adds to the general body of knowledge surrounding veteran employment, leadership effectiveness, military culture, and team performance, and provides a valuable contribution to existing research on these topics.

The hypotheses presented in this study predicted that veteran status does not moderate the predictive ability of the four constructs on overall perceived leader effectiveness. The results of this study revealed that none of the hypotheses were supported. This results indicated that none of the four antecedent factor's predictive ability of overall perceived leader effectiveness were significantly statistically moderated by supervisor veteran status. The specific hypotheses and the related study findings and conclusions are as follows:

Hypothesis H₁ predicted that a *supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of their feeling of accountability and their perception of his / her supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness.*

H1 was not supported because ACC was not determined to be a statistically significant predictor of OVR1 as indicated by regression analysis. Further, the independent samples t-Test results for ACC indicated that the employees of military veteran leaders have significantly higher feelings of accountability than those of non-veteran military veteran leaders. Similarly, the independent samples t-Test for OVR1 results indicate that employees of military veteran leaders have a significantly higher perception of their supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness than employees of non-veteran military veteran leaders.

Because ACC was determined not to be a significant predictor of OVR1, there can be no moderating effect by veteran status between the two. In other words, the analysis conducted for this study demonstrated that an employee's perception of accountability is not predictive of his / her supervisor's overall leader effectiveness. This means that an employee who feels as if they are accountable for his / her work does not necessarily believe that his / her supervisor is an effective leader. However, both accountability and overall leader effectiveness are affected by veteran status. Unfortunately, the inability to effectively eliminate all competing effects on the variables make it impossible to determine the specific cause of veteran status' impact on ACC and OVR1 (Hayes, 2013). In effect, it could come from other related factors such as authenticity since there is existing evidence that suggests that the perception of an employee's accountability is a by-product of leader authenticity (Beu & Buckley, 2001; Jones & Ryan, 1997) or it could be a result of the halo effect.

According to Forgas (2011), "Halo effects refer to the widespread human tendency to make unwarranted inferences about a person's unknown characteristics on the basis of known but often irrelevant information" (p.812). In this context, an employee's perception of a leader's effectiveness may be affected by the leader's veteran status and not exclusively a result of

firsthand experience or observation. This effect requires significant consideration because, if it is occurring, veteran leaders are perceived as being more effective leaders based solely on their veteran status.

Hypothesis H₂ predicted that a *supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of the supervisor's authenticity and their perception of his / her supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness.*

H₂ was not supported because the moderated linear regression on AUT and OVR1 indicated that there was no statistically significant moderating effect by supervisor veteran status on the relationship between AUT and OVR1. That result seemingly supports accepting H₂. However, the results for the independent samples t-Test for OVR1 indicate that employees of military veteran leaders have a significantly higher perception of his / her supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness than employees of non-veteran military veteran leaders. In effect, the t-Test results suggest that supervisor veteran status does affect OVR1. As such, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status although not as a result of its moderating the relationship between AUT and OVR1.

In other words, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status from some source other than AUT as indicated by the moderated linear regression analysis and the independent samples t-Test. As stated previously, that "other source" may be a result of halo effect or it may be a result of other predictors of overall effectiveness not considered in this study. Other predictors such as conscientiousness, motivational abilities and extroversion may influence overall leader effectiveness in varying degrees, and as such may account for some of the effect on OVR1. As such, the moderating effect of veteran status on the contribution by AUT to OVR1 may or may not be statistically significant (Hayes, 2013), and a conclusive determination cannot be made.

Hypothesis H₃ predicted that a *supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of the supervisor's communication effectiveness and their perception of his / her supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness.*

H₃ was not supported because the moderated linear regression indicated that there was no statistically significant moderating effect by supervisor veteran status on the predictive effect of COM on OVR1. This result appears to support accepting hypothesis H₃. However, the results for the independent samples t-Test for OVR1 indicated that employees of military veteran leaders have a significantly higher perception of his / her supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness than employees of non-veteran military veteran leaders. In effect, the t-Test results suggested that supervisor veteran status does affect OVR1. As such, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status although not as a result of its moderating the predictive effect of COM on OVR1.

