

THE EFFECT OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP ON THE  
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT OF JUNIOR NAVAL OFFICERS

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The Effect of Servant Leadership on the Organizational Commitment of

Junior Naval Officers

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## Abstract

The purpose of this research study was to examine the relationship between servant leadership practices or characteristics of command team members, including the commanding officer, executive officer, and the command master chief, and the commitment of junior officers in the submarine force. Seventy-three junior officer students stationed at Naval Submarine School, New London, Connecticut were given two Servant Leadership Questionnaires (SLQ) and a Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (TCM) questionnaire.

One SLQ examined the perceived servant leadership characteristics by the commanding officer of the participants' last command. The other SLQ examined the perceived servant leadership characteristics of the command team, including the commanding officer, the executive officer, and the command master chief of the participants' last command. Statistical measurements were used to compare results and determine if a statistically significant relationship exists between servant leadership characteristics of submarine command elements and junior officer commitment levels. This research showed that most submarine junior officers experienced servant leadership by one or more of the command team members. Of significant importance, this research showed that 89.9% of the participants held a relatively high combined affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The research also demonstrated that a strong positive relationship exists between those experiencing servant leadership and their commitment level. Although the command team scored relatively lower on the SLQ, the overall differences between servant leadership and commitment for the commanding officer and the command team were small except for continuance commitment.

## Dedication

This work is dedicated to my loving and supportive wife,

Wendy, to my beautiful son, Kenneson,

And to all the glory, that is God

For every night, weekend, and holiday spent studying, conducting research, and writing, my wife spent at Cub Scouts, baseball games, karate practice, and cutting the grass. I will never be able to repay either of them for the support and love they provided or the lost time. I cannot go without saying, “for every accomplishment in my life, all the credit goes to the love of my wife.”

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## Chapter 1: Introduction

In a 1970 essay, Robert K. Greenleaf popularized servant leadership as a contemporary leadership theory; this style of leadership allows leaders to achieve great success for their organizations by giving attention to the needs of their subordinates and associates vice focusing on their own outcomes (Greenleaf, 1970). Larry Spears, past president and CEO of the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, expounds servant leadership into ten characteristics: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment, and community building (Spears, 2010). According to John C. Maxwell, author of *The 360 Leader*, leadership is meant for the benefit of the follower, not to advance the career of the leader (Maxwell, 2011). Although the benefits of this style of leadership are numerous, “the major strength of servant leadership theory is the contribution to organizational and employee development” (Jones-Burbridge, 2012).

Like other leadership theories, there are also aspects of leadership that hinder their effectiveness. Some recent criticisms of servant leadership argue that the values attributed to servant leadership are gender biased and accuse the theory of perpetuating “a theology of leadership that upholds androcentric patriarchal norms” and “insidiously perpetuates a long-standing masculine-feminine, master-slave political economy” (Eicher-Catt, 2005 p. 17). Smith, Montagno, and Kuzmenko (2004) warn, “Some authors have attempted to couch servant leadership in spiritual and moral terms” (p. 82). On the other hand, transactional and path-goal leadership provides a direct method for increasing output of the organization through employee motivation techniques. The general thought is to get everyone to buy-in to the organization’s mission (Kouzes & Posner, 2007;

Northouse, 2010; Schein, 2010). Other leadership styles, such as situational leadership, require changes in the leader's actions based on the combination of willingness and capabilities demonstrated by the follower (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Irgens, 1995). Transformational leadership, focusing on the leader-follower exchange, creates an emotional connection that increases the level of inspiration in both the leader and the follower (Northouse, 2004). Each of these leadership styles has its merits. However, not one of the styles listed, at least on the surface, focuses specifically on the individual.

As discussed, each leadership style has benefits under given situations. A task-based leadership may work well under goal-oriented organizations. On the other hand, that same leadership may fail miserably in a technology-based organization. Authors, such as Hersey (1981), Kouzes and Posner (2007), Northouse (2010), Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002), provide direction and specifications for using a particular leadership style. At the same time, each of them also acknowledges a leader's need to provide the leadership necessary for the completion of the organizational goals. The problem is no one can provide a definitive leadership style that will solve every situation. Although this research paper was never designed to provide the solution, it provides details into the effects of one leadership style, servant leadership, as it pertains to a specific leadership challenge, commitment of junior officers in the submarine force.

### **Navy Leadership Background**

As one of the four primary branches of the military, the Navy forms a vital mission. The Navy provides national security, peace of mind, and when necessary, a formidable foe and ally. The Navy, much like the other branches, thrives on the dedication and commitment of the individuals choosing to serve. Similar to Christian and

academic organizations, the units within the Navy, in their bare existence, provide services for the community. The overarching purposes of the organizations vary, but the overall theme is to provide some type of service, and their growth and success depends on the continued commitment and development of the individuals working within the facilities.

The United States Navy is an organization that builds upon the development of junior sailors. Every sailor joins the Navy with little, if any, practical experience in the rigors and discipline necessary to make a command perform as an integral unit.

According to the Navy New Recruit Survey (1993), the top reasons people joined the Navy were training in technical fields, preparation for civilian equivalent positions, travel, patriotism, retirement and medical benefits, and to fill an interesting position.

Although most are broadly aware of the rigors associated with a military life, they did not enter possessing either technical or leadership skills. Nonetheless, these young recruits, both officer and enlisted, continue to encompass the backbone of military units. They stand watches, perform maintenance, conduct repairs to shipboard equipment, and make tactical decisions with global implications.

Personnel enter military service after swearing an oath of allegiance and by signing contracts of various lengths. The contract, on their part, is the agreement to follow the rules of Uniform Code Military Justice and the orders of senior officers. Additionally, all members of the Navy agree to uphold the Constitution of the United States. This agreement or contract assumes commitment because individuals swear to support, defend, and provide allegiance (Title 10, US Code; Act of May 1962). In this context, commitment is not simply a matter of staying with an organization due to

contractual obligations; instead, commitment is “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979). Further, research has demonstrated that commitment is multi-dimensional. Commitment contains an affective or value-oriented dimension and a continuance exchange dimension (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mayer & Schoorman, 1998). Additionally, the member is not obligated beyond the length of enlistment, whereas, commitment research demonstrates that personnel who are highly committed to an organization will be less likely to leave (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Jarros, 1997; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979).

Another unique aspect of military service is that the organization does not import leadership. Young recruits develop and grow to form the leadership breadth of the military. The inward growth of junior personnel forms one of the basic tenets of military life; the military develops its future leaders. Another staple of military life is that the military leaders provide for the basic needs of their followers. According to the Secretary of the Navy, the Honorable Ray Malbus, as part of the 2010 Veteran’s Day statement (2010), one of the two top priorities of the United States Navy is to seek opportunities to enhance the lives of our Sailors.

A small, but vital, sub-community within the Navy is the submarine force. A submarine is a small subculture within the Navy that thrives based on the success of individuals performing various duties. Thus, the welfare of each member becomes vitally important to mission accomplishment. According to the competencies and skills model by the Air University Strategic Leadership Studies department, one of the basic principles of military leadership is to know the subordinates (Air Command & Staff College, 2005).

Accordingly, the Naval Leadership Planning Guide directly correlates leader-subordinate relationships to servant leadership:

- Put the welfare of the women and men for whom you are accountable before your own welfare.
- See the members of your unit and let them see you so that every one of them may know you and feel that you know them.
- Let them see that you are determined to prepare them for the accomplishment of all missions.
- Concern yourself with the living conditions of the members of your unit.
- Know your unit's mental attitude; keep in touch with their thoughts. (p. 37)

Submarine personnel, although comprising one-third of the combatant ships, encompass just seven percent of the total force; the junior sailors aboard these submarines are an even smaller part of the overall protection of the United States (Congressional Budget Office, 2002). After completion of initial training, their first year is comprised of learning the intricate details of their submarines and specific watch-stations applicable to their gained expertise. After a formal board confirms the sailor's comprehension, the individual becomes qualified in submarines. The qualification recognizes the individual as a valuable member of an organization that has a longstanding history of integrity, honor, and value. Completion of this qualification is in addition to gaining expertise in the various technical fields as well as initial responsibilities in leadership. In the first three years, from initial pipeline training to onboard training, it is not surprising for a junior sailor to receive over 2000 hours of formal training and experience (U.S. Navy, 2012; Naval Recruiting Command, n.d.). Additionally, this

period of time is where they gain their initial impression of the military way of life and the military leadership triad, the commanding officer, executive officer, and the command master chief.

Leadership on submarines comes in various facets. The divisional chief petty officers are the frontline leaders. They control the day-to-day operations of the division. Within the constraints of the command's operating procedures, at the divisional level, the chief makes the final decision. He determines the working hours, leave and liberty, and job assignments. Additionally, he is also responsible for recommending awards and providing discipline for minor offences. His role is unlike the leading first class petty officer who serves more as an office manager (Juergens, 2010; Secretary of the Navy, 1990). The leading first class petty officer, under the direction of the chief, determines the work schedule and personnel assignments. The next layer of leadership is the division officer (COMSUBFOR, 1958; Leahy, 2002). The division officer works for the department head and with the chief petty officer; he primarily serves as the liaison between the enlisted members and the officer corps. His primary responsibility during his initial tour of duty is to qualify submarines, complete applicable qualifications, and gain experience in as many positions as possible, given the personnel constraints and length of duty. By sharing the department and command goals and vision, he serves to motivate and lead members toward a common goal (Powell, 2012; Bering, 2011). The department head ensures the divisions under his control work toward the command goals. He is accountable to the commanding officer for each of his division's actions, whether positive or negative. Beyond the leadership functions he serves, he most likely resembles a project manager. He has the final say on almost all maintenance activities, repairs,

scheduling, watch-bills, leave, liberty, evaluations, awards, and counseling sessions. At his discretion, he is obligated to seek commanding officer consultation and approval on major items or items affecting ship capabilities or safety (COMSUBFOR, 1958; Mack, McComas, & Seymour, 1998).

At the command level, an enlisted member's chain of command consists of the command master chief, the executive officer, and the commanding officer. The executive officer serves to create and execute the plan of the day. He works closely with the commanding officer to establish short and long-term goals that are consistent with accomplishing the overall mission. Although he works with enlisted members on larger matters, his immediate leadership role is more applicable toward the officers. The commanding officer, although responsible for all aspects of the submarine, must divert his attention toward mission accomplishment. He is the leader of leaders. The previous statement does not mean that he is not integral to the lives of the enlisted members and junior officers. However, much like a chief executive officer, his role is to ensure that the leadership under him fills their roles appropriately. On the other hand, he also serves as a direct-line mentor, coach, and sometimes father to each of the officers serving under him. The commanding officer is accountable and legally responsible for all facets of the submarine (COMSUBFOR, 1958).

All of these people have an effect on the professional and personal development of enlisted members and junior officers. They each serve a unique role. A submarine is different from its counterparts because of the closed environment. A submarine underway has limited access to the external environment. A submarine's leadership must serve as more than a community; they must serve as a family. A crew can spend weeks

or months underway without contact with their family members or news. The leadership challenges are unique and far from easy. Pay, liberty, or any other benefit cannot possibly compensate for these hardships. The leadership must instill something greater; leadership is responsible for enhancing tradition, heritage, a way of life, and a culture in every action it takes. There is no substitute for the leader's role in this capacity. Men and women do not risk their lives for a meager paycheck. They do not leave their families and put their lives on hold for a passing thought. No, something more is required. No person on the submarine plays a higher role in this capacity than the command master chief (Chief of Naval Operations Command, 1995).

Affectionately referred to as the chief of the boat or COB, the command master chief is the highest enlisted billet onboard a submarine. He serves as a leader and confidant to the enlisted person and as a principle assistant to the commanding officer, although technically directly under the executive officer. By his position, he maintains positional authority as well as referent power over all members of the command, enlisted and officer alike. More specifically, he serves as the eyes and ears of the command. A command master chief, by definition is a mentor, a coach, and a teacher. He provides inspiration, solves problems, listens, and executes the vision of the command; he is a follower-leader. He is directly responsible and accountable for the activities, achievements, and setbacks of every enlisted member onboard (COMSUBFOR, 1958; Cutler, 2009; Hagan & Leahy, 2004). He is the single point of contact for ensuring the wellbeing of the enlisted members; only the commanding officer is more accountable for the actions of the command. The difference is that the commanding officer serves as the chief executive officer, whereas the command master chief serves as a front-line leader.

Additionally, he directly supervises and controls the actions of the chief's quarters as a unit, and he controls each chief individually when warranted. As the nature of his position suggests, his position affords him the unique opportunity to steer the morale and directly affect the quality of life of every member onboard. There is no substitute for quality leadership in this position (Drewry, 2003; Hagan & Leahy, 2004).

The triad of leadership completes the leadership training, experience, and example the junior officers and enlisted members receive during initial tours of duty. Although recent research in retention of submarine officers and tour of duty was not located, according to two surface warfare studies conducted by the Naval Personnel Research Development Center, "junior surface warfare officer career decisions are influenced substantially by their first sea tour experiences, perceptions of their work environment, and professional development opportunities" (Cook & Morrison, 1983, p. vii). A previous study in 1982 argued those officers assisted in professional growth by the chain of command were more influenced in making the Navy a career decision (Cook & Morrison, 1982). In other words, a critical stage of commitment development is during the initial tour of duty. The larger the impact of leadership by senior personnel on junior officers, the more junior officers agreed to continue military service.

### **Problem Statement**

It is unknown what impact servant leadership has on the organizational commitment of junior officers on submarines. Specifically, the impact of servant leadership by the commanding officer or the command team on junior officer commitment has never been studied. Although servant leadership characteristics have been shown to have a positive effect on the organizational commitment of staff members

in other areas (Rimes, 2011), this leadership style has not been applied or tested in the military environment. The missing research forms just one of the leadership questions that requires exploration prior to advocating a possible submarine leadership doctrine.

Until recently, junior leaders received training in the situational leadership style (CPOSLC), and at major command leadership training seminars the Art of Leadership comprises the major elements of the curriculum. Department heads receive a one-week leadership seminar-based training prior to reporting to their second submarine (Naval Personnel Command, 2012; Chief of Naval Operations, 2008). By the time a submarine officer finishes his department head assignment, he or she has only received two weeks of formal leadership training. The relatively low level of leadership training leaves the current leaders responsible for developing followers into the leaders of tomorrow (Commander Rosene, 2005), unfortunately, with limited experience and education. Expounding on this, Katzenbach (1997) argues,

The notion of 'leadership capacity' is extremely important. It is not simply a function of the number of quality individuals in formal leadership roles, rather, it implies a system of leadership, if you will, and that can extract leadership wisdom, insight, and behaviors from many more individuals. Thus it fuels the continuing search for different kinds of leadership approaches, both individually and joint, at all levels of the organization (p. 84).

Since naval leadership depends on the development of junior personnel to replace the current leadership, it is imperative that quality sailors continue their enlistments beyond their initial obligations. For the sake of national security, it is also crucial and

unit cohesion, that current leadership increases the commitment and development of junior personnel.

For the reasons listed above, this study was designed to examine the effect of servant leadership, exercised by the command triad, on the commitment level of junior officers assigned to United States submarines. This study also specifically examined the effects servant leadership exercised by the commanding officer has on the junior officers assigned to a United States submarine.

### **Purpose of the Study**

Today, more than ever, the military is facing eroding benefits, downsizing, and the prevailing attitude of doing more with substantially less mentality (Lopez, 2011; Senator Graham, 2011; Secretary of Army McHugh, 2012; Freedberg, 2011). The effect is a possible loss of readiness. Michael Carucci, a private consultant and retired lieutenant commander, expounded by classifying military power as a mixture of training, technique, technology, and tradition. The tradition focuses on a military culture engulfed in preventing future deaths by preventing a loss of combat experience (Noone & Carucci, 1999, p. 343). Carucci concluded by arguing that an effective way of preventing a loss of competence on the battlefield from emerging is to promote a military force comprised of personnel with an adequate experience base. Although new officers add to the breadth of a unit, they have a much smaller effect on the overall readiness of a unit; the predominant experience base lives in the higher ranks of E-5 to E-9 personnel and O-4 to O-6 personnel (Krass, Pinar, Thompson, & Zenios, 1994, p. 649). These personnel carry more qualifications, experience, and possess more training, both in the classroom and on the battlefield. More importantly, these personnel enhance the readiness of a given unit

in multiple areas, whereas new recruits only aid in their initial field area. The commitment level of these personnel is especially important because of the connection between commitment and execution. As commitment level increases so does efficiency and effectiveness (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996).