In summary, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status from some source other than COM as indicated by the moderated linear regression analysis and the independent samples t-Test. As stated previously, that "other source" may be a result of halo effect or it may be a result of other predictors of overall effectiveness not considered in this study. Other predictors may effect overall leader effectiveness in varying degrees, and as such may account for some of the effect on OVR1. As a result, the moderating effect of veteran status on the contribution by COM to OVR1 may or may not be statistically significant (Hayes, 2013).

Hypothesis H₄ predicted that a *supervisor's military experience has no effect on the predictive ability of his / her employee's perception of their feeling of empowerment and their perception of the supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness.*

H₄ was not supported because EMP was not determined to be a statistically significant predictor of OVR1 as indicated by regression analysis. Further, the independent samples t-Test results for OVR1 indicate that employees of military veteran leaders have a significantly higher perception of their supervisor's overall leadership effectiveness than employees of non-veteran military veteran leaders.

Because EMP was determined not to be a significant predictor of OVR1, there can be no moderating effect by veteran status between the two. In other words, the analysis conducted for this study demonstrated that an employee's perception of empowerment is not predictive of his / her supervisor's overall leader effectiveness. This means that an employee who feels as if they are empowered does not necessarily believe that his / her supervisor is an effective leader. However, overall leader effectiveness is affected by veteran status. The inability to effectively eliminate all competing effects on the variables make it impossible to determine the specific cause of veteran status' impact on OVR1 (Hayes, 2013). That impact may come from other related factors such as intrinsic motivation since there is existing evidence that suggests that the perception of an employee's empowerment is dependent, at least in part, on an employee's individual inherent motivation (Zhang & Bartol, 2010) or the combined effect of empowerment and authenticity (Zhu, May, & Avolio, 2004) or it could be a result of the halo effect as discussed earlier.

In this context, an employee's perception of a leader's effectiveness may be affected by the leader's veteran status and not exclusively a result of firsthand experience or observation. This effect requires significant consideration because, if it is occurring, veteran leaders are perceived as being more effective leaders based solely on their veteran status.

In summary, there is no statistically significant predictive ability of EMP and OVR1, and therefore, supervisor veteran status does not moderate the relationship as predicted in the hypothesis. However, OVR1 is affected by supervisor veteran status and therefore, the moderating effect of veteran status on the contribution by EMP to OVR1 may or may not be statistically significant (Hayes, 2013).

In addition to the findings that the hypotheses were not supported, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis did not support the previous studies that forwarded that ACC was predictive of OVR1 (Enzle & Anderson, 1993; Hall, Frink, Ferris, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Bowen, 2003; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Laschinger & Wong, 1999; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989; and Wallace et al., 2011) nor did it support the literature that forwarded that EMP was predictive of OVR1 (Kanter, 1982; Laschinger & Wong, 1999; Wallace et al., 2011, and Wong & Laschinger, 2013).

The fact that this study indicated that neither an employee's feeling of accountability nor their feeling of empowerment were predictive of their perception of their leader's overall effectiveness is contrary to the findings of previous studies. This result indicates that the previous studies warrant further research. The result also indicates that the results in this study may have been influenced by other factors such as the halo effect or environment. As an example, Zhou, Wang, Chen, and Shi, (2012) forwarded that "it is more likely that team empowerment influences individual empowerment rather than vice versa" (p.678). It is therefore reasonable to infer that team empowerment effects individual empowerment as well as an employee's perception of his or her leader's effectiveness. It can be inferred that the same phenomenon applies to accountability as well.