### **Significance**

Given that people are the most valuable asset within an organization, it only makes sense that the organizations, including the leadership, support the individual to the maximum extent possible. Leaders are duty bound to care for, develop, and promote the men and women they are in charge of (Goleman et al., 2002). Organizations must ensure that each individual maintains the necessary capacity to complete his or her assigned tasks; this includes ensuring the person is emotionally and physically prepared. These steps describe servant leadership. However, after a careful search, it appears that no empirical evidence exists suggesting that servant leadership affects commitment in the military. Although the submarine officer corps makes up a relatively small community within the framework of the military, leadership-commitment studies in this arena may open a possible pathway toward achieving the mission through servant leadership while also increasing the commitment level of quality officers Navy wide. The overall goal of this research was to determine if a relationship exists among junior officers on submarines who have agreed to attend Submarine Officer Advanced School and a servant leadership style demonstrated by their previous commands. This study also possibly provides the initial motion for more detailed studies over the submarine force and the Navy.

**Research Basis**

Recent work in the servant leadership field, starting in 1991, yields several variations on the characteristics seen in servant leaders. The basic tenets lend themselves in the same direction as Spears' ten point characteristic aspect of servant leadership. Some of the more influential work includes Graham (1991), Buchen (1998), Spears (1998), Farling et al. (1999), Russell (2001), and Patterson (2003). Laub (1999), on the other hand, describes six specific points required of servant leaders: valuing people, developing people, building community, displaying authenticity, providing leadership, and sharing leadership. Although each of the studies places emphasis on different characteristics of servant leaders, the basic tenants remain constant. According to Greenleaf (Smith, 2005), service to others, holistic approach to work, promoting a sense of community, and sharing of power in decision-making make up the four basic attributes of servant leadership. These servant leadership characteristics may fit well within the confines of a submarine. The submarine environment is a unique situation; even within the military structure. The submarine life is a family-like, value-based unit; the environment is contained by the outer hull. Naturally following from this family-like relationship, submarine leaders must develop and build relationships with each follower, enhancing their commitment level within the organization in an affective, continuance, and normative fashion.

Numerous studies provide a positive relationship between organizational commitment and leadership practices. Mathieu and Zajac used a meta-analysis of organizational commitment literature and found leadership communication, participative style, and consideration of follower behavior positively correlated with commitment ( $r =$

.45,  $r = .39$ , and  $r = .33$ , respectively) (Dunn, Dastoor, & Sims, 2012). Meyer and Allen (1991) developed a three-component model to describe organizational commitment.

They defined the dimensions as affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to the organization (want to stay); continuance commitment is awareness with the social-economic consequences of leaving an organization (need to stay). Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment (owes it to the organization).

Understanding the various aspects of commitment and servant leadership, this study used the experiences of four future department head classes of officers currently stationed at the Submarine Officer Advanced School at the Navy Submarine School, Groton, Connecticut. The research, along with a list of general questions including demographic information, used Meyer and Allen's (1991) definitions of commitment, and examined the leader's practices as they relate to the five areas of servant leadership using the Servant Leadership Questionnaire (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). The following questions formed the basis of this research.

### **Research Questions**

1. Does the military leader's servant leadership style have an effect on the affective commitment level of the junior officer?

As identified above, affective commitment refers to a member's desire to stay with the organization on an emotional level. Meyer and Allen (1991) described this level of commitment as "want to" stay commitment. In other words, this level of commitment describes a member's attachment with the organization's goals, values, and mission.

Kouzes and Posner (2007) list one of the top priorities of a leader is to connect

emotionally with the follower by finding a way to share a value system with him or her. One of the facets of servant leadership focuses on cultivating a genuine relationship between leaders and followers (Wong & Davey, 2007). Statistical analysis techniques were used to correlate these ideas.

2. Does the military leader's servant leadership style have an effect on the continuance commitment level of the junior officer?

Continuance commitment refers to a follower's connection with the organization by intangible means (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Intangible investments is a wide spread idea. These investments may refer to an individual's sense of fulfillment based on qualifications, opportunities for advancement, sense of community, or filling of security. In the military context, several of these ideals are met by contractual obligations, such as medical care, retirement, and housing allowances (Bureau of Naval Personnel, 2003). On the other hand, the commanding officer and command team could have a direct impact on qualifications, development, and community involvement within the organization (COMSUBFOR, 1958; Chief of Naval Operations, 2008). Measuring commitment requires considering these factors. This ideal, much like the other research questions, is born from the member's own feelings. If a member feels that the command is pursuing his or her best interest, as measured by the answers on the SLQ, then the relative continuance commitment of the individual should increase.

3. Does the military leader's servant leadership style have an effect on the normative commitment level of the junior officer?

Normative commitment refers to a member's loyalty to the organization due to a strong sense of owing something to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In other

words, the member feels a sense of obligation to the organization based on personal growth, value, mission, or due to the people within the organization. These very similar sentiments were experienced in multiple conflicts, such as Vietnam, Korea, WWI, and WWII (Hartle, 2004). Members who could have returned to base camp or who had received orders to transfer out of an organization decided to stay, even at the risk of their own lives. Small combatant units of today experience the same sense of obligation (Yammarina, Mumford, Connelly, & Dionne, 2010). The connection to commitment comes from the command leadership developing a sense of community and family atmosphere. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) describe this phenomenon under organizational stewardship, the fifth area of the SLQ.

4. Is there a difference between the effects of servant leadership on junior officers when the leadership is directly from the commanding officer as opposed to the command leadership triad?

The study looked at this area to determine if there was a difference between the effect of the commanding officer and the effect of the command team. The general idea was to consider perception. If a member believed he or she had experienced servant leadership by the command, then that experience was sufficient to increase organizational commitment. Alternatively, does the member witness the split in command organization? The member may not recognize the difference in structure. One member may look at a decision by the executive officer or the command master chief as a decision coming directly from the commanding officer as opposed to a separate decision. The viewpoint may open avenues for future research, discussed in Chapter 5.

**Key Operational Definitions**

- Servant Leadership – A leadership style or philosophy whereby the leader achieves objectives by enriching the lives of individuals, builds the organization, and creates a more caring community (Greenleaf, 1970).
- Commitment – A member’s loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value congruency with the organization, and desire to maintain membership. Alternatively, it is the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979)
- Junior Officer – 0-1 through 0-3, usually includes officers on their first tour, serving in the division officer role. Although junior officer actually refers to all officers below the rank of commander, this study will use the traditional meaning and include only lieutenants and below (Bering, 2011).
- Junior Enlisted – E-4 through E-6 enlisted members. In the enlisted ranks, unlike the officer ranks, junior generally refers to experience and not necessarily rank. However, all enlisted members below chief petty officer receive the title of junior enlisted (Leahy, 2002).
- Command Team – Consists of the major decision makers onboard a submarine, includes the Captain, Executive Officer, and Command Master Chief. This definition also encompasses the Department Heads, but this goes beyond the confines of the problem statement. Future studies may include department head leadership qualities as a basis for discussion (COMSUBFOR, 1958).

- Command Triad – Consists of the Commanding Officer, Executive Officer, and the Command Master Chief (Juergens, 2010).
- Leadership – Leadership is capacity or ability of a person to cause others, through motivation and commitment to the organization or leader, to complete a common goal utilizing shared values (MacArthur, 2004).
- Command Climate – This describes the relative culture or quality of happiness a person feels about the organization (Juergens, 2010).

## **Chapter Two: Literature Review**

### **Introduction**

This research was focused in three areas: historically prevalent leadership in the Navy, servant leadership attributes and characteristics, and a three-component organizational commitment model. The purpose, significance, literature review, and analysis flow from these three areas. Historically prevalent leadership methods were included in the literature review because naval operations require a multi-faceted leader with a widespread leadership breadth. This review also, indirectly, points out the differences between the goals and possible achievements of the various leadership styles. Although there is not a perfect leadership solution, these leadership patterns are prevalent and are included to educate both the non-military and military reader.

The literature review also includes a section detailing the servant leadership model, the chosen model for analysis. An important consideration is to understand that the servant leadership model was not chosen because it is better than the other leadership styles. This study also does not advocate that the other leadership styles are less capable of producing high commitment results; Chapter 5 includes multiple areas for future study. One particular area for future analysis includes a correlation study using other leadership styles and a commitment model for analysis and comparison to this study.

The third area in the literature review and a focus point of this study was commitment of junior officers. Commitment and the commitment challenge refer to the need of the Navy to attract and maintain personnel who have a high degree of willingness and devotion to the organization, not just a group of people willing to continue employment. The difference between commitment and commitment challenge is an

important distinction because people stay with organizations for various reasons. One important outcome of this research was to determine the basis of the commitment, from the three-component model, that most represents the junior officers returning to sea duty as department heads.

This study is quantitative in nature. The servant leadership questionnaire was used to determine the relative servant leadership experienced by each of the participants. The three-component model was chosen to determine the relative commitment level of each of the participants. Correlation techniques, along with internal consistency tests, were used to determine if a statistically significant relationship exists between those who experienced servant leadership and the general commitment level of each participant. Research methodology primarily consisted of surveys provided to seventy-three junior officers who have all agreed to continue their military service one or more times. Each participant provided survey answers detailing the servant leadership of his last command as a whole and on the servant leadership as exhibited by his commanding officers. By examining seventy-three different junior officers, coming from different commands, it was possible to examine servant leadership on a larger scale. To ensure autonomy, the members provided answers based on their previous command. This point is small but vital. The study purposely did not ask questions of officers at their current command, helping to ensure complete openness in the answers. Those members serving on multiple previous submarines were only analyzed based on their last command.

### **Leadership Background**

Research in the military environment, although trailing corporate research, is vast. The military is not unlike other entities where senior executives provide guiding

principles for middle level leaders to follow. In the military context, the Chief of Naval Operation's provides the primary principle of leadership, "People are the Navy's foundation. We have a professional and moral obligation to uphold a covenant with Sailors, Civilians and their families – to ably lead, equip, train and motivate" (Admiral Greenert, 2011). Newly appointed chief petty officers receive leadership indoctrination with the CNO's guiding principle at the forefront of their indoctrination. A key lesson is that they must "take care of their people." In other words, they must enrich the lives of the individuals they are charged with (Juergens, 2010; Chief of Naval Operations, 2008; Drewry, 2003). This one principle rapidly expands to divulge a leadership behavior consistent with those attributes mirroring Greenleaf's defining qualities of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 2010; Smith, 2005). However, this leadership style is just one of the numerous leadership behavior styles that is available and practiced extensively in the corporate as well as military arenas.

Some of the leadership styles used in the military setting include transactional, transformational, situational, operational, and a command and control doctrine (Boies & Howell, 2009; Keller, 2001; Mack, McComas, & Seymour, 1998; Juergens, 2010). One leadership style, given the right set of circumstances, is not better or worse than any other style. Comprehensive searches of leadership traits, styles, and characteristics used in different environments and settings yields a similar answer. Instead, it is simply important to point out that leadership is driven by the people and the circumstances, not the leadership strength of the leader (Hersey & Blanchard, Management of organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 1977). A leader must maintain an absolute exhaustive list of possible leadership resources at his or her side in order to meet the

challenges of today's multi-cultural, ever-growing world (Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Bolman & Deal, 2008; MacArthur, 2004).

### **Military Leadership**

Some define leadership from a trait or behavior aspect, whereas others argue that it is a learned process founded in a relationship between the leader and the follower. The list of theories and definitions is exhaustive (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004; Bass, 1990; Kotter, 1990). Sometimes, however, it is simpler to boil it down to an observation by Warren Bennis, "to an extent, leadership is like beauty; it's hard to define, but you know it when you see it" (p. 1). His point is that leadership is difficult to describe, but, as the former CEO of Hewlett-Packard describes, the effects are easy to see, and sometimes is in the eyes of the beholder (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Expounding on this statement reveals a key aspect of leadership; leaders encourage the actions of a followers. One is dependent on the other. Without a follower, leadership does not exist. Without an action, there is no outcome to measure (Bass, 1990; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 2007). These basic tenets of leadership bring about crucial components in which all can agree, regardless of whether one believes in trait theory, behavioral, or learned processes; the act of leadership requires one to promote one or more persons toward completion of an act or goal (Bass, 1990; Borek, Lovett, & Towns, 2005; Bennis, 2009; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Kotter, 1990; Northouse, 2010). From a military point of view, the goal is mission accomplishment.

The military is a unique environment. Although the decision making process is similar, the hierarchy is standard, positional authority and government oversight play a significant part, and financial implications weigh heavily. The difference between

corporate America and military decision making is that the outcome may involve the life and death of the members (Connor, 2002; Hartle, 2004; Powell, 2012; Venturella, 2007). Execution means placing men and women in harm's way. It is not a question of whether or not someone may die. The answer, in regards to military life, is that the leadership decisions will yield death. In private sector comparisons, the Navy is the second largest in the world by employees, third largest by assets, and the fifth largest by budgetary constraints and spending (Mabus, 2013). Outside organizations, much like the Navy, are complex organizations with global implications. They contain multiple leadership levels and varying structures. They lead in order to accomplish missions and objectives. However, civilian industries do not lead to enforce policy by way of force (Tzu, 1971). The military, specifically the Navy, operates under a shared value system, simplified to three words: honor, courage, and commitment (Leahy, 2002; Cutler, 2009). Knowing this simple truth calls for military leadership to understand the impact of their duty (Powell, 2012; Venturella, 2007).

Military leadership has always required leaders to dedicate themselves to the lives of the men and women who place their lives at stake for the benefit of the organization. "Respect has been a distinctive U.S. Army value since 1778 when Frederick William Von Steuben noted that a U.S. officer's first objective should be to treat his men with every possible kindness and humanity" (Keller, 2001, p. 66). The Honorable Ray Mabus (2013), Secretary of the Navy, expounds by stating that a top priority of our leaders is to "take care of Sailors." Unfortunately, for some this means providing education, healthcare, childcare, and spousal job placement. These general thoughts are unfortunate because although the services provide aid in keeping the sailor at work, these programs

do not serve the mind and soul of the individual. They do not promote shared leadership. In other words, the statement leads to a helping hand, but it does not lead by itself (Gabriel, personal communication, February 12, 2013).

As stated earlier, top-level military leaders desire front-line military leaders to serve the individuals under them. This leadership principle falls squarely under the umbrella of servant leadership, but this is not the only military leadership style. An important consideration at this point to discuss the various leadership styles employed by military leaders. This list is not exhaustive, nor meant to state that leaders are not capable of using multiple aspects of each one to suit the needs of the individual or the organization. The list only serves as a general list of styles either taught or practiced by various leaders at various levels of responsibility in the Navy.

The leadership continuum taught by the military went through major modifications in 2003 and continues to change today. A revision to the chief petty officer continuum came as recently as 2011. This course revision by the Center for Personal and Professional Development (CPPD) was after the completion of a three-day Human Performance Requirements Review (HPRR) Board conducted in October 2011 (Henson, 2012). The enlisted leadership continuum now focuses more on the position the enlisted member gains vice specifically rank oriented. According to OPNAVINST 5351.2A dated 4 January 2013 signed by the Deputy Chief of Naval Operations, S. R. Van Buskirk, although a continuing leadership course applicable to the specific rank remains a prerequisite for advancement, it is now necessary to deliver the training prior to the actual advancement to the next superior rank unless a waiver is specifically approved by the applicable command's ranking admiral via the immediate superior in command (CNO,

2013). The OPNAVINST 5351.2A continues by explaining the core training breakdown requirements as well as the responsible individual or command. The doctrines require all E-4 through E-7 personnel to attend a leadership course applicable to the next higher pay-grade. Derived from DOD Directive 1322.18 of 13 January 2009 and BUPERSINST 1430.16F, OPNAVINST 5351.2A requires delivery of training on three fronts: Individual Effort, Command-Led Leader Development, and Formal Leader Training and Education.