Conclusions

The intent of this study was evaluate the perceived leader effectiveness of veteran and non-veteran leaders / managers in a civilian context. In order to create a model of perceived leader effectiveness, extensive research was conducted and appropriate theories were identified and applied to support the relationships of the four constructs of this model; employee accountability (Enzle & Anderson, 1993; Hall, Frink, Ferris, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Bowen, 2003; Hochwarter et al., 2007; Laschinger & Wong, 1999; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989; Wallace et al., 2011), perceived leader authenticity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Cottrill et al., 2014; Gardener, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2007; Organ, 1988), perceived leader communication (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Luthans, 1988, Redding, 1972; Teece et al., 1997), perceived employee empowerment (Kanter, 1982; Laschinger & Wong, 1999; Wallace et al., 2011; Wong & Laschinger, 2013), and perceived overall leader effectiveness. The contributions of these theoretical interactions proved invaluable in understanding the constructs of overall perceived leader effectiveness and how the relationships between variables influence one another.

Further, the causal relationships between the four constructs (ACC, AUT, COM, and EMP) and the dependent variable (OVR1) were not all supported by the analysis. Specifically, in this study ACC and EMP are not significant predictors of overall perceived leader effectiveness despite extensive literature supporting that they are. However, the relationship between authenticity and overall perceived leader effectiveness and communication and overall perceived leader effectiveness are both supported by literature and the data and analysis provided in this study. This finding, in particular, has significant implications for future research and practical applications as it provides empirically robust support that the relationships exist.

Implications

This study offers an important perspective to leadership theory and understanding in general, and veteran leadership in civilian contexts in particular. This study also increases the understanding of the constituent components of successful leaders, provides information and evidence-based support for practitioners who evaluate leadership effectiveness, assists scholars to identify gaps in existing literature, provides guidance on areas of future research, and adds to the existing knowledge base. Additionally, organizations can benefit from this research in areas such as recruiting, selection, and hiring, leader and employee coaching and development, training, performance management, compensation, and organizational development.

Veteran employees in civilian contexts

The large population of veterans exiting the military, or already working or looking for jobs in civilian capacities, makes it apparent that there is a great need to explore the options confronting veterans entering the civilian workforce. Understanding how to effectively place veterans in appropriate positions with civilian employers is of paramount importance. This study furthers the understanding of the need, brings to light the urgency of the issue, and creates a vehicle for thought and discussion around the problem.

Veteran and Non-Veteran Leaders in Civilian Contexts

A definitive answer to the age old question as to whether veterans make more effective leaders than non-veterans remains unanswered. That said, this study does forward valuable statistical research and empirical results that indicate that veteran and non-veteran leader effectiveness is the same. However, this study is limited in that it considers only a single model with four constructs and a single indicator of perceived overall leader effectiveness. This study does establish a firm foundation on which additional studies can be built upon in order to find a more robust answer. While veteran and civilian leaders are in fact different, researchers have a

long way to go to empirically differentiate between veteran and non-veteran leaders, and their skills, abilities, desires, and predispositions. This study has forwarded a model, associated constructs, results, and analysis that can be further modified and enhanced to more effectively evaluate and differentiate between veteran and non-veteran leaders.

As of the time this paper was written, there was no available academic support to aid in the guidance and direction of employers actively considering employing veterans. This study provides theoretical, literary, and statistical evidence that can be utilized by employers to better understand veteran employment and the challenges and rewards associated with it.

Perceived Leader Effectiveness Scale

To date, there are no other studies that have utilized a measurement tool that attempts to consider and incorporate the differences between veteran and non-veteran leadership. The Perceived Leader Effectiveness Survey provides a baseline analysis tool that includes the consideration of constructs that are appropriately applicable to both veteran and non-veteran leaders / managers alike. Further, the Perceived Leader Effectiveness Survey provides a vehicle for future researchers to develop and apply other constructs and/or relationships between constructs that have yet to be identified. Adding new constructs or incorporating new paths between constructs may provide a more robust and statistically valid model.

Further development of the Perceived Leader Effectiveness Survey may be necessary to enhance the understanding of veteran vs. non-veteran leadership debate. The data analysis in this study demonstrated that there were some items within and among the constructs that had very high covariances, however there has yet to be research geared toward evaluating the causes. Additionally, the reliability and validation of the instrument has only been conducted by the developer of the survey, this researcher. Further validation and evaluation of reliability of the

Perceived Leader Effectiveness Survey may result in changes to or removal of other unnecessary items, thereby increasing the instrument's validity. Additionally, conducting a qualitative analysis of the perceptions, opinions, and meaning of the survey may serve to more effectively operationalize the constructs and enhance the generalizability and transferability of the tool.

Implications for Theory

The mixed results of this study indicate that this model has causal relationships among authenticity, communication, and overall leader effectiveness, however, not between accountability, empowerment, and overall leader effectiveness. As such, this study demonstrates a need to re-visit the theoretical models for the relationships between accountability (ACC) and overall leader effectiveness as well the relationship between empowerment (EMP) and overall leader effectiveness in order to explore and further validate the models and their constructs. Further, it would be valuable to consider factors other than ACC, AUT, COM, and EMP and their impact on the relationships among model's constructs. Due to the similarities in the constructs, exploring other theoretical models that clarified the differences between the constructs would also be a valuable endeavor.

As stated in the chapter two of this study, there is not a consistent definition of leadership (Hackman et al., 1986; Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; MacKie, 2014; Northouse, 2012; Stogdill, 1950; Zaccaro et al., 2001). As such, there cannot be clarity around the constituents that make up leadership. The ambiguity is a result of the varying interpretations, concepts, applications, and environments that influence observations, and thereby description and definition.

A significant contribution forwarded by this study is that it offers a detailed explanation of the many ways leadership is defined, perceived, and measured, and how that explanation affects HRD practice and research. Specifically, while this study was founded in existing

empirical literature and research, the findings demonstrated that the constructs are not predictive of perceived overall leader effectiveness in all situations and studies. There has been and remains extensive debate about leadership, its theories, antecedents, and relationships, and this study furthers the insight into what leadership may or may not be.

The main idea of this study was that perceived leader effectiveness in civilian contexts is not dependent on the leader's veteran status, and that there would be no significant statistical results supporting a difference. The findings of this study demonstrate that regardless of the construct or the overall perception, there is no discernable and statistically significant difference. This study confirms that military veteran status is irrelevant to leader effectiveness as measured by accountability, authenticity, communication, empowerment, and perceived overall leader effectiveness.

This study's results demonstrate that the environmental components facilitated by the civilian work context, or by the very nature of leadership development, or both, has such a significant effect on the perception of leadership that they outweigh other considerations. This study may uphold leadership theories such as Fiedler's contingency theory that maintains that effective leadership is based on the situational influences and the environment (Hill, 1969). In contradiction, this study may suggest that leadership development is interpretive and there is more than one way to develop a leader who will achieve the same results. Additionally, there is another consideration that gains validity as a result of this study. That consideration is that leadership effectiveness is a product of the leader, not the environment or his or her developmental history (Carlyle, 1993).

Implications for HRD Practice

This study has provided evidence that comparing veteran and non-veteran leadership is important, particularly from the perspective of appropriately matching the job to the employee. This concept will be of significant value to any employer participating in the sourcing, selection, and hiring process as well as those having a desire to lower turnover rates, develop and train staff, or more effectively manage performance. Most importantly, this study may assist HRD practitioners in more effectively identifying, selecting and onboarding former military leaders for civilian jobs.

Measuring Leader Effectiveness. Truly understanding leadership effectiveness in any organization requires that leadership and its antecedents are clearly understood. However, getting to this level of understanding requires not only clarity of terms and constituents as discussed above, it requires that the mechanisms for measurement are measuring what they should be measuring. As discussed, throughout this study, four constructs for leader effectiveness are supported in the existing literature. However, this study's results suggest the relationships between the constructs and overall leader effectiveness may be dependent on other factors that are both internal and external to the measurement tool. As a result, it can be deduced that leader effectiveness measurement instruments may predict outcomes and relationships differently. In practice, using predictive indicators for evaluating the propensity for leader effectiveness is dependent, at least in part, on the dimensions and constructs of the scale.