Individual effort places the ownership on each individual to seek opportunities to enhance his own leadership foundation. Additionally, direct supervisors and senior personnel in the members command must continuously mentor, coach, guide, and actively encourage individuals to seek those opportunities when available (Juergens, 2010). Whereas, command-led programs include creating openings for junior personnel to excel; additionally, commands should seek opportunities for junior personnel to practice and develop those skills specific to the member's rank and position within the command (Chief of Naval Operations, 2008). Finally, formal leadership training and education is the responsibility of the Center for Personal and Professional Development (CPPD), a branch of the Naval Education and Training Command (NETC). The CPPD is responsible for providing classroom instruction as well as web-based training accessible by the individual and the command for on-board training during divisional training and general military training (GMT) (Van Buskirk, 2013).

Accordingly, the Navy fosters a positive learning environment focused on the development of individuals within the rank structure. "It is imperative that all sailors acquire the training and education necessary to enhance their leadership skills at the earliest opportunity following advancement and to prepare themselves most effectively

for positions of increased responsibility” (Harvey, 2006). The question now becomes whether or not a particular style of leadership directly contributes to mission objectives while also overcoming an evergrowing commitment challenge. To answer this question, one must become familiar with the leadership styles most practiced within the military structure. Although each has its own positive attributes, some are more suited for particular situations. The purpose of this study is not to determine the correct leadership style or approach for a particular person. This study also does not argue that one leadership style is universally superior to any other style. However, it is important to understand that some leaders will struggle with some styles while they flourish at others. Whether their success or failures are due to trait, skill, or style is another argument. Regarding the leadership theories that follow, it is sufficient to state that for each of them, in order to be successful, a leader must possess certain attributes that suit the particular style. A brief discussion of each of the military leadership styles follows.

### **Leadership Theory**

#### **Trait, Skill, or Style**

The backdrop to the 20<sup>th</sup> century leadership expansion was that people were born to lead. The trait theory holds a belief that there are certain traits or characteristics that people are born with that make them more likely to lead (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2010). These theories came to be known as the “great man” theories because only a person of significant leadership qualities could hold a position of such importance. Stogdill (1948) published the *Handbook of Leadership*, which suggested that no particular set of leadership traits work in every situation. Just because a leader was dominating in one situation did not guarantee success in another situation. In a slight variation to the

Stogdill notion, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) published literature that announced leaders as certain types of people with key areas in common. Others arguing for the trait approach to leadership development were Mann (1959), Lord DeVader and Allegger (1986), Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991), and Zaccaro, Kemp, and Bader (2004).

The skills approach to leadership began with the work of Katz (1955). Katz determined by firsthand observation that there are three basic skills required of leaders: technical, human, and conceptual. Katz (1955) argued that skills envelop what a leader can learn, or has the capacity to master. The easiest skill to identify with is human skill. Leaders, by definition, work with followers. A leader must possess the ability to motivate others to complete tasks or achieve operational goals. Conceptual and technical skills, on the other hand, may be field specific. A leader with a certain capacity for engineering may lead a group design engineers due to his aptitude for understanding technical specifications, or possibly his or her I.Q.; however, he or she may suffer in the political arena where more stress lies on the human skill vice technical skill (Rath & Conchie, 2008). The skills approach, instinctively, follows the work of Stogdill when he stated that no particular trait follows for every leader in every situation.

The style approach, by contrast to the trait or skills approaches, focuses on the behavior of leaders in various situations and settings. The style approach allows for two types of behaviors: task and relationship (Northouse, 2010). Task behavior accomplishes goals, creates agendas, and completes the mission, whereas the relationship behavior focuses on charisma and the ability of the leadership to gain followers. This research begins at this point. An easy to believe presumption is today's leaders can fall under any of the listed theories; it is more plausible that leaders share the capacities to lead.

Although no universal set of traits defines leaders, there are commonalities. Leaders also do not possess any particular skill set; however, leaders must possess some human skills, at least to some minor degree (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

### **Situational Leadership**

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) theorized that the primary situational determinant of leader behavior is the task-relevant aptitude of employees. They break down the employee's aptitude in two ways; specifically, the employee has a learned ability to complete the task, and is a psychologically willing participant (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Hersey & Blanchard, (1982) argue that this is a factor of self-esteem and confidence. In other words, how trained are the individuals and how confident are they that they can complete the job?

Another way of analyzing the situational leadership model is to consider the social scientist argument that a detailed understanding of individual characteristics as well as the experiences is a requirement for an accurate prediction of future performance (Cronbach, 1957; Weis & Adler, 1984). In situations where an employee sees the task as a personal strength, the course of action of the leader is relatively simple. On the other hand, a weak employee or an employee with strengths in different areas requires a much more complex approach to leadership (Snyder & Ickes, 1985). In this case, the amount of directive and supportive behavior by the leadership grows exponentially. Irgens (1995) as listed below characterize this behavior.

Directive behavior is characterized by the leader giving detailed rules and instructions while monitoring closely that they are followed. The leader decides

what is to be done, how it is to be done and when. Supportive behavior is characterized by the leader listening, communicating, recognizing and encouraging. The behavior rests on mutual respect and trust, understanding and openness and close human contact and warmth. It may be more appropriate to use different styles with the same follower when she/he is performing tasks. This is because the follower's qualifications may be more appropriate for some tasks than others may. The follower's maturity is the basis for the choice of leadership (p. 37).

A relative strength of this model is that it prioritizes the leader's time and energy toward the essential tasks and employees. According to studies by the Ken Blanchard Companies conducted between 2003 and 2006 of 4000 employees at various levels of leadership, the second most popular problem leaders make when dealing with others is either under-supervising or over-supervising. Specifically, over 27% of leaders struggle with direction giving and delegation (The Ken Blanchard Companies, 2013). The situational leadership model provides a direction-giving standard assigning priority codes directly related to the effort required by the follower. A second strength of the situational leadership model is that it provides a path for resolving issues when the environment, job tasks, internal direction, or outside influences change the status quo (Bull, 2011; Acquaaah Kawame, 2012). There is a path for leadership when new situations arise. In theory, the model molds itself on change. Among others, another positive quality of this leadership style is the relative ease of adaptability. Studies have demonstrated strong results when the leadership behavior was more "relationship oriented." The leader's ability to adapt was also positive in success and individual situations (Arvidsson, Johansson, Ek, &

Akselsson, 2007). This leadership model has also demonstrated positive results in case studies involving telecommuters in the health care industry (Farmer, 2005). These two applications provide evidence to adaptability to high-pressure situations involving life and death, a suitable model for some military applications.

Arguments against and weaknesses of the situational leadership model include developing a conceptual framework for decision-making in day-to-day decisions; the model is limited in providing detailed or complex guidance in high relationship/low task situations. More importantly, in the context of this study, situational leadership does not promote commitment of the individual (Graeff, 1983; Maier, 1963). In the military environment, adaptive leadership is a key ingredient to success in the technology driven, downsized force (Yeakey, 2002). The situational leadership model simply does not provide solutions when complexity provides for uncertain outcomes. According to Hannah (1979), “it is popular in some quarters to emphasize that effective leaders and productive organizations are characterized by growth, intimacy, authenticity, and humanness...our findings suggests that an overemphasis on relationships can be detrimental in high relationship/low task situations” (p. 621). Hannah’s statement is a simple way of stating that workers found the leaders as intrusive and failed when it came to reconciling conflict or predicting outcomes. Most importantly, there is no positive reference to gaining the commitment of the individual being led.

Although evidence from research clearly indicates that there is no “best” leadership practice, leadership must be able to adapt to the situations as well as to the people led (Gates, Blanchard, & Hersey, 1976; Hannah, 1979; Yeakey, 2002). Even though Blanchard and Hersey (1976) state the importance of relationship building,

direction-giving, and delegation, the model does not provide a path for employee development, especially for highly mature followers (Graeff, 1983; Schemel, 1998; Yukl, 1989). Yukl (1989) expands on the situational leadership model and offers six variables as an alternative to the model: subordinate effort, subordinate ability, organization of the work, cooperation and cohesiveness, resources and support, and external coordination. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) alternative argue that the leader's action are more controlled by outside forces, including the critical necessity of the task, than the maturity and capability of the followers. An extension of these arguments show a situational leadership model that bolsters job accomplishment or task completion over organizational support. The model does not provide for value sharing, employee innovation, or inclusion, especially in the context of low group or individual maturity levels (Graeff, 1983).

### **Command and Control**

Reviewing the US Army Field Manual (FM 22100) *Army Leadership*, The situational leadership approach was utilized by the military, at least in the managerial stage of enlisted leadership, through 2003 (Waddell III, 1994; Yeakey, *Situational Leadership*, 2002). A focus point in recent years, on the other hand, is on command and control style leadership (Chairman of the Joint Chiefs Staff, 2010; Grigsby, 2011). According to the Army Field Manual (22-100), the ideas presented fall under a methodology or doctrine as much as they follow a particular leadership style. The basic philosophy is that there is one leader. This leader or leadership group in the case of group commands or organizations, keeps the groups informed, solicits input or recommendations, listens to direct reports, and in decisive fashion makes a choice

(Burkett, 2008). Command and control is included as leadership because one of the key aspects a submarine officer is his evaluation on his command and control leadership ability on the Conn (Daigle , 2008; Marquet, 2012). Of course, the Conn of a submarine is not the only place command and control finds itself at the forefront of operations, from wars in Iraq and Afghanistan to Homeland Security Forces and efforts during Hurricane Katrina, command, and control is here for the long haul (Arbuthnot, 2008; Burkett, 2008; Swisher & Holly, 2005). Changes in military style, the men and women fighting, and the types of wars they fight demand a leadership style that focuses on information flow, guidance, initiative, and command and control. Succinctly put in a recent Air Force journal, “Modern warfare has evolved from conflicts dominated by massed manpower, the so-called first generation of modern war, to a warfare that has integrated political, social, economic, and technological issues” (Amouzegar, et al., 2009). Key component outputs of the Command and Control leadership style are joint analysis and planning of operations, establishing control parameters, monitoring planned versus actual execution, a feedback loop process, and quick pipelines and the ability to respond to change (Amouzegar, et al., 2009; Burkett, 2008; Swisher & Holly, 2005).

Pigeau and McCann (2002) describe control as “those structures and processes devised by command to enable it to manage risk” and command as “the creative expression of human will necessary to accomplish the mission” (pp. 53-54). In the submarine environment the structures refers to watch-teams, the division of labor, and the hierarchy below the command level; whereas, the processes refer to reporting information to the command, proper use of equipment, and the procedures for managing contacts and navigating safely in various conditions. Command, on the other hand, refers to

communication flow, effective backup, initiative, and leadership (Marquet, 2012). An important note is that command and control, although referencing completion of a mission, setting priorities, and establishing specific measurable goals, does not necessarily allow for mission buy-in (Department of the Navy, 1996). Based on public statements by the Commanding Officers of Submarine Learning Center, Groton, CT., Commander of Trident Training Facility, Bangor, WA., and the Commander of Naval Submarine School, Groton, CT., an important submarine precept is that training takes place 365 days a year; many commanding officers have stated the all too common statement regarding training, “Never let a training moment pass.” However, training, personnel development, and individual knowledge do not occur at every moment of leadership (Marquet, 2012). The implication of this statement is that command and control serves as a method of directive control during battle but does not cover every aspect of leadership. Overall, this apparent shortcoming leaves command and control style leadership as an important leadership tool, but without leadership intervention, it does not provide an answer to every possible leadership challenge (Department of the Navy, 1996).

Another aspect of command and control style leadership is that it is seemingly limited in scope and application to military type environments where chain of command is evident. This argument led some to argue that co-operation and coordination style leadership should replace military-style command and control (Arbuthnot, 2008; Burkett, 2008; Dynes, 1994). Two recent hurricane responses highlight this issue, Hurricanes Katrina and Rita. In both cases the governor of the effected state failed to support or follow the presidential appointed military officer as head of relief efforts. The stalemate

over command and control left Governors and Guard members with the impression that multifaceted commands are not trustworthy and incapable of completing a disaster response (Burkett, 2008). On the military front, Swisher and Holly (2005), made a similar argument against shared command between area commanders and support commanders. As far back as Vietnam, the Chief of Staff of the Air Force, General Curtis Lemay, stated that he did not believe consolidation of tactical lift assets made sense. He further stated that intratheater battlefield mobility requires local authority (Lemay as Cited in Swisher & Holly, 2005).

In 2002, the United States Army published a new part to the command and control doctrine. The new doctrine identifies the the elements of control, discusses elements of control, and distinguishes and separates the command from the command and control system (Connor, 2002). This new doctrine recognizes the problems associated with control, organizational structure, communication flow, and feedback channels. However, after a careful search through literature, this model still requires ground-leaders, not in control of their organization or the destiny of their units, to display the leadership traits to gain the loyalty and trust of the individuals under command. According to the command and control Doctrine by the United States Marine Corps (1996),

Since mission command and control is decentralized rather than centralized and spontaneous rather than coercive, discipline is not only imposed from above; it must also be generated from within. In order to earn a senior's trust, subordinates must demonstrate the self-discipline to accomplish the mission with minimal supervision and to act always in accord with the larger intent. Seniors, in order to

earn subordinates' trust, must likewise demonstrate that they will provide the subordinate the framework within which to act and will support and protect subordinates in every way as they exercise initiative (Ch. 3).

### **Collaborate (Team) Leadership**

A large portion of military leadership comes in the form of small teams.

Organizations such as the Sea, Air, Land Teams (SEALs), Airborne Rangers, and Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD) teams work because of the close-knit relationship in which everyone knows the strengths, weaknesses, and positional requirements of each member (Albert & Hayes, 2003; Essens et al., 2001; Sandal, Endresen, Vaernes, & Ursin, 1999; as Cited in Yammarina, Mumford, Connelly, & Dionne, 2010). In the submarine force, watchteams and divisions are similar in formation and design. An officer of the deck, division officer, and a department head are in charge of small subgroups of the larger submarine environment. Each group forms its own culture and norms and has strengths and weaknesses that a leader must come to understand and utilize in order to effectively lead and manage the operational requirements (COMSUBFOR, 1958).

Key components of teams to ensure efficiency are coordination, shared knowledge, satisfaction, value sharing, and a clear understanding and agreement on objectives (Mohrman, Cohen, & Mohrman, 1995; Yukl, 1999). Additionally, Cohen and Mankin (1999) state that team members must understand the situation; in the military context, this statement refers to understanding the mission and the overall impact on the global mission (as Cited in Boies & Howell, 2009). The difficult issue for leadership is that all people understand issues in different ways and at different rates. In other words, their implied understanding and tacit knowledge background varies greatly based on

experience as well as book-knowledge (Kraiger & Wenzel, 1997). According to Boies and Howell (2009), when all members share a common understanding of the situation and mission, it becomes easier to predict performance and actions of each individual member of the team. They continue, based primarily on the work of Cannon-Bowers, Salas and Converse (1993), and Mathier et al. (2000) by stating the contrary as well; if their ideals diverge, then team effectiveness diminishes. Their research pointed toward positive relationships between team effectiveness and shared mental models combined with effective team processes including communication flow, coordination, positive interpersonal relationships, and cooperation.

The leadership challenge in this light is two-fold. First, the average tour of duty for a junior officer on a submarine is thirty-one months, a department head is thirty-six months, and an enlisted member is between forty-eight and sixty months (Bureau of Naval Personnel, 2003). If one extracts the *Standard Submarine Operations and Regulations Manual (SSORM)* standard qualification times, the qualified tour of duty from the complete duty drops to eighteen, thirty, and thirty-six months, respectively. Another aspect of the tour of duty and qualification timeframe problem is that a watch-team only remains together for three to six months lengths; turnover, schools, reorganization of strengths, and mission objectives constantly drive teams in different directions (COMSUBFOR, 1958). These short periods have the same effect as using distributed and partially distributed teams, which results in aggravating weaknesses and enhancing inefficiency (Covert & Burke, 2007; Stagle et al., 2007 as Cited in Yammarina, Mumford, Connelly, & Dionne, 2010). The second problem is that information is not perfect and cannot be shared evenly to all members. Classification

levels, complex relationships of mission objectives, formal educational backgrounds, and military training all vary to the extent that a perfect sharing of knowledge is not possible (Yammarina, Mumford, Connelly, & Dionne, 2010). Inability to facilitate information flow or generate a shared vision by leadership can result in a loss of trust, and by extension, a loss of commitment toward the organization (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; MacArthur, 2004; Northouse, 2010)

### **Operational (Tactical) Leadership**

Operational leadership is similar in context to the path-goal leadership model. The basic ideology of this leadership style is the development of a relationship between the leader's style and the characteristics of the subordinates (Northouse, 2010). In essence, it is the ability of the leader to motivate the subordinates based on a belief that the goal or operational commitment is achievable (Northouse, 2010; Yardley & Neal, 2007). The overall goal, similar to situational leadership, is that a leader must take advantage of the leadership style that best motivates the individual. According to House and Mitchell (1974), it is this marriage of motivation to leadership behavior that creates the bonds between path-goal and operational leadership.

A key component of the operational leadership style is behavior modification. The leader must choose a style that fills the gaps in the worker's environment in order to create goal attainment. The leader often chooses a reward system and communication method to share the overall operational necessity and how the subordinates' achievable parts make a difference (Northouse, 2010). The four possible leadership directions for this style of leadership include supportive, directive, participative, and achievement-oriented leadership with an overall goal of clarifying objectives, removing roadblocks,

and rewarding positive outcomes (Northouse, 2010). Mirroring path-goal leadership and situational leadership, it makes sense that organizations, such as the military, focus energy on operational leadership.

In order to facilitate operational or path-goal leadership, a leader must understand the culture and any possible sub-cultures existing within the specific unit; research points toward the management and manipulation of culture in order to survive (Yardley & Neal, 2007). Cameron and Quinn in *Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Cultures – Based on the Competing Values Framework* studied the corporations forming the Fortune 500 since the early 1900s and concluded that the 46% of companies departing was primarily due to their inability to manage organizational culture effectively. The point here is not to discuss the points necessary to control culture, but to provide this point as a backdrop to the difficulties encountered by leaders in short duration tours of duty. Culture requires a deep understanding of the inner thinking of the group, the language, actions, motivating techniques, interdepartmental communication, and intradepartmental boundaries (Schein, 2010; Dunn, Dastoor, & Sims, 2012; Yardley & Neal, 2007).

### **Transactional Leadership**

Transactional leadership gets its standing in the military structure primarily due to its managerial focus. The transactional leadership style is arguably the easiest of the leadership styles to follow. The leader needs only discover or understand his or her power as it relates to rewards and punishment in relation to the effect they have on the subordinate (Deluga, 1990; (Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; Ruggieri, 2009). The military rank structure works well because a leader receives absolute power due to his or her position (Cutler, 2009; Secretary of the Navy, 1990). The junior

personnel or subordinates must follow orders; doing well will yield rewards, while poor performance provides for punishment afforded by the Uniform Code of Military Justice (Office of the Judge Advocate General, 2012).

Another interesting fact that distinguishes transactional leadership is that a desire to change is not a prerequisite (Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; Northouse, 2010). The limited capacity of this style makes accomplishing various tasks, especially at the lower ranks, straightforward (Black, 2006). For example, if maintenance is due on a certain piece of equipment, then the leader must simply delegate completion of that maintenance item on a competent subordinate. The maintenance item is the same regardless of the situation, regardless of the mission, regardless of the goals or values of the team. The subordinate just follows the written procedure. If he or she completes it early, then she receives time off. Failure by the worker, on the other hand, results in receiving the perceived punishment of staying late. The considerable power exhibited by the leader makes this possible and allows for exception management (Bass, 1981).

The almost obvious advantage of this leadership theory is the simplicity. A secondary advantage extending from simplicity is the ease of sharing the leadership philosophy (Black, 2006). For example, a junior person appointed to a given position simply needs to know that he or she now wields power over subordinates. The disadvantage, especially as compared to transformational leadership is the ineffectiveness and inefficiency. According to a recent study by Ruggieri (2009), “on the whole, the presence of a transformational leader guarantees better results in terms of efficiency in groups, even though situations were found in which transactional leadership can be positively associated with work outcomes” (p. 1018).

### **Leader Member Exchange**

Directly extending from the transactional leadership approach is the leader member exchange theory. A subtle but significant difference between transactional leadership theory and leader member exchange theory is that transactional leadership focuses, much like the other theories, on the power relationship that exists between the leader and the subordinate in order to gain an output; whereas, leader member exchange focuses on the interactions between the leader and the subordinate (Truckenbrodt, 2000; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). A shared attribute with other leadership theories, specifically the path-goal theory, is that the theory rests on idea of increasing motivation of the subordinate (Northouse, 2010). In general terms, the theory states the better the relationship the better the output of the subordinate; similarly, the higher the satisfaction, the higher the output (Northouse, 2010; Volmer, Niessen, Spurk, Linz, & Abele, 2011).

Dansereau, Graen, and Hage (1975) brought about the first thought of leader-member exchange theory. Their description focused on two distinct groups of people. The in-group were members who volunteered for assignments, enthusiastically accepted tasks, and built relationships with the leader. The second group, the out-group, were just the opposite. Relationships suffered, and they often times do not attempt to breakout of their chosen arena of responsibilities. As an exchange for their hard work and relationship status, the in-group often received opportunities to advance and received rewards exceeding that of their counterparts, the out-group.

Based on the research of Volmer et al., (2011), a high quality relationship between the leader and subordinate is crucial for high-quality performance (Bass, 1990). In a military context, this leader-subordinate relationship is crucial. As stated earlier,

small teams and close relationships are hallmarks of military units. One of the fascinating aspects of serving on submarines is that it is one of the only work places in which it is almost impossible to not have an emotional connection with everyone serving aboard (Juergens, 2010). Submarine crews generally stretch between 130 and 150 men and women, while the submarine is only between approximately 300 to 500 feet long. Leaders and subordinates not only interact professionally everyday, they also live together. They also eat, do laundry, exercise, clean, and spend spare time together for up to six months or more at a time. A good challenge would be to find any organization that is closer to one another. On the other hand, problems or ill-feelings can also linger for long periods of time as well, which anyone with siblings will truly understand. Submarine life really is a family environment (Juergens, 2010; Marquet, 2012).

### **Transformational Leadership**

Transformational leadership extends the relationship or interactions between leaders and followers. Transformational leadership attains superior performance through motivating the follower through charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass (1990) defines transformational leadership:

Transformational leadership occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their employees to look beyond their self-interest for the good of the group (p. 20).

In this light, the transformational leadership model focuses on the emotions, values, ethics, standards, and goals while meeting the needs of the individuals. Kouzes and Posner (2007) frame a transformational leadership model consisting of five fundamental

practices that enable followers to excel: “model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart” (p. 14).

Using a military perspective, each of the five fundamental practices has specific value toward mission accomplishment and subordinate development (Black, 2006; Halpin, 2011). Model the way demonstrates the leader’s ability to set the example. Not unlike other organizations, a military leader develops trust and admiration of his or her subordinates by not only working hard, but by inspiring others with his or her actions (Black, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Inspiring a shared vision requires military leaders to breakdown the goals of the Chief of Naval Operations or the submarine Atlantic and Pacific commanders to a level that represents the work that each individual performs (Lindsey, Day, & Haplin, 2011). The average sailor on a submarine is not going to represent a forward presence, but he or she does work to keep the ship operationally ready to deploy (COMSUBFOR, 1958). Developing a working vision with subordinates the responsibility of the leader. All active leaders must challenge the system; he or she must look to challenge the unnecessary, seek the advantageous, and explore opportunities to excel. Leaders are honor bound to develop their subordinates (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Subordinates that are ready and willing to accept that next level of responsibility are ready to act at the present level. Finally, the Navy, along with the other military branches, holds a credo close to heart. A vital job of a naval officer’s is to inspire honor, courage, and commitment each and every day (Center for Personal and Professional Development, 2013; Mack, McComas, & Seymour, 1998). Leaders must care and develop their subordinates in every aspect of military life (Bering, 2011; Lieutenant Colonel Cojocar, 2011)

Bass (1994), Kouzes and Posner (2007), and Sashkin (1988) all found through empirical research that transformational leadership created a sense of identity in the subordinate, brought about deep emotional attachment to the leader, and, among others, gave a sense of purpose, demonstrated through mission accomplishment, to followers. Although a valid and appropriate method of leadership in military arenas, it requires a special leader with a sense of devotion to the command and the subordinates under his or her authority (Black, 2006).

### **Servant Leadership**

In her doctoral dissertation, Patterson (2003) presented the theory of servant leadership as a natural extension of the Transformational Leadership Theory. Transformational leadership, she argued, focused on the shared value and encouraged the natural development of the individual. This practice is a practice of servant leadership, defining servant leaders as “those leaders who lead an organization by focusing on their followers, such that the followers are the primary concern and the organizational concerns are peripheral” (Patterson, 2003, p. 5). Building on this servant-first notion of leadership, Laub (1999), Stone et al. (2004), and Matteson and Irving (2005, 2006) all argued that the focus of a leader exercising a servant leadership style is to serve which is best for his or her particular follower or employee. As observed by Laub (2005) “Servant leadership is an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader” (p. 160). These slight variances in leadership, as noted by Stone et al. (2005), is the difference between servant and transformational leadership. They argued, “While transformational leadership tends to be focused on an organizational vision (what is best for the organization), servant leadership is focused

foremost on that which is best for the followers.”

The servant leadership approach has many positive qualities. Servant leadership emphasized the following characteristics: humbleness, retention focused, positive focused, humanize subordinates, exhibit trust and credibility, place society above self, listen with open-mindedness, and maintain good relationships through empathy (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 1994; Spears & Lawrence, 2004). “Who is the servant-leader?” Greenleaf provided his now frequently quoted response:

The servant-leader *is* servant first. . . . It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve *first*. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is *leader* first. . . . The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant-first to make sure that other people’s highest priority needs are being served. The best test, and difficult to administer, is this: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, *while being served*, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? *And*, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or, at least, not be further deprived? (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 27)

The remaining question is whether servant leadership effects commitment. A positive relationship may provide the pieces to the puzzle that allow for solving the Military Commitment Challenge.

### **Commitment**

Organizational commitment has an important part in the health of any organization or team. Recent commitment research dealt with employee commitment to the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997). The research attempt to provide definitions

and guidance by adopting a one-dimensional conceptual framework (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnystky, 2001). During the 1980s, most defined and measured commitment based on Porter, Mowday, and Steers (1979), “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982, p. 27). Criticisms of this definition and of the organizational questionnaire were that they were too broad because they valued attitude and behavior of the individual (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996, p. 257).

Another definition by Bateman and Strasser operationally defined commitment as “multidimensional in nature, involving an employee’s loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value congruency with the organization, and desire to maintain membership” (Bateman & Strasser, 1984, p. 95). This definition, although thirty years old, more closely meets the military model; it describes the willingness of an individual to do more because of a value system. Based on these two definitions alone, the three types of commitment described as normative, affective, and continuance come to life (Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 225).

Each commitment area has its own merit, and each fits within the military framework. Normative and affective commitment are more concerned with the individual feeling a need to participate and support an organization based on meeting common values and goals; whereas, continuance commitment is concerned more with the pay aspects (Cook & Morrison, 1983; Cook & Morrison, 1982). At present, the Three Component Model is seen as the dominant model in organizational commitment (Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, & Stinglhamber, 2005; Cohen, 2003; Greenberg &

Baron, 2003).

Although the definition is not the important aspect, it is important to understand why one stays with one organization when other options present themselves. The Navy emphasizes values. The previously stated creed of honor, courage, commitment promotes a value system. Fortunately, the Navy does not provide a definition, nor does it argue over the semantics. Every member has the responsibility to establish his or her own definitions to each of the parts (Leahy, 2002). It is simple enough to state that options exist; commitment requires staying with it, whatever it is. The real question is, “How does the leadership instill commitment within the military framework?” How does one form a bond, when there is a social, economic, and legal separation between leader and follower as there is in the military?

### **Affective Commitment**

According to Meyer and Allen (1984), affective commitment is the employee’s “positive feelings of identification with, attachment, and involvement in, the work organization” (p. 375). In other words, employees build expectations by fulfilling their expectations and meeting their needs within the confines of the organization (Bagraim, 2010). These statements give rise to the employee’s desire to “want to stay” with the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) provide three separate components to affective commitment: emotional attachment to the organization, identification with the organization, and involvement in the organization. To date, there is sufficient empirical evidence to state that affective commitment predicts employee performance, organizational citizenship, and turnover (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Organ

& Ryan, 1995).

Employee performance is seen in an employee's involvement in the organization's goals (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Meyer and Allen (1997) continue by arguing that work experiences such as organizational rewards, procedures, and supervisor support are directly contributed to affective commitment. This supervisory involvement in the lives of subordinates creates a give and take relationship; "On the basis of reciprocity norm, perceived organizational support creates a felt obligation to care about the organization's welfare and help the organization reach its objectives" (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001, p. 825). Employees sense indebtedness through greater affective commitment and increased efforts to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Mowday et al., 1982).

Organizational citizenship behaviors refer to the extra role displayed by an employee. These employees exhibit individual behaviors that are "discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). These behaviors are, simplistically put, the unwritten and unmonitored interrelationships among peers and managers. According to Rhoades et al. (2001), the perception of support encourages an employee's concern with organizational goals, increases organizational membership, and status as a social identity. The reciprocity relationship between the leaders' caring about the employee's contribution to the organization and the employee's desire to stay with the organization increases esteem, affiliation, and emotional well-being (Armeli et al., 1998). Organizational citizenship directly relates to normative behavior patterns of employees in order to avoid the stigma associated with lackluster

performance, or conflict within the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Employee turnover, or more appropriately employee turnover intentions, are directly related to affective commitment. According to Bluedorn (1982) and DeCotiis & Summers (1976), of the various outcomes of affective commitment reduced, voluntary employee turnover has been the strongest and most consistent outcome. Voluntary turnover is important because to date perceived organizational support had been found linked to turnover intentions, but not actual turnover (Allen et al., 1999; Wayne et al., 1997). Turnover intention is the deliberate decision to quit, not necessarily the act (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Since the basis of actual turnover is tied to unrelated issues; it is difficult to accurately measure (Carsten & Spector, 1987). However, Griffith, Hom, and Gaertner (2001) confirmed the relationship between low affective commitment and intent to leave an organization.

### **Continuance Commitment**

DuBois and Associates (1997) have argued that organizational commitment is the highest contributor toward success. In their words, “our research suggests that at least 80 per cent of an organization’s employees at all levels must be committed to it, for it to succeed in its total quality, re-engineering or work reorganization efforts” (p. 1). Using the same sentiment, Lawrence (1958) argued that successful organizations seek complete commitment from all of the employees, top to bottom. In this context, Bhuian and Shahidulislam (1996) called for developing hiring, training, and incentive programs to increase the level of employees’ continuance commitment. They concluded that employee programs designed to enhance the lives of the employees made leaving the organization to costly and reduced turnover intentions of all employees.

Continuance commitment describes an individual's connection with an organization due to his or her need to remain based on an evaluation of the opportunity costs of leaving (Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1991). According to the two-way social exchange theory, continuance commitment is based on a calculation of the costs involved in leaving the organization. In an organization where the employer is separate from the leadership, such as in the military, the interrelations between the two entities must be taken into account. If employees perceive a connection between the paying organization and the supervisors, they are less likely to develop feelings of reluctance to continue to work with the organization. From a supervisor perspective, "[When] employees perceive higher job security and greater satisfaction with jobs in general, the level of their continuance commitment will be higher. This relationship can be useful because enhancing job security and creating a positive work environment could be economical decisions of firms in terms of reducing costs associated with losing employees (Bhuiyan and Shahidulislam, 1996, p. 7).

According to some recent research, continuance commitment has a larger effect on junior personnel with a smaller experience base and with less educational background. Mowday et al. (1982) found the education level of the employer negatively related to continuance commitment. His argument extends from the general idea that the higher the education level the higher the expectations and the less likely an organization is to overcome the cost benefit of leaving. However, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) argued that the higher the education level and experience level of an employee the more likely he or she is to receive prestige from their position. This factor, along with pay benefits, actually increases continuance commitment. Harris et al. (2001) agreed; he stated that

employees in high positions in an organization tend to value the mission and purpose of the organization. More importantly, the commonality between the studies mentioned in this section cannot be overlooked; if an employee perceives the combined tangible and nontangible cost benefits of staying exceeds the benefit of leaving, then he or she stays.