For HRD practitioners, the choice of predictive leader effectiveness is of paramount importance as leadership is a leading facilitator of organizational success (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Greenleaf, 1970; Jones, 2012; Mukli, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2005; Wheelan, 2010). Effective leaders lead teams who finish projects faster, produce higher quality products and services, and generate more revenue than less effective teams (Wheelan, 2010). The information gained from

this study is valuable to HRD practitioners in that they will be able to utilize the information to modify or adjust their developing or existing development initiatives, training, coaching, needs assessment, and organizational effectiveness strategies, strategic planning, and talent management in order to maximize organizational effectiveness, performance, and; ultimately, profitability.

Additionally, HRD practitioners and organizations that have an interest in measuring perceptions of leader effectiveness should consider the predictors, factors, and structure of potential scales in order to accurately assess those perspectives in the applicable contexts. This is of particular importance in terms of selection, development, and performance management. This study demonstrates that even measures based on similar theories may not consistently measure the same concepts of leader effectiveness the same way or have similar results. Further, different measurement vehicles may be more or less sensitive to culture, context, constructs, and individual inputs than others.

These findings support the consideration that multiple leadership theories are necessary to explain the subtleties of effective leaders. As this study has demonstrated, accountability and communication are supported by both common sense and literature as being factors of perceived leader effectiveness, however, the statistical results of this study do not support that they are.

Other Implications

The study of leadership and leader effectiveness in particular has continued to expand since Plato first forwarded that a leader is a “man of power with a sincerely truth-seeking vision” (Aaltio-Marjosola & Takala, 2000, p.148). Both scholars and practitioners alike have continued to develop theories, models, and measurement tools in order to clarify the definition of

leadership, and to confirm the constructs and the associated descriptions of antecedents of leader effectiveness.

HRD practitioners are, or should be, intensely interested in leader selection, development, and performance management as leader effectiveness is widely held as being one of the key constituents of organizational performance (Edgar, 2008; Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002; Jha & Jha, 2013). That said, if leader effectiveness is indeed a key contributor to organizational effectiveness, then more clarity around its measurement and assessment requires greater attention.

This study contributes to the existing literature by bringing to light the differences in measuring leader effectiveness and describing the impact that those differences may have on HRD. This study also suggests that increasing practitioner knowledge about the differences between theories and application of measurement tools to assess leader efficiency are equally as important as furthering the overall practitioner knowledge and understanding of the issue.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Leader effectiveness, and understanding its theories and application in both practice, and research, are of significant interest. This study, through its research, analysis, and conclusions has provided insight into furthering the understanding of leader effectiveness, and particularly the differences between veteran and non-veteran developed leaders in a civilian context. However, this study does have limitations. The limitations of this study can, however, serve as a starting point for future research on theory, generalizability, model structure, overall leader effectiveness measures, and methods.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study as outlined in the following paragraphs. In general, the results of this study may be explained in part by the interaction of factors within the model. For example, the moderating effect of accountability may affect the relationship between leader authenticity and perceived overall leader effectiveness. This may be because when leader authenticity is high, employees develop a self-management mindset that is positively related to their feelings of accountability. As such, individual feelings of accountability stem from perceptions of their leader's effectiveness as well as their own requirements to self-manage (VanSandt & Neck, 2003). Also, survey question wording, and / or question order could indicate response perspectives of constructs other than the one intended and may have affected the statistical support for the relationship between the constructs and each other as well as the constructs and OVR1.

The ambiguity of terms such as accountability, authenticity, communication, empowerment, and even leadership may have affected the respondent's perception of the survey question. Additionally, interpretation of terms may be influenced by a combined effect of both individual and team contributions since both individual and team factors effect performance (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007). As an example, Zhou, Wang, Chen, and Shi, (2012) forward that "it is more likely that team empowerment influences individual empowerment rather than vice versa" (p.678). It is therefore reasonable to infer that team empowerment effects individual empowerment as well as an employee's perception of his or her leader's effectiveness. Differentiating between the effects is a concern for this study.

Another limitation to this study is that the results may not be generalizable across all contexts. Specifically, the use of non-probability sampling of a U.S. population impacts the generalizability to other countries and cultures. Additionally, this survey only solicited

participation from respondents with access to a computer, which may impact the ability of this research to be generalized across all socio-economic classes.