### **Normative Commitment**

Normative commitment “reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment”. Individuals with high levels of normative commitment stay with an organization because they feel it is the “morally right” thing to do for the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). Although normative commitment is widely recognized as a relevant aspect of employee commitment, it has been found to directly follow affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Morrow, 1993). Specifically, research has found no significant difference between the effects of affective and normative commitment on organizational outcomes (Felfe et al., 2008).

Normative commitment is the commitment that a person believes that they have to remain with the organization due to a sense of obligation (Bolon, 1993). Others have argued that normative commitment comes from a sense of duty or loyalty to the organization or the values held within the organization (Weiner, 1982). Meyer and Allen (1991) go one step further and connect normative commitment with norms of society; in other words, they refer to a person’s culture and social norms as a precursor to commitment. Considering the core values (honor, courage, commitment) of the Navy, it only seems appropriate to argue that normative commitment would remain relatively high within naval personnel. Of course, according to research, the members would have to truly hold those values within themselves (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993).

### **The Commitment Challenge**

Officer manpower management is concerned with meeting military requirements for the nation's citizens (Kirby & Thie, 1998, p. 567). Kirby and Thie argue that manpower management really comes down to pure economics. Meeting these obligations means the military must meet their needs of experience, training, and manpower in order to achieve mission accomplishment at an acceptable cost. Between the years of 1958 to 1994, the experience rate grew as the percentage of E-5 to E-9 increased steadily while the influx of new personnel was relatively constant (Kirby & Thie, 1998, p. 580).

However, over the past 15 years, military downsizing has frequently sat on the headlines as the number of experience petty officers in the navy, E-5 to E-9, has steadily declined (Navy Personnel Research, Studies and Technology, 2005). This decline has placed the military in a perilous position where retention of the highly qualified members is mandatory. The same phenomenon occurs in the officer ranks as well as the other military branches. In fiscal year 2004, the Navy Manpower agency reported that the Army and Marine Corps achieved its enlistment goals, whereas the Navy continued to exceed its required quota and must continue to downsize. A smaller percentage of personnel entering military service directly correlate to less members staying, meaning a smaller experience base is in the future. If for no other reason, leadership must analyze the action it takes to attract and hold high performance members (Greenert, 2011).

### **Summary**

There is simply no shortage of leadership theory available to confuse the average leader. In the end, it is up to the leaders to understand their particular strengths and

weaknesses in order to pursue the appropriate leadership style given the current situation facing the organization. Again, as stated in the introduction, the purpose here is not to sell a particular style of leadership for everyday use. Instead, the literature review is used to demonstrate the various styles available in order to set the stage for analyzing the effects of a Servant Leadership on a pressing issue, commitment in the military.

Regardless of the evidence presented, some will always argue the value of one style over another, but no one can argue the value of relationships and emotional knowledge of every member of a leader's follower base. Leaders must always remember that it is the team that accomplishes missions. Completion of tasks comes by the development and initiative of individuals, and it those very individuals that must remain committed to the completion of the mission.

On the other hand, commitment appears to follow leadership attributes. Meyer and Allen (1991) provided the three component model of commitment. By showing various commitment constructs, they have indirectly shown ways in which leadership can affect commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) demonstrate commitment as a joined union of the three antecedents, not as independent thoughts or feelings. Different members of the same community can perceive leadership in different ways. The same can be said for commitment. Members of organizations can hold different levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment at various points in carrying out the tasks associated with the organization. With these two leadership concepts in mind, it is important to understand whether or not there is a relationship between leadership style and commitment in the military, in this case, servant leadership.

### **Chapter 3: Methodology**

This research was quantitative in nature. The general flow path included providing surveys that examined characteristics of two different leadership concepts in order to examine if a relationship existed. Specifically, junior officers completed surveys that measured their commitment level to the submarine force and measured the servant leadership of their commanding officers and their command teams. The design of the research restricted the population of junior officers to those attending the Submarine Officer Advanced Course in New London, Connecticut between October 2012 and May 2013. This collection of officers included six separate classes of students.

Previous research revealed that a statistically significant correlation existed between the leader's servant leadership style of leadership and the follower's affective and normative organizational leadership. The previous research also revealed that no statistically significant relationship existed between the leader's servant leadership style and the follower's continuance commitment (Rimes, 2011). Rimes' study involved a relationship between the pastors of 37 Southern Baptist churches and their staff. Although this study is similar in design, it significantly diverges because the participants and application of leadership involves military officers and the submarine community.

This chapter describes the research design and methodology of the study. The first section provides the research questions and the research design in achieving results. The second section explores the population and the sample. The third section describes the instruments. The fourth section outlines the procedures used to select the participants, administer the instruments, and collect the data.

**Purpose of Study**

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between submarine junior officer commitment and the experienced servant leadership of the commanding officer and command team. No previous servant leadership or commitment study has been completed in the submarine community. Whether or not a relationship exists between these two areas is unknown.

**Research Questions**

The researcher's purpose of study was to examine if any relationship exists between servant leadership and organizational commitment. Specifically, the study examined the effect of servant leadership displayed by the commanding officer on junior officer commitment, and the effect of the servant leadership of the command triad on junior officer commitment. Finally, the study examined if there was a statistically significant difference between the servant leadership of the commanding officer and the command triad on the commitment of junior officers. To examine the problem statement, the following research questions and hypotheses formed the foundation of study.

Examination of Research Questions one through seven was via statistical methods.

1. Does the commanding officer's servant leadership style have an effect on the affective commitment level of the junior officers?

Hypothesis 1a: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's altruistic calling and junior officer affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1b: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's emotional healing and junior officer affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1c: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's knowledge and junior officer affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1d: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's persuasive mapping and junior officer affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1e: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's organizational stewardship and junior officer affective commitment.

2. Does the commanding officer's servant leadership style have an effect on the continuance commitment level of the junior officers?

Hypothesis 2a: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's altruistic calling and junior officer continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 2b: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's emotional healing and junior officer continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 2c: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's knowledge and junior officer continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 2d: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's persuasive mapping and junior officer continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 2e: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's organizational stewardship and junior officer continuance commitment.

3. Does the commanding officer's servant leadership style have an effect on the normative commitment level of the junior officers?

Hypothesis 3a: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's altruistic calling and junior officer normative commitment.

Hypothesis 3b: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's emotional healing and junior officer normative commitment

Hypothesis 3c: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's knowledge and junior officer normative commitment.

Hypothesis 3d: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's persuasive mapping and junior officer normative commitment.

Hypothesis 3e: There is no significant statistical relationship between the commanding officer's organizational stewardship and junior officer normative commitment.

4. Does the command triad's servant leadership style have an effect on the affective commitment level of junior officers?

Hypothesis 4a: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's altruistic calling and junior officer affective commitment.

Hypothesis 4b: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's emotional healing and junior officer affective commitment.

Hypothesis 4c: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's knowledge and junior officer affective commitment.

Hypothesis 4d: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's persuasive mapping and junior officer affective commitment.

Hypothesis 4e: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's organizational stewardship and junior officer affective commitment.

5. Does the command triad's servant leadership style have an effect on the continuance commitment level of the junior officers?

Hypothesis 5a: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's altruistic calling and junior officer continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 5b: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's emotional healing and junior officer continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 5c: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's knowledge and junior officer continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 5d: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's persuasive mapping and junior officer continuance commitment.

Hypothesis 5e: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's organizational stewardship and junior officer continuance commitment.

6. Does the command triad's servant leadership style have an effect on the normative commitment level of the junior officers?

Hypothesis 6a: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's altruistic calling and junior officer normative commitment.

Hypothesis 6b: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's emotional healing and junior officer normative commitment

Hypothesis 6c: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's knowledge and junior officer normative commitment.

Hypothesis 6d: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's persuasive mapping and junior officer normative commitment.

Hypothesis 6e: There is no significant statistical relationship between the command triad's organizational stewardship and junior officer normative commitment.

The last research question serves the purpose of determining if there is a difference between the perceived command style and the actual command leadership style.

Utilization of the Servant Leadership Questionnaire is to determine if junior personnel consider the command practices servant leadership or not. The commitment level of each individual will come from Meyer and Allen's 18-item Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey (2004). The survey will measure organizational commitment on the scale consisting of affective, normative, and continuance.

7. Is there a difference between the effect of servant leadership effects on junior officers by the command triad and the commanding officer alone?

Null hypothesis: There is no significant statistical difference between the effects of servant leadership on commitment of junior officers.

The significance of this research question is to examine whether servant leadership goes beyond the impact of one person. This research question examines the relationship between junior officers and the command as a unit as opposed to different entities. Meaning, as long as one member demonstrates effective servant leadership, then the tenets of servant leadership are achievable.

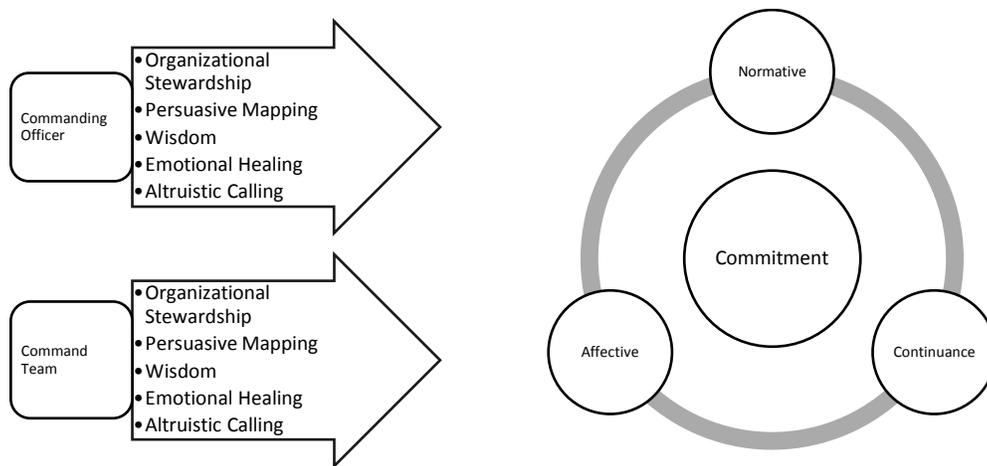
### **Research Question Connection**

Greenleaf (1971) detailed servant leadership as a multi-faceted relationship between leaders and followers in which the leader serves the needs of the individual such that their lives were made better. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) developed the SLQ to measure servant leadership in five areas, including altruistic calling, emotional healing,

wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship. Junior officers completed a SLQ for both their commanding officer and the command triad of their previous submarine. Additionally, the junior officers completed the three-component model surveys (Meyer & Allen, 2004), rating their own commitment level at the time of signing their last contract. Although each survey was scored independently, the goal was to conduct a statistical correlation technique to look for relationships.

Figure 1, below, is a graphical representation of the researched relationship between servant leadership and commitment. The left-hand side of Figure 1 represents the servant leadership effect on commitment.

Figure 1 (Servant Leadership - Commitment Relationship)



### Instruments

This research involved two distinct instruments for measuring servant leadership and commitment. Meyer and Allen's 18-item Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey (2004) evaluated the commitment of the junior officers in three areas: continuance, normative, and affective. This well-established questionnaire is both valid and reliable. The research also utilized the Servant Leadership Questionnaire (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006). They proposed a conceptualization of the ten

characteristics of servant leaders derived by Spears (1995). The questionnaire also includes an eleventh construct of calling, referring to the overall desire to serve others. The last dimension was also identified in research by Greenleaf (1970) and (Akuchie, 1993; Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1990; Graham, 1991; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). The Servant Leadership Questionnaire determines the servant leadership perception on followers in five areas: altruistic calling, emotional healing, knowledge or wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship. Permission was obtained to use both survey instruments (Appendix A and B). These two instruments provide the basis for statistical analysis of research questions one through six. Statistical analysis between research questions one through three and between four through six will provide insight in research question seven. Additionally, a demographic survey administered to each participant obtained the following: gender, age range, highest education level obtained, number of submarine commands, commitment orientation, and commitment level to the Navy vice submarines.

### **Servant Leadership Questionnaire**

Greenleaf (1977) introduced the basic morals of servant leadership; although he did not provide a conceptual definition of servant leadership, he stated that going beyond one's own interest was the core characteristic. Several scholars, since the original work by Greenleaf, have created multi-dimensional servant leadership concepts. Spears (1995) uncovered ten characteristics and essential elements: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment, and building community. Laub (1999) broke servant leadership down into six conceptual contexts: personal development, valuing people, building community, displaying

authenticity, providing leadership, and sharing leadership. Russell and Stone (2002) researched nine characteristics: vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation, and empowerment. More recently, Patterson (2003) summarized Spears' work into seven categories: agapao love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, and service.

Noting that servant leadership contains several dimensions and a wide range of behavior, multiple tools were developed to accurately measure a leader's use of servant leadership. The Organizational Leadership Assessment (Laub, 1999) was developed to assess the overall health of an organization based on six areas of effective organizational leadership. The Servant Leadership Profile (Page and Wong, 2000) provided a conceptual framework for measuring leadership characteristics. Dennis and Borcarnea (2005) developed the Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument based on Patterson's seven dimensions of servant leadership for conducting a self-assessment. Finally, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) devised the Servant Leadership Questionnaire for measuring organizational and leader individualities based in part on Spears ten servant leadership characteristics.

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) clarified the servant leadership construct and validated a measure using empirical analysis, factor analysis, selective criterion, criterion validity, and predictive behavior (Hayden, 2011). The reliable measures stimulated subsequent research in servant leadership (Liden et al., 2008; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008; Searle & Barbuto, 2011; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). The Servant Leadership Questionnaire (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006) consists of 23 questions with a 5-point Likert scale: (1) never, (2) rarely, (3) sometimes, (4) often, and

(5) always. The questionnaire is broken into two parts, one for self-assessment, and one for outside assessment. For this research, the outside assessment is pertinent. According to Barbuto and Wheeler (2006), the questionnaire yields an internal alpha between .82 and .92.

### **Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model**

“Meyer and Allen (1991) conducted a comprehensive review of the organizational commitment literature. They determined that an employee simultaneously experiences commitments to the organization that are based on emotional attachment (affective commitment), a feeling of obligation to the organization (normative commitment and perceptions that the costs of leaving the organization are prohibitively high (continuance commitment). Meyer and Allen suggested that researchers could better understand an employee's relationship with an organization by analyzing all three components simultaneously” (Jaros, 1995). The original organizational commitment scale consisted of 24 items measured on a Likert-scale ranging from strongly agrees to strongly disagree. The survey was later shortened to six items for each of the three dimensions of commitment. For each of the three items measured, there are six specific measurement components. Previous research reports an acceptable range of internal reliability coefficients for affective approximately equal ( $\alpha = .85$ ), continuance ( $\alpha = .79$ ), and normative ( $\alpha = .73$ ) commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Cohen, 1996, 1999; Hackett, Meyer, Irving, & Allen, 1998; Somers & Birnbaum, 1998).

### **Validity, Reliability & Objectivity**

This study built on the simple concept that a leader-follower relationship exists between the command triad and the junior officers within the command. In addition to

this relationship and based on the close quarters, a personal relationship existed as well. This leadership role puts the command master chief, the executive officer, and commanding officer in a position to change the commitment level of the junior officers.

### **Correlation Matrix and Scoring**

The correlation matrixes, Table 1, highlight the correlation study conducted. First, the junior officers provided a self-reported commitment survey, and then completed SLQ surveys for their last commanding officer and command triad. The individual scores for each of the subgroups in the SLQ and TCM, although important for managers and leaders of organizations, were not utilized in the study. Instead, the subgroup scores as they relate to the specific construct was analyzed. More specifically, the constructs were compared against each other. Table 1 shows the relationship analysis that was conducted. First, commanding officer's characteristics as they relate to servant leadership was compared against the three levels of commitment of junior officers. Second, the same analysis was conducted using the command team's servant leadership characteristics.

Tables 2 and 3, below, show the questions used from the SLQ and the TCM used in developing the constructs used in Table 1. The questions were randomly provided to the participants and then placed back in order prior to scoring. The SLQ did not contain any reverse scoring; meaning, an "Agree" or "Strongly Agree" resulted in a perceived servant leadership characteristic. The TCM contained four reversed scored questions. On this particular questions, an "Agree" or "Strongly Agree" result actually eluded to relatively low levels of commitment.

**Population and Sample**

The population is the United States Navy, which is a subset of the armed forces as a whole. To ensure information was readily available as well researcher’s general understanding and firsthand knowledge, the Navy was selected from the four general branches, specifically submarine commands. Based on location and familiarity, the population sample was limited to the students at the Submarine Officer Advance Course in New London, Connecticut.

The sample included 73 out of 92 junior officers enrolled in the Submarine Officer Advanced Course. Based on published nominal length of tours by the Naval Personnel Command (junior officers – 36 months, executive officers – 22-26 months, commanding officers – 36 months, and command master chiefs – 36 months), this study included over 160 commanding officers and over 400 command triad combinations. From a submarine command perspective, the study encompassed 62 of the 79 different at-sea submarine commands.

Table 1(Correlation Matrix)

<b>Commitment</b>				
<b>Servant Leadership</b>	<b>Commanding Officer / Command Team</b>	Affective	Continuance	Normative
	Altruistic Calling			
	Emotional Healing			
	Knowledge			
	Persuasive Mapping			
	Organizational Stewardship			

Table 2 (Servant Leadership Questions)

Construct	Leader	Questions
Altruistic Calling	Commanding Officer	Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4
	Command Team	Q24, Q25, Q26, Q27
Emotional Healing	Commanding Officer	Q5, Q6, Q7, Q8
	Command Team	Q28, Q29, Q30, Q31
Wisdom	Commanding Officer	Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12, Q13
	Command Team	Q32, Q33, Q34, Q35, Q36
Persuasive Mapping	Commanding Officer	Q14, Q15, Q16, Q17, Q18
	Command Team	Q37, Q38, Q39, Q40, Q41
Organizational	Commanding Officer	Q19, Q20, Q21, Q22, Q23
Stewardship	Command Team	Q42, Q43, Q44, Q45, Q46

Table 3 (TCM Survey Questions)

Construct	Questions
Affective Commitment	Q47, Q48, Q49(R), Q50(R), Q51(R), Q52
Continuance Commitment	Q53, Q54, Q55, Q56, Q57, Q58
Normative Commitment	Q59(R), Q60, Q61, Q62, Q63, Q64

((R) Refers to reverse scoring)

### Permissions

Permission was obtained to use both surveys. The researcher contacted Dr. Barbuto, Dr. Meyer, and Dr. Allen via email. Dr. Meyer responded back via email with written permission to use the TCM in its entirety for the purpose of academic research

(Appendix A). Dr. Barbuto responded back via email and directed the researcher to the publisher's website in which permission was automatically granted for all academic work (Appendix B).

### **Research Method and Data Collection**

The basic research offered two well-established surveys to the members of the Submarine Officer Advance Course. Correlation coefficients were used to examine the relationships of each of the categories contained within the research group. The method of research entailed selection of participants from within a given population, selection of appropriate instruments, data capture, and statistical analysis.

Two SLQ and the TCM surveys (Appendix C, D, and E) were typed in SurveyGizmo. One of the SLQ surveys specifically examined the perceived servant leadership characteristics of the command team; the other SLQ survey was specifically aimed toward the commanding officer of the same command. The TCM survey was used to examine the feelings of the participant at the time of his or her contract signing. Slight modifications were necessary to ensure that the participants answered the questions as they pertain to the submarine force and not their present command. The modification only included replacing "organization" with "last submarine" and added the words "at the time of signing your contract" at the beginning of the questions. According to Stephen Jaros (2007), slight modifications of the wording in the TCM questionnaire that provide instructions as to the definition of "Organization" and job assignment do not hinder the output of the questionnaire. No other modifications to the instruments occurred. Similarly, modifications describing the participant's organization had no effect on the overall results of the SLQ (Melchar & Bosco, 2010).

The surveys were entered in the SurveyGizmo Internet based data collection tool. A pilot study was administered to a sample of students in one of the classes at SOAC. This pilot study included feedback on the surveys, the questions format, the layout, and the time required of each participant. The pilot study revealed that all questions were easily understood. Additionally, each of the pilot participants felt it was relatively easy to navigate through the surveys. They offered suggestions concerning the page layout of the questions on the surveys and randomization. To help ensure that each participant could only take the survey one time, each IP address was collected and the option prevented multiple logins from the same IP address. To keep track of the number of participants from each class, a separate password and login was provided to each class. Additionally, the questions, along with the specific pages, were randomized. Other than being informed that they were taking leadership based questionnaires, the participants were unaware of the basis of the questions. No specific information, such as name or command information was collected. To ensure open and honest answers, the participants were ensured that the surveys were completely anonymous.

The participants were given specific instructions on the location of the surveys, the password, and expectations of the amount of effort required (Appendix E). The researcher approached two classes and answered questions of each participant. Two days after the initial contact, a follow-up visit was made in an attempt to increase participation. Initial participation was 17%. Due to the poor participation, the researcher provided printed surveys to the remaining classes. By keeping track of the number of participants in each class, along with separate passwords and logins, the researcher was able to prevent personnel from taking multiple surveys. Total participation, combining the two

methods, was 79%. Each volunteer fully answered the two Servant Leadership Questionnaires, one for the commanding officer and one for the command triad, and the Three-Component Model Organizational Commitment survey. Additionally, each volunteer provided answers to each of the demographic questions (Appendix F). The answers to the questions were downloaded in SPSS and Microsoft Excel formats for scoring and data analysis.

### **Analysis of Data**

This researcher used SPSS software in order to examine research questions one through seven. The additional demographics, added by the questionnaires yielded various combinations and variables; the demographics data was used to validate and add meaningful follow-on information. However, in general, the Servant Leadership Questionnaire yielded two or more groups, those who experienced servant leadership on their first commands, those who did not, and a mixed group who experienced some characteristics of servant leadership (independent variable). Following collection and segregation of groups, performance of a statistical comparison in each area of the TCM (dependent variable) occurred.

### **Statistics**

This quantitative study used statistics to test and evaluate hypotheses. The primary concern was to determine if there is a statistical relationship between the command triad leadership and junior officer commitment and between the commanding officer and junior officers. A secondary question was to determine if a statistical difference between the two groups existed. All analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel.

The research was a correlation study between the results of three Likert-type scales. A Pearson  $r$  correlation was used to compare the relationships between those exposed to one or more of the five components associated with the Servant Leadership Questionnaire and the Three-Component Model of commitment. After obtaining the Pearson  $r$  results for the commanding officer's servant leadership characteristics and the command team's servant leadership characteristics, Steiger's  $Z$  statistical technique was used to analyze for significant differences between the two groups. A statistics consultant provided assistance in obtaining the correct tests and to verify the correct tests were conducted.

### **Time Schedule**

This study began in mid-February 2013. Direct contact with the participants occurred during the same period. The personal contact served two purposes. One, educate the participants on the purpose and significance of the study by providing a synopsis of the study detailing administration, measurement tools, and expectations of the commands. Two, the meeting provided an opportunity for an initial assessment of the general climate and the amount of support the participants are willing to make available. As an additional benefit, meeting with the participants allowed the researcher to ensure each of them that complete privacy was strictly followed. This procedural step was important because the participants were being asked to provide input as to the leadership abilities of previous commanders. Some may have found this difficult to accomplish without assurance that there was no possibility of reprisal.

Over the next month, permission was obtained to use the surveys, permission was obtained from the dissertation to committee to conduct the study. During this period, the

surveys were entered into SurveyGizmo. After carefully entering the data, five students from one of the classes were given the opportunity to review the questions and the layout of the surveys. The questions were reworded to add “At the time of signing your last contract” and replaced “Organization” with “Submarine Command” or “Navy” as appropriate. After completion of these changes, a statistics consultant was contacted to ensure the relationships could be determined based on the difference in scales, seven-point vice five-point Likert scales.

After changes to the surveys were made and at the command’s discretion, surveys were administered to the chosen recipients. Each participant had one week to complete the surveys. The surveys were confidentially stored on the SurveyGizmo secured server. After two-days, a second visit was made to four of the classes that had not participated, and the researcher provided printed-out versions of the surveys. All students remained and took the surveys. A three-person review process was used to ensure accuracy in entering the results into SurveyGizmo. The researcher entered the data, and two other non-participants reviewed the entry using a reader-worker technique. One person read the survey from the computer screen while another verified it matched the information on the printed form. No errors were found.

Data analysis and statistical comparisons commenced following the independent data review. This researcher downloaded the survey results into Microsoft Excel. The researcher then scored the results. Four questions on the TCM required reverse scoring because a “Strongly agree” actually corresponded to a lower level of commitment (1=7, 2=6, 3=5, 4=4, 5=3, 6=2, and 7=1). To ensure accuracy with reverse scoring, a second reviewer conducted a final review to correct any errors discovered by data entry. No

errors were discovered. Statistical analysis was conducted on the results.

### **Transferability**

This study serves the submarine community as well as the Navy as a whole. The Navy, as with any large organization, depends on maintaining a balance of experienced personnel. The results of this study will help current and future command triads, as well as other integral parts of the command organizational leadership team, lead a commitment-oriented team. However, these same people will not stay without a feeling of inclusion. The hardest jobs require top men and women to continue the fight; in an era when top companies are offering high salaries to those who have proven themselves, the submarine force needs leadership to equalize the opportunities offered elsewhere. Additionally, the results of this study, although pointed at submarines, are far reaching. The study is easily applicable to commercial organizations where the development and retention of quality personnel is a prime consideration. This study could possibly spark additional studies in the area of servant leadership and its effect on commitment and subsequent retention.

## **Chapter Four: Results**

This chapter provides the statistical results that describe the relationship between servant leadership of commanding officers and command teams on junior officer commitment levels in three areas: affective, continuance, and normative. The chapter is divided in three sections: population demographics, statistical analysis, and summary of findings.

Participants were asked to rate their perception of the servant leadership characteristics of commanding officer and command teams through use of SLQs. The participants were also asked to rate their own commitment level through use of the TCM survey. Specifically, the commanding officers and command teams were rated in five areas: altruistic calling, organizational stewardship, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and emotional healing. The TCM divided the participant commitment level in three areas: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The research question asked, “Does a relationship exist between servant leadership characteristics and commitment level of followers?” The research tested the theory that actions and perceived characteristics of leaders are vital in increasing follower commitment levels.

### **Data Collection**

Between March 25 and April 5, 2013 the participants completed confidential surveys. Twenty-five percent of the participants completed the surveys electronically; the other participants received and took paper surveys. The paper surveys were entered into the survey database and two independent volunteers verified the data entries.

Participation included current and past students of the Submarine Officer Advanced

Course in New London, Connecticut. A total of 91 students were provided the opportunity to complete surveys; a relatively high participation level of 80% was experienced.

### **Demographics**

Table 4 (Age of Participants)

Age	Frequency	Percentage
25-34	52	71.2
35-44	21	28.8
Total	73	100.0

Each participant was a Lieutenant in the U.S. Navy. By law, it takes 4 years of naval service, as an officer, to reach this rank. The first two years officers serve as Ensigns, followed by two years as a Lieutenant Junior Grade before receiving a promotion to the rank of Lieutenant. While not exclusive, those members over the age of 34 represent the members who had served in an enlisted role prior to receiving a commission as a permanent officer.

Table 5 (Years of Service)

Years of Service	Frequency	Percentage
5-8	28	38.4
9-12	30	41.1
12-15	9	12.3
15-20	4	5.5
20+	2	2.7
Total	73	100

The vast majority of participants had between 5 and 12 years of naval service. Approximately 20% of the participants had between 12 and 20 or more years of service. These numbers check with the results of Table 1, where 28% of members held enlisted roles prior to receiving a commission. Based on typical tours of duty and contractual obligations, 79% of the participants were on their second contracts with the remaining participants serving on their third or higher tours of duty. These results, along with age, demonstrate the general leadership experience base of the participants. Only six of the participants had considerable enlisted time with only two meeting the requirements to retire. In general terms, the longer a person has in the military, the less likely that person is to not sign a subsequent contract, regardless of their commitment level. However, those same people have decided to stay through multiple commands, commanding officers, types of duty, and social-economic states.

Table 6 (Education)

Highest Degree	Frequency	Total
Bachelor Degree	56	76.7
Graduate Degree	17	23.3
Total	73	100

All participants held either a Bachelor or Graduate degree. The commissioning method varied between Recruit Officer Training Commission (ROTC), Seaman to Admiral (STA-21), Limited Duty Officer Commission (LDO), Officer Commissioning School (OCS) and Naval Academy Graduates. There are no distinctions made following commission except that LDOs cannot take command of an at-sea command. With the exception of LDOs and Warrant Officers, all regular officers in the military are required

to possess a bachelor's degree. The expectation of submarine leadership is that all officers will obtain a graduate degree prior to taking a position as executive officer.

Table 7 (Career Influence)

Greatest Influence	Frequency	Percentage
Commanding Officer	21	28.8
Executive Officer	2	2.7
Command Master Chief	1	1.4
Family Member	10	13.7
Economy	17	23.3
Other (Personal Desire)	13	17.8
Friend/Colleague	9	12.3
Total	73	100

The participants were asked to identify the person or condition that had the greatest influence on their decision to stay in the Navy. The command triad was identified by 33% of the participants with 28% identifying one of their past commanding officers as the principle player. On the other hand, over 20% of the participants identified the economy as a principle reason for signing a new contract. This variance highlights the importance of the commanding officer in the decision-making of the junior officer. Although social-economic conditions cannot be ruled out, only 10 participants felt that they had too few options available to leave the Navy at the time they signed their contract (Question 47).

Table 8 (Influences on commitment)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Command (Navy)	1 1.3%	3 4.1%	13 17.8%	43 58.9%	9 12.3%
Captain (Navy)	2 2.7%	5 6.8%	9 12.3%	45 61.6%	8 10.9%
Command (Submarines)	1 1.3%	4 5.5%	7 9.6%	36 49.3%	22 30.1%
Captain (Submarines)	3 4.1%	3 4.1%	10 13.7%	33 45.2%	20 27.4%
Submarines over Navy	1 1.3%	1 1.3%	9 12.3%	26 35.6%	31 42.5%
Upward Mobility	7 9.6%	11 15.1%	15 20.5%	28 38.4%	8 10.9%

Table 8 highlights the importance of a leader's influence on a follower's commitment level. The participants were asked whether the commanding officer and command team had an influence on their general commitment level to the Navy and to submarines. According to the participants' answers, 73% agreed or strongly agreed that the commanding officer influenced their commitment; whereas, 70% agreed or strongly agreed that the command team influenced their commitment. There was no statistical evidence supporting the commanding officer as having a higher influence. However, 29% of the participants identified one of their commanding officers as having the highest influence on their decision to stay in the Navy; while, only 4.1% identified the executive officer or the command master chief as having the highest influence (Table 7). These tables highlight the variance in participant's reason for staying in the military. The tables also show that even though the participants may feel committed to the cause, values, mission, or people, the participants do not tie that commitment to staying in the military.

Finally, 78% of the participants identified themselves as having a higher commitment level to the submarine force rather than the Navy. However, only 49% of the participants stated that they agreed or strongly agreed that they would leave the military if they were no longer allowed to serve on submarines. Again, these percentages allude to the fact that a person's decision to stay in the military is not necessarily tied to commitment.

### **Reliability**

Reliability is an important component of any quantitative study. A researcher is unable to determine if errors exist within the instrument unless data analysis is conducted on the constructs or domains (Leedy & Ormond, 2013; Newton & Rudestam, 1999; Patten, 2009). The most widely accepted test for internal consistency is Cronbach's Alpha (Zinbarg, Yovel, Revelle, & McDonald, 2006). Cronbach's alpha is commonly used as an estimate of the reliability of a psychometric test for a sample of participants. Cronbach's alpha will increase as the inter-correlations among test items increase, and is therefore accepted as an internal consistency estimate of reliability of survey or test scores. Cronbach's alpha is assumed to indicate the relative degree to which a set of test questions measure a single domain because inter-correlations among test items are maximized when all items measure the same construct (Cortina, 1993; Revelle, 1979; Zinbarg, Yovel, Revelle, & McDonald, 2006). The generally accepted reliability margin in Cronbach's Alpha is 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). As a measure of comparison, 0.6 is considered poor, 0.7 is acceptable, 0.8 is good, and 0.9 is considered excellent (Sekaran, 2000).