This study only considered leader effectiveness from a single perspective, the subordinate point-of-view. Other perspectives such as the Supervisor point of view, actual business unit performance, or performance reviews would make this analysis more complete, and ultimately more accurate.

Self-report bias, also called common rater effect, may have contributed to common method variance since the respondent to the survey was the same respondent who provided the measure for both variables (predictor and criterion) (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Self-report bias may be a limitation to this study as well.

The response rate may have been affected by the length survey, and may be a limitation to this study. The survey included 27 leader effectiveness questions and ten demographic questions. However, the survey was not expected to take more than ten minutes, which is identified by Galesic & Bosnjak (2009) as being an optimal survey length.

This study did not differentiate between veteran position (i.e., officer or enlisted) and as such may not be generalizable to all veterans in the same way. This is specifically due to the inherent supervisory requirements associated with being a military officer that may or may not be present with the enlisted sample. Although this concern may or may not be a limitation, it warrants consideration.

Another possible limitation to this study is that there is a possibility that the similarity of behaviors affects more than one of the four constructs simultaneously. As a result, the validity / reliability of the scale may be artificially high.

The nature of a survey-based, quantitative research design eliminates the ability to ask open ended questions, and therefore, eliminates the ability to gather additional details such as motivations and feelings, and as such this study may not be as rich in detail as it could be with a qualitative component.

Another limitation is that the results indicate that ACC and EMP are not statistically significant indicators of OVR1. As such, the model's ability to accurately evaluate the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable is questionable. This issue warrants future research, testing, and model refinement.

One of the factors (ACC) that contributes to the model and is an antecedent of OVR1 had an average variance extracted (AVE) less than the acceptable minimum of 0.50, which indicates unacceptable convergent validity. Because this study forwarded a new model and concept, and the composite reliability was well above the 0.60 minimum threshold, the AVE of 0.483 was deemed acceptable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). However, future researchers should be cautious of the low score as it is generally unacceptable for established research.

Finally, the fact that this study only used one indicator to measure the perceived overall leader effectiveness is a concern. A factor with fewer than three items is generally weak and lacks the required stability (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Velicer & Fava, 1998), and may result in underidentification or insufficient information to determine actual causal effect (Stanford, 2016).

Future Research

Many possible avenues exist to continue this research. This study focuses on veteran leadership in civilian contexts and how their perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness compares to non-veteran leaders as well as leader effectiveness and its associated measures. This study has made a significant contribution to the general body of knowledge regarding

veteran status and its impact on perceived leader effectiveness. However, there is considerable opportunity for more research in order to better understand the constructs of perceived leader effectiveness, further evaluate the differences between veteran and non-veteran leaders in civilian contexts, and explore the different perspectives of leader effectiveness.

The structural model presented in this study is new from the perspectives of the constructs and veteran status. In the current patriotic climate, and with an increased focus on veteran hiring, it is important for researchers and practitioners alike to discuss this model at length in order to gain insight into the complexity and nuances of the model as well as its impact on employers and veterans.

This quantitative study, regardless of its contributions to both literature and practice, cannot provide the depth and richness that could be gained from a qualitative study. Qualitative research on this topic might provide enhanced understanding of the model, the constructs, and the unique perspectives of veteran leadership / management. Further, a qualitative study would provide for enriched participant input, not solely subject to the interpretations and perspectives of the researcher. Additionally, a qualitative approach would allow for theory development not based solely on statistical analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

This study has presented opportunities for further research of perceived leader effectiveness. However, this study only considered perceived leader effectiveness from the four constructs of accountability, authenticity, empowerment, and communication. This study clearly identified that there are variables that may be moderated by leader veteran status. Future research considering additional variables would be valuable in determining their existence and magnitude, and help evaluate this model's efficacy in other contexts.

Finally, further review and analysis of the perceived leader effectiveness model would be valuable as there may be additional direct paths in the model that were not identified in this study or elsewhere. A broader review of literature and empirical research that explores other potential constructs of the perceived leader effectiveness model may result in more robust, statistically valid models.

Summary

Chapter five provided an in-depth discussion of the findings of this study, the implications for HRD practitioners and scholars, limitations, suggestions, recommendations for future research, and a chapter summary.