### Reliability of TCM

To estimate the reliability of the TCM instrument used in this research, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient were calculated for each of the three constructs within the commitment domain. The instrument divided commitment in three specific areas: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Table 9 shows the results of the Cronbach's alpha computations. Table 9 also provides Cronbach's alpha for the TCM original instrument (Jaros, 1997).

Table 9 (TCM Cronbach's Alpha)

Junior Officer Three Component Commitment Constructs			
Constructs	N	Cronbach's Alpha	Meyer and Allen Alpha
Affective Commitment	6	0.757	0.74 – 0.89
Continuance Commitment	6	0.759	0.69 – 0.84
Normative Commitment	6	0.824	0.69 – 0.79

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was above 0.7 for all three constructs. Affective commitment and Continuance commitment were 0.757 and 0.759, respectively.

According to Sekaran, these are acceptable results. Normative commitment was 0.824 and considered to have good reliability. Comparing the original alpha coefficients to the TCM instrument in this research yielded very similar results. Affective and continuance commitment values fell between the high and low alphas reported by Meyers and Barbuto; whereas, normative commitment was slightly higher than the alpha reported by Meyer and Barbuto. The TCM instrument was reliable to conduct this study.

### Reliability of SLQ

Similar to the TCM, Cronbach's alpha was used to examine internal consistency of the SLQs. The participants rated the servant leadership characteristics of the commanding officer and the servant leadership characteristics of the command team. Thus, two SLQ surveys were conducted and scored. Table 10 shows Cronbach's alpha for both the SLQ of the commanding officer and the research conducted by Wheeler and Barbuto during development of the construct. Table 11 shows the same information for the command team.

Table 10 (CO SLQ Cronbach's Alpha)

SLQ Constructs	N	Cronbach's Alpha	Wheeler and Barbuto Alpha
Altruistic Calling	4	0.800	0.82
Emotional Healing	4	0.946	0.91
Wisdom	5	0.841	0.92
Persuasive Mapping	5	0.770	0.83
Organizational Stewardship	5	0.712	0.83

The TCM survey had six Likert-type questions for each of the constructs to form the Likert-Scale. The SLQ used either four or five questions to form the five Likert-Scales for the constructs: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship. All five areas showed Cronbach's alphas above the critical mark of 0.7. The highest was emotional healing at 0.946 and the lowest, organizational stewardship, was calculated at 0.712. Comparing the results in this

research to Wheeler and Barbuto's work, altruistic calling and emotional healing were relatively equal; whereas, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship were slightly lower, but consistent.

Table 11 (Command SLQ Cronbach's Alpha)

SLQ Constructs	N	Cronbach's Alpha	Wheeler and Barbuto Alpha
Altruistic Calling	4	0.833	0.82
Emotional Healing	4	0.877	0.91
Wisdom	5	0.805	0.92
Persuasive Mapping	5	0.749	0.83
Organizational Stewardship	5	0.835	0.83

Cronbach's alpha calculated scores for the command team were similar to the scores calculated for the commanding officer. However, the calculated alphas for the command team were more consistent with the scores determined during the original construct development. Altruistic calling, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship were all within .05 of Wheeler and Barbuto's alphas. The outliers, persuasive mapping and wisdom, were both slightly lower, but above the 0.7 dividing line of acceptable results. Both SLQs were considered reliable to conduct this study.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics summarize data so they can be described and understood (Patten, 2009). In other words, it bridges the gap between raw information and meaningful numbers. Appendix G and H contain the frequency distributions for each of

the subscales contained within the TCM and the SLQs. The TCM is a Likert-Scale with scores ranging from 1 to 7. The SLQs are Likert-scales with scores ranging from 1-5.

Table 12 contains descriptive statistics for the five servant leadership subscales contained in the SLQ for the commanding officers. Table 13 contains the descriptive statistics for the five servant leadership subscales contained in the SLQ for the command team. The subscales for the SLQ are altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship. Table 14 contains the descriptive statistics for the TCM. The subscales for the TCM are affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Table 12 (CO SLQ)

	Frequency	Total Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Measurement
Altruistic Calling	73	13.26	3.38	1.51
Emotional Healing	73	13.75	4.08	0.944
Wisdom	73	19.40	3.38	1.35
Persuasive Mapping	73	18.63	3.53	1.69
Organizational Stewardship	73	18.64	3.25	1.75

Table 13 (Command SLQ)

	Frequency	Total Score	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Measurement
Altruistic Calling	73	11.89	3.38	1.38
Emotional Healing	73	12.75	3.51	1.23
Wisdom	73	17.74	3.03	1.33
Persuasive Mapping	73	16.68	3.34	1.67
Organizational Stewardship	73	17.38	3.67	1.49

The mean is the average of the scores on each of the subscales. In general, the higher the score on the SLQ, the higher the perceived servant leadership quality of the commanding officer or the command team. The same can be said for the TCM; the higher the mean, the higher relative commitment level in the particular subscale. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) published the following means: altruistic calling (2.76), emotional healing (2.71), wisdom (3.24), persuasive mapping (2.58), and organizational stewardship (3.12). These results yield the following total score means: altruistic calling (11.04), emotional healing (10.84), wisdom (16.2), persuasive mapping (12.9), and organizational stewardship (15.6).

Three observations are gained from the descriptive statistics provided in the SLQs. First, all means were above the middle point of the Likert scale. These results generally point toward a perceived servant leadership experience. Two, each of the subscales were higher for the commanding officer when compared to the command team.

Third, all results from the officers sampled gave higher scores than the original study participants.

Table 14 (TCM)

	Frequency	Total Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Measurement
Affective Commitment	73	30.29	6.47	3.19
Continuance Commitment	73	28.82	6.98	3.43
Normative Commitment	73	26.77	7.27	3.06

Meyer and Allen (1997) did not provide means or averages for the three subscales in the TCM for the six-item questionnaire. They did provide means for the eight-item test. Yet, due to the different number of questions, it is impossible to accurately compare the means from Meyer and Allen in this study. However, recent studies by Nyengane (2007) and Rimes (2010) obtained the following means: affective (2.43, 5.63), continuance (2.17, 3.84), and normative (1.77, 5.19). Since all of Nyengane's scores were below 2.50, generally pointing toward low levels of commitment, this researcher chose to compare the work of Rimes. Changing Rimes' research to display total mean scores vice average means, Rimes received the following means: affective (33.78), continuance (23.04), and normative (31.14). The relatively high scores on the TCM demonstrate a high degree of commitment among the junior officers. Secondly, the scores demonstrated in this research are consistent with the total mean scores provided in Rimes' research.

### **Correlation Analysis**

The research questions for this study were to compare the five aspects of the SLQ to the three areas of TCM. Specifically, the questions related to the effect of junior officer commitment on the perceived servant leadership characteristics of the leadership on board submarines. The hypothesis centered on the relationship between these two constructs. A two-tailed Pearson  $r$  analysis was used to investigate the various relationships (Tables 15, 16, and 17).

The Pearson  $r$  correlation is unit-less measure of covariance scored from -1.00 to 1.00. A score of -1.00 is a perfectly unrelated correlation; whereas, a score of 1.00 is a perfectly related correlation. Pearson's correlation is defined as the covariance between two variables divided by the product of the standard deviations. Interpreting the data yields the following relationships: 1.00-perfectly positive, .80-strong positive, .50-moderate positive, .20-weak positive, .00-no relationship, -.20-weak negative, -.50-moderate negative, -.80- strong negative, and -1.00-perfectly negative (Newton & Rudestam, 1999).

#### **Research Questions 1 & 4**

1. Does the military leader's servant leadership style have an effect on the affective commitment level of the junior officer?

Table 15, below, shows that there is a moderate positive relationship between affective commitment of junior officers and all five perceived servant leadership characteristics of the commanding officer and the command team at the 1% level of significance. Based on the results of the 2-tailed significance  $t$ -test, null hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d, 1e, 4a, 4b, 4c, 4d, and 4e are rejected.

Table 15 (Servant Leadership - Affective Correlation)

		<b>Affective Commitment</b>	
		CO	Command
<b>Altruistic Calling</b>	Pearson Correlation	.5738	.5815
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73
<b>Emotional Healing</b>	Pearson Correlation	.6387	.5619
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73
<b>Wisdom</b>	Pearson Correlation	.5265	.4824
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73
<b>Persuasive Mapping</b>	Pearson Correlation	.5856	.5729
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73
<b>Organizational Stewardship</b>	Pearson Correlation	.5340	.5711
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73

**Research Questions 2 & 5**

2. Does the military leader's servant leadership style have an effect on the continuance commitment level of the junior officer?

Table 16 shows that there is a moderate positive relationship between continuance commitment of junior officers and all five perceived servant leadership characteristics of the commanding officer. Additionally, a moderate positive relationship exists between continuance commitment of junior officers and the perceived altruistic leadership of the command team. A weak positive relationship exists between the junior officer

continuance commitment and the perceived command wisdom, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship and emotional healing aspects of servant leadership. The researcher believes there is sufficient evidence at the 1% level of significance to reject null hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2c, 2d, 2e, 5a, and 5b. However, due to the 2-tailed significance test results, null hypotheses 5c, 5d, and 5e cannot be rejected. In other words, the possibility of randomness cannot be ignored.

Table 16 (Servant Leadership – Continuance Correlation)

		<b>Continuance Commitment</b>	
		CO	Command
<b>Altruistic Calling</b>	Pearson Correlation	.4188	.4417
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73
<b>Emotional Healing</b>	Pearson Correlation	.4279	.2735
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	0.0192
	N	73	73
<b>Wisdom</b>	Pearson Correlation	.3653	.1655
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	0.1615
	N	73	73
<b>Persuasive Mapping</b>	Pearson Correlation	.4219	.1677
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	0.1561
	N	73	73
<b>Organizational Stewardship</b>	Pearson Correlation	.3484	.1733
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	0.1425
	N	73	73

**Research Questions 3 & 6**

3. Does the military leader's servant leadership style have an effect on the normative commitment level of the junior officer?

Table 17 (Servant Leadership – Normative Commitment)

		<b>Normative Commitment</b>	
		CO	Command
<b>Altruistic Calling</b>	Pearson Correlation	.5637	.4149
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73
<b>Emotional Healing</b>	Pearson Correlation	.5076	.5818
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73
<b>Wisdom</b>	Pearson Correlation	.4010	.4684
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73
<b>Persuasive Mapping</b>	Pearson Correlation	.5090	.4440
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73
<b>Organizational Stewardship</b>	Pearson Correlation	.3998	.3549
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	<0.01	<0.01
	N	73	73

Table 17 shows that there is a moderate positive relationship between normative commitment of junior officers and all five perceived servant leadership characteristics of the commanding officer and the command team at the 1% level of significance. Based on the moderate relationship between the two constructs and the 2-tailed significance tests results, the researcher rejects the null hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c, 3d, 3e, 6a, 6b, 6c, 6d, and 6e.

**Research Question 7**

4. Is there a difference between the effects of servant leadership on junior officers when the leadership is directly from the commanding officer as opposed to the command leadership triad?

Table 18 (Commanding Officer to Command Relationship)

SLQ Construct	TCM Construct	Steiger's Z	2-Tailed Significance
Altruistic Calling	Affective	0.082	0.934
	Continuance	0.215	0.829
	Normative	1.503	0.132
Emotional Healing	Affective	0.992	0.321
	Continuance	1.634	0.102
	Normative	0.976	0.328
Wisdom	Affective	0.452	0.650
	Continuance	1.764	.0776
	Normative	0.646	0.518
Persuasive Mapping	Affective	0.144	0.885
	Continuance	2.298	.0215
	Normative	0.646	0.518
Organizational	Affective	0.488	0.626
Stewardship	Continuance	1.939	0.053
	Normative	0.522	0.601

As demonstrated in Tables 15, 16, and 17, very little difference exists between the commitment levels of junior officers as measured on the TCM commitment survey and

the five characteristics of servant leadership measured on the SLQ. The Commanding officer had a moderately positive relationship with all aspects of the TCM. The command team had moderate positive relationships on the affective and normative commitment scales of the TCM. However, the command team only held a weak positive relationship with continuance commitment in the emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship.

Steiger's Z was conducted to compare the Pearson's r values for each of the constructs comparing the commanding officer and command team SLQ to TCM constructs. An absolute value of greater than 1.96 is needed for the Z-score at  $p < 0.05$  and absolute value of 2.58 is needed for  $p < 0.01$  in order to find a significant relationship (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Steiger, 1980). Based on the significance tests scores, Table 18, only the continuance commitment level of junior officers in the persuasive mapping category shows a significance difference,  $Z=2.298$  ( $p<.05$ ). The other continuance commitment correlations, with exception of altruistic calling, were generally higher, but remained below the Z-critical point.

### **Summary of Results**

Chapter 4 provided the data and statistical results of the research derived from the junior officers attending the Submarine Officer Advanced Course in New London, Connecticut. Chapter 4 was used to present the data; whereas, chapter 5 expounds on the purpose, implications, recommendations, and conclusions based on these analysis. The following significant results were identified:

1. The servant leadership of the commanding officer has an effect on the affective commitment level of junior officers.

2. The servant leadership of the commanding officer has an effect on the continuance commitment level of junior officers.
3. The servant leadership of the commanding officer has an effect on the normative commitment level of junior officers.
4. The servant leadership of the command team has an effect on the affective commitment level of junior officers.
5. The servant leadership of the command team has an effect on the continuance commitment level of junior officers.
6. The servant leadership of the command team has an effect on the normative commitment level of junior officers.
7. There are only slight differences between the commitment effects of servant leadership of commanding officers and the command team in all areas except the continuance construct. With the exception of altruistic calling, the difference in the continuance commitment level of junior officers is considerable. However, only the difference in the persuasive mapping construct is considered significant.

## **Chapter Five: Discussion, Implications, and Summary**

This chapter serves the purpose of restating the problem, a brief review of the methodology, general observations not included in the research, discussing recommendations, and outlining limitations of the study with future research ideas.

### **Review of Problem Statement and Introduction**

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the relationship between the perceived servant leadership of command teams, including the commanding officer, and the commitment of junior naval officers on submarines. Past and present students, between October and May 2013, at the Submarine Officer Advanced Course participated in this study. By focusing on junior officers at the Submarine Officer Advanced Course, the study centered on the commitment level of naval officers who did not currently possess career military aspirations. The findings of this study provide an important addition to the field of leadership and expand the leadership breadth of the United States Navy. This study also addresses the limited research in servant leadership and the connection between leadership and commitment of military forces.

### **Review of Methodology**

This research was purely quantitative. The participants voluntarily took three surveys: the Servant Leadership Questionnaire for their last commanding officer, the Servant Leadership Questionnaire for their last command team, and the Three-Component organizational commitment survey. Finally, the participants provided answers to several questions that allowed collection of demographics and validated some of the answers on the provided surveys. A correlation study was conducted to compare

the relationships between the surveys at the 1% significance level. The correlation study provided the basis for answering the following research questions:

1. Does the commanding officer's servant leadership style have an effect on the affective commitment level of the junior officers?
2. Does the commanding officer's servant leadership style have an effect on the continuance commitment level of the junior officers?
3. Does the commanding officer's servant leadership style have an effect on the normative commitment level of the junior officers?
4. Does the command triad's servant leadership style have an effect on the affective commitment level of junior officers?
5. Does the command triad's servant leadership style have an effect on the continuance commitment level of the junior officers?
6. Does the command triad's servant leadership style have an effect on the normative commitment level of the junior officers?
7. Is there a difference between the effect of servant leadership effects on junior officers by the command triad and the commanding officer alone?

The sample population included 73 naval officers stationed in New London, Connecticut. Although this study represented a relatively small sample of officers, the results are far reaching. A constant rotation of commanding officers and command teams means that the results represent the better part of the submarine force. As demonstrated, both instruments are widely accepted as reliable and valid for measuring the particular constructs. The Servant Leadership Questionnaire has five subscales: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational healing. These five

subscales encompass the qualities and characteristics of a servant leader. The Three Component Model Commitment survey has three constructs: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. These three constructs are widely accepted as the three components of organizational commitment. Each of these commitment constructs, along with its associated correlations to the SLQ, are discussed below.