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Appendix A: IRB Approval Letter



THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT TYLER
3900 University Blvd. • Tyler, TX 75799 • 903.565.5774 • FAX:
903.565.5858

**Office of Research and
Technology Transfer
Institutional Review Board**

February 5, 2016

Dear Mr. Dexter,

Your request to conduct the study: *A Comparison of Managerial and Leadership Effectiveness of Veteran and Civilian Developed Leaders in a Civilian Context*, IRB #SP2016-54 has been approved by The University of Texas at Tyler Institutional Review Board as a study exempt from further IRB review. This approval includes a waiver of signed, written informed consent. In addition, please ensure that any research assistants are knowledgeable about research ethics and confidentiality, and any co-investigators have completed human protection training within the past three years, and have forwarded their certificates to the IRB office (G. Duke).

Please review the UT Tyler IRB Principal Investigator Responsibilities, and acknowledge your understanding of these responsibilities and the following through return of this email to the IRB Chair within one week after receipt of this approval letter:

- Prompt reporting to the UT Tyler IRB of any proposed changes to this research activity
- **Prompt reporting to the UT Tyler IRB and academic department administration will be done of any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others**
- Suspension or termination of approval may be done if there is evidence of any serious or continuing noncompliance with Federal Regulations or any aberrations in original proposal.
- Any change in proposal procedures must be promptly reported to the IRB prior to implementing any changes except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject.

Best of luck in your research, and do not hesitate to contact me if you need any further assistance.

Sincerely,

Gloria Duke, PhD, RN
Chair, UT Tyler IRB

Appendix B: Perceived Leader Effectiveness Survey

Dear Prospective Participant,

My name is John Dexter and I am a PhD candidate at the University of Texas at Tyler. I am conducting an anonymous online survey on the perceptions that employees have about their immediate Supervisor's leadership effectiveness. I am researching this topic as my dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirements to complete my PhD in Human Resources Development and because I am interested in learning more about perceived leadership / managerial effectiveness as a foundation for future research.

In order to participate in this survey, you must be 18 years or older. The survey is voluntary and you may opt out at any time. Since your answers are in an electronic format without any identifying information, your participation is completely anonymous. The survey will take approximately 10 minutes to complete. Please answer each question. The results of this survey will be reported as a group of all respondents and all data will be destroyed once the relevant research is complete.

Thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

John C. Dexter
PhD Candidate
The University of Texas at Tyler

Appendix C: Informed Consent

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT TYLER

Informed Consent to Participate in Research

Institutional Review Board

Approval Date: February 5, 2016

Project Title: Leadership Effectiveness Assessment

To the Participant:

You are being invited to take part in this online study from The University of Texas at Tyler (UT Tyler).

Description of Project

The purpose of this research project is to better understand certain aspects and perceptions of perceived leadership effectiveness of managers and supervisors. This research project is being conducted by John C. Dexter in conjunction with The University of Texas at Tyler.

Your participation in this research study is completely voluntary. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time by closing your browser. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you withdraw from participating at any time, there will be no consequences.

The procedure involves completing an online survey with multiple choice questions about your perceptions of your immediate Supervisor. The survey will take about 10 minutes to complete. After you read each question or statement, click the button that best corresponds to

your response. Click >> to continue after each question or << to return to the previous question. When complete, the survey will end automatically. At any time prior to the end of the survey you may close your browser to withdraw from participation.

Side Effects/Risks

To protect your confidentiality, your responses will be anonymous and we will not collect any identifying information such as your name, department, email address, computer number or IP address. The researcher is not aware of the potential for any side effects or risks associated with your participation in this study.

The results of this study may be shared with The University of Texas at Tyler representatives and will be used only for scholarly purposes. Only a summary of the data will be shared through publication or conference venues.

This research has been reviewed and approved according to The University of Texas at Tyler's Institutional Review Board (IRB) procedures for research involving human subjects. If you have any questions about the research study, please contact John Dexter, (214) 679-3343, jdexter@patriots.uttyler.edu or Gloria Duke, Chair of The University of Tyler IRB, at (903) 566-7023, gduke@uttyler.edu.