### **Summary of Findings**

Servant leadership is not consistent throughout the Navy or the submarine force. This fact, in itself, is not disheartening. Leaders, as stated numerous times, must exhibit multiple leadership characteristics in order to accomplish the missions facing an organization. Although no specific leadership is accountable toward perfect commitment, this study found that a positive relationship exists between servant leadership and the commitment of followers. In this case, a military environment was tested; it would not be surprising to find this same relationship in other organizations, regardless of the mission or business model. Unfortunately, as much as this study does not substantiate that servant leadership yields commitment, it is also not established that this research extends into the private sector.

In regards to servant leadership, this study revealed an organization with a relatively high perceived servant leadership base. The average mean scores for the SLQ constructs of altruistic calling were 3.316, emotional healing 3.528, wisdom 3.881, persuasive mapping 3.725, and organizational healing 3.741. These mean scores were consistently higher than those presented by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006). Given that the SLQ was scored on a five point Likert-scale, a score above 2.500 generally represents a

participant who experienced servant leadership in that construct. As seen, the average mean score in each area was above this critical mark of 2.500. From a percentage of participants' point of view, the frequency of participants experiencing each of the constructs of servant leadership by the commanding officer was altruistic calling 84.9%, emotional healing 86.3%, wisdom 94.5%, persuasive mapping 91.8%, and organizational stewardship 93.2%. The command team yielded similar results: altruistic calling 68.5%, emotional healing 76.7%, wisdom 93.1%, persuasive mapping 89.0%, and organizational stewardship 87.7% (Appendix G). In general terms only, these percentages demonstrate that participants viewed the commanding officer's servant leadership characteristics as generally higher than the command team's characteristics.

The SLQ scores only represent part of the research study. The study's design was to examine the relationship between junior naval officer commitment and the perceived servant leadership characteristics of the command team and the commanding officer. Therefore, the average mean scores for the TCM commitment model were also analyzed. The average mean scores for the TCM constructs of commitment were affective commitment 5.05, continuance commitment 4.80, and normative commitment 4.46. Using the same philosophy as shown in the SLQ percentage scores, the percentage of the participants showing a positive commitment score are affective commitment 94.5%, continuance commitment 90.4%, and normative commitment 84.9% (Appendix H).

### **Research Questions 1, 2, & 3**

Does the commanding officer's servant leadership style have an effect on the affective, continuance, or normative commitment level of the junior officers? These research questions specifically looked at the relationships between servant leadership and

a member's desire to stay with an organization based on fulfilling their expectations, meeting needs, and moral values. The study showed a moderately high positive relationship between the servant leadership characteristics of the commanding officer and the three constructs of the TCM, affective, continuance, and normative commitments: altruistic calling ( $r = 0.574, 0.419, \text{ and } 0.564$ ), emotional healing ( $r = 0.639, 0.428, 0.508$ ), wisdom ( $r = 0.527, 0.365, 0.401$ ), persuasive mapping ( $r = 0.586, 0.422, 0.509$ ), and organizational stewardship ( $r = 0.534, 0.348, 0.400$ ). The null hypotheses associated with research questions 1, 2, and 3 were rejected due to the moderately strong positive relationships associated with each domain of the SLQ.

#### **Research Questions 4, 5, & 6**

Does the command team's servant leadership style have an effect on the affective, continuance, or normative commitment level of the junior officers? Once again, the results show relatively strong positive relationships between the perceived leadership of the command team's servant leadership characteristics and junior naval officer commitment. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson  $r$ ) values for the command team servant leadership constructs and affective, continuance, and normative commitment levels of junior officers mirrored those of the commanding officer values: altruistic calling ( $r = 0.582, 0.442, \text{ and } 0.414$ ), emotional healing ( $r = 0.561, 0.273, 0.581$ ), wisdom ( $r = 0.482, 0.165, 0.468$ ), persuasive mapping ( $r = 0.572, 0.167, 0.444$ ), and organizational stewardship ( $r = 0.571, 0.173, 0.354$ ). The null hypotheses associated with research questions 4, 5, and 6 were rejected due to the moderately strong positive relationships associated with each domain of the SLQ.

### **Research Question 7**

Is there a difference between the effect of servant leadership effects on junior officers by the command triad and the commanding officer alone? As demonstrated in Chapter 4, little difference exists between the commitment levels of junior officers as measured on the TCM commitment survey and the five characteristics of servant leadership measured on the SLQ. The Commanding officer had a moderately positive relationship with all aspects of the TCM. The command team had moderate positive relationships on the affective and normative commitment scales of the TCM.

The exception to the previous paragraph was continuance commitment. Although no significant difference exists between the command team and the commanding officer in continuance commitment for wisdom, emotional healing, and organizational stewardship, the correlations were relatively higher. The difference in comparison in the continuance commitment level and servant leadership in the persuasive mapping area was considered significant,  $Z=2.298$  ( $p<.05$ ).

### **Implications**

The implications of the relationship between leadership and commitment to military leaders would be similar to business leaders. However, there are some unique aspects of military leadership that provide slightly different implications. Personnel join the military for various reasons; this is not different than other organizations. However, the military enjoys the fact that some people join the military predisposed to commitment for cause. As discussed earlier, men and women are raised with a given set of values. Given that these values align with military service, people choose to serve their nation's fight to protect the American system. Secondly, military personnel, specifically naval

personnel, spend a large amount of time away from home. Their absence away from home creates problems on the job and at home. The result is that personnel have to balance their commitment toward the cause of the nation and their commitment to their families. An imbalance causes some military personnel to leave, regardless of their desire to continue to serve. Finally, the amount of time spent between leadership and junior personnel is arguably higher than in other organizations. Although no particular study has demonstrated the result of this direct relationship, the fact that men and women spend 24 hours a day with leadership over periods of weeks and months at a time, it only follows that leaders have a greater influence on the lives of individuals under their command.

Although not a universal truth, men and women do enter military service predisposed to commitment. They want to make a difference. They believe in what they are doing, why they are doing it, and are willing to go the extra mile to ensure the mission is accomplished. The stories swamp the Internet and television every day. Men and women in Afghanistan are giving their lives to support the cause, support their fellow soldiers, and support the American way of life. This simple fact possibly allows for military leaders to forget that they owe servitude in search of commitment of those under them. This research study argues that servant leadership is an effective leadership style, up and down the rank structure, for military organizations, as it relates to commitment. Specifically, the characteristics associated with servant leadership is shown as positively related to commitment in every facet. The results in this study are enough to warrant further investigations in the benefits of servant leadership as they relate to military service.

Another implication of this study is the relatively high commitment level felt in the officers at the Submarine Officer Advanced Course. Eighty-nine percent of the officers experienced servant leadership at one level or another during their last tour on a submarine. This result is significant because it implies that commanding officers as well as other members of the command team already practice servant leadership characteristics. This researcher is unsure whether or not others felt these characteristics prior to beginning this study. This point is significant because, even without a leadership doctrine in place, the command teams bend toward serving those in their command. Whether or not this is a result of the Chief of Naval Operations guiding principles is not known.

This study also revealed a couple of surprising results. First, there was no significant difference between the effects of the servant leadership characteristics of the command team and the commanding officer, except in continuance commitment. This outcome may come from the inability of the junior officers to differentiate the decisions of the commanding officers from those of the command team. Meaning, by following the orders and decisions of the chain of command, the officers perceive this as following the orders and decisions of the commanding officer. Another possibility is the result of the common leadership training and practices provided to the command team members and the commanding officers. Every submarine officer follows the same pipeline toward command. This common path to command may just form the result it was intended to accomplish.

Another surprising outcome was the relatively high continuance commitment level demonstrated by the participating officers. As discussed in Chapter 2, those

personnel with higher education levels and higher positions within the command tend to demonstrate lower levels of continuance commitment. These lower levels are presumed to exist due to the inability of the organization to meet the generally higher pay and quality of life expectations of the individual. This study did not find that result. This result may come from a generally lower job market in the civilian sector. Alternatively, the benefits of the military far surpass those of civilian organizations and the officers in this study fully recognize this difference. The exact cause of this disparity is not known, but does indicate a possible avenue for future research.

Finally, the comparison between the servant leadership of the commanding officer to junior officer commitment and the command team's servant leadership characteristics was conducted. Although only the continuance commitment level using the persuasive mapping domain was considered significant, it is interesting to note that the command team's relationship to continuance commitment of junior officers is below that of the commanding officer. This generally lower score possibility alludes to the junior officer recognizing the commanding officer as a more powerful entity in relationship to advancement, evaluations, current job assignment, and screening boards. This observation makes perfect sense. The commanding officer actually signs the junior officer fitness reports, and the commanding officer writes and signs recommendations for the junior officer. However, due to only finding one significant relationship these outcomes cannot be confirmed and randomness cannot be ignored.

**Limitations of Study**

Although a positive relationship between leadership and commitment has been established, this study possess certain limitations that prevent a guaranteed connection between the servant leadership of commands and junior naval officers.

- a. This study was limited by only researching submarine officers.
- b. A lack of diversity existed. All of the participants were males between the ages of 28 and 35. The participants were all submarine officers serving in one location. The commonalities, shown in the demographics, prevented removing a participant bias.
- c. Use of electronic surveys prevented some from participating due to lack of Internet or email addresses. Electronic surveys also prevented the participants from asking questions pertaining to the questions. Although each participant was given instructions for each section of the survey, the answers by one person do not represent the exact same feelings of another participant providing the same answer.
- d. The sample was exposed to researcher bias, because of the familiarity of the researcher to submarine life. Although the researcher carefully attempted to remove researcher bias, the familiarity cannot be overlooked as a potential source of error.
- e. The research sample included a relatively small percentage of the total naval officer force. Although 72 officers who served as participants was sufficient to determine correlations between the two leadership concepts, a broader scoped analysis would have positive impact on the overall findings. Additionally, the

sample size was not sufficient to provide 30 answers in each of the fields of the Likert-type questions.

- f. The participants do not have the benefit of recent memory in answering the questions. Each participant was at least two years removed from serving with his or her last command. This elapsed time period results in difficulty with recalling exact perceptions held.
- g. The research was based on how participants felt. This procedural step possibly caused participant bias based on recent or extremely memorable conditions and not perceptions of the last command, which was the basis of the questions.
- h. The servant leadership and commitment constructs were limited to those found on the SLQ and the TCM, respectively.

### **Future Research**

This study examined the relationship between servant leadership and commitment of junior officers in the submarine force. An obvious area for future research is to expand the surveys to include all officers in the submarine force. Additionally, it would be interesting to discover how the results of this study would vary if the same study was performed on the officers in the surface or air communities. Other areas of future research include:

- a. Effect of servant leadership by command master chiefs on enlisted commitment, submarine and Navy wide.
- b. Effect of servant leadership by commanding officers on enlisted commitment, submarine and Navy wide.

- c. Effect of leadership styles and commitment of enlisted members and officers in the Navy.
- d. Effect of commitment of naval personnel in upscale and downscale economies.
- e. Effect of other leadership characteristics on the commitment of junior naval officers.
- f. Replication of this study in other naval areas as well as in other business arena.

### **Conclusion**

The primary objective of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between military leader's servant leadership characteristics and commitment of junior naval officers. Given the reliability and validity of both the SLQ and TCM, the study has shown a positive relationship between those experiencing or perceiving to experience servant leadership and their relative commitment level. This positive correlation shows that leaders who exhibit qualities that provide for the well-being, upward mobility, encourage development, are observant, and seek "good" for the community and society as a whole have positive effects on the people around them (Meyer & Allen, 1991). This relationship in turn results in less turnover, less turnover intentions, increased efficiency, and increased productivity (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Of course, this says nothing for the positive effect on overall command climate.

This study presents another positive view and purpose of servant leadership. Although servant leadership is not normally thought of as one of the primary leadership styles in the military setting, this study provides information to indicate that it is a leadership style practiced by commanding officers and command teams on submarines. Hopefully, this study provides the forward momentum necessary to carry servant

leadership aboard other naval vessels and throughout the military structure. Commitment is one possible product of servant leadership; the lives of the men and women affected by the leadership characteristics of servant leadership are another outcome. After all, leadership is about the people completing the organization's mission. Without one, there is no possible way to accomplish the other.

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**Appendix A (Permission for Servant Leadership Questionnaire)**

**Title:** Scale Development and Construct Clarification  
of Servant Leadership:

**Author:** John E. Barbuto, JR., Daniel W. Wheeler

**Publication:** Group & Organization Management

**Publisher:** SAGE Publications

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**Appendix B (Permission for TCM Organizational Commitment)**

Subject: Permission to use the Organizational Commitment Survey

2/10/2013

Dear Dr. Meyer,

I am a student at Tennessee Temple University in Chattanooga TN pursuing my PhD in Organizational Leadership. I am also a Lieutenant in the United States Navy. I would like permission to use the Organizational Commitment Survey in my dissertation. The purpose of this dissertation is to determine the relationship between servant leadership of submarine command triads (Commanding Officer, Executive Officer, and Command Master Chief) and the commitment level of Junior Officers in the submarine force.

My intentions are to administer the questionnaires to approximately three classes of future department heads currently stationed at the Submarine Officer Advanced Course in Groton, CT. I hope that you can direct me in how to acquire or purchase a license to administer the survey for use in my study or provide permission to use it at no cost. I will gladly share the findings and raw data for future use. I look forward to hearing from you,

Dear Lt. Morris,

You can get the commitment measures and permission to use them for academic research purposes by going to the following website: <http://employeecommithment.com>. I hope all goes well with your research.

Best regards,  
John Meyer

John P. Meyer, PhD  
Department of Psychology  
Western University  
London, Ontario, Canada  
N6A 5C2

### **Appendix C (Instructions to Participants)**

Dear Participant,

As partial fulfillment of the requirements for a PhD in Leadership, I am performing research for the dissertation component of my degree program. Below, you will find the necessary information and instructions for completing the online survey.

**Project Description:**

This purpose of this research product is to examine possible effects observable between leadership traits for a particular leadership style and junior officers in the submarine force.

**Procedures:**

Each participant will take a one-time online survey consisting of 64 Likert-type questions and 10 demographic-type questions. The entire process will take less than 15 minutes.

**Confidentiality:**

All records from this research will remain private. No published record will contain the names, locations, or assignments of the participants. The report will not mention any command or participant by name or number. The primary researcher will store all research material securely. Although the subjects are military, the research is founded in leadership, and will not show the participants, individual commands, or the military negatively.

**Voluntary Participation:**

Participation is voluntary. Failure to respond will not affect your status with the researcher, the Navy, or University.

**Contact Information:**

The researcher conducting this study is Ken E. Morris. If you have questions, you are encouraged to contact me at XXX-XXX-XXXX or xxxxxxxx@tntemple.edu.

I would greatly appreciate your willingness to complete this survey and your timeliness.

Survey Location:

**<http://edu.surveygizmo.com/s3/1186215/Servant-Leadership-and-Commitment>**.

Password: XXXXXXXX

Thank you for your support.

Respectfully,  
Ken Morris

**Appendix D (Modified SLQ)**

## Modified Servant Leadership Questionnaire

**Command Triad**

## Altruistic Calling

1. The command triad (collective group) put my best interest ahead of theirs.
2. The command triad did everything (collective group) they can to serve me.
3. The command triad (collective group) sacrificed their interests to meet my needs.
4. The command triad (collective group) went above and beyond the call of duty to meet my needs.

## Emotional Healing

5. The command triad was someone I would turn to if I had personal trauma.
6. The command triad was good at helping me with emotional issues.
7. The command triad was talented at helping me to heal emotionally.
8. The command triad could help me mend my hard feelings.

## Wisdom

9. The command triad seemed alert to what's happening.
10. The command triad had great awareness of what is going on.
11. The command triad seemed in touch with what's happening.
12. The command triad was good at anticipating the consequences of their decisions.
13. The command triad seemed to know what is going to happen.

## Persuasive mapping

14. The command triad offered compelling reasons to get me to do things.
15. The command triad encouraged me to dream "big dreams" about the organization (the submarine).
16. The command triad was very persuasive