ELECTRONIC CONSENT

Clicking on the "Agree" button below indicates that:

- You have read the above information.
- You voluntarily agree to participate.
- You are at least 18 years of age.

If you do not wish to participate in the research study, please decline participation by clicking on the "Disagree" button and then clicking NEXT or simply closing your browser window.

Please select the **AGREE** button below to continue on with this survey.

AGREE

DISAGREE

Appendix D: Perceived Leadership Effectiveness Survey

The Perceived Leader Effectiveness Survey

1. Has your immediate Supervisor / Manager ever served in the military?

- Yes
- No
- Don't Know

2. Was your immediate Supervisor / Manager enlisted or an officer when he / she was in the military?

- Enlisted
- Commissioned
- Don't Know
- Not Applicable

3. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

4. What is your current age?

- <25
- 26 - 35
- 36 - 45
- 46 - 55
- 56 - 65
- >66

5. Are you currently employed?

- Yes
- No

6. Do you currently supervise or manage people directly?

- Yes
- No

7. What do you consider your career level to be?

- Front-line employee
- Supervisor
- Manager
- Director
- Executive

8. If you are currently employed, how long have you been in your current position?

- <1 year
- 1 - 3 years
- 4 - 6 years
- 7 - 10 years
- 11 - 15 years
- > 15 years

9. If you are currently employed, how long have you been employed by your current employer?

- < 1 year
- 1 - 3 years
- 4 - 6 years
- 7 - 10 years
- 11 - 15 years
- >15 years

10. Which of the following industries best describes your employer's primary business?

- Construction
- Waste Management
- Finance / Insurance
- Transportation / Warehousing
- Professional Service
- Entertainment
- Retail / Wholesale Trade
- Manufacturing
- Real Estate

- Hotel / Restaurant
- Healthcare
- Mining / Oil and gas
- Education
- Government

11. What is your supervisor's gender?

- Male
- Female

12. What is your supervisor's approximate age?

- < 25
- 26 - 35
- 36 - 45
- 46 - 55
- 56 - 65
- >66

13. My immediate supervisor / manager creates an atmosphere of trust and respect.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

14. My immediate supervisor / manager demonstrates integrity.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

15. My immediate supervisor / manager effectively communicates with his or her subordinates.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time

- Always

16. My immediate supervisor / manager explains expectations clearly.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

17. My immediate supervisor / manager holds people accountable.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

18. My immediate supervisor / manager communicates effectively with his or her subordinates.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes

- Most of the Time
- Always

19. My immediate supervisor / manager motivates employees to do their best.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

20. My immediate supervisor / manager is fair.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

21. My immediate supervisor / manager does not allow me to blame others for my short falls.

- Never
- Rarely

- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

22. My immediate supervisor / manager expects me to do my best at work.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

23. My immediate supervisor / manager empowers others appropriately.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

24. My immediate supervisor / manager holds employees responsible for their performance.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes

- Most of the Time
- Always

25. My immediate supervisor / manager solicits the input of others.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

26. My immediate supervisor / manager does what he / she says he'll / she'll do.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

27. My immediate supervisor / manager encourages honest communication.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes

- Most of the Time
- Always

28. My immediate supervisor / manager is ethical.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

29. My immediate supervisor / manager focuses his / her team on common goals.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

30. My immediate supervisor / manager provides his / her team with the tools to be successful.

- Never
- Rarely

- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

31. My immediate supervisor / manager keeps me informed of my individual performance.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

32. My immediate supervisor / manager eliminates barriers to success.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

33. My immediate supervisor / manager expects me to achieve my goals.

- Never
- Rarely

- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

34. My manager allows me the authority to make decisions.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

35. My immediate supervisor / manager encourages others to challenge their limits.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

36. My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

37. My immediate supervisor / manager does the "right" thing.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

38. My immediate supervisor / manager is not afraid to say "no."

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

39. My immediate supervisor / manager is an effective manager.

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the Time
- Always

Survey Code is UTTPhD1 Thank you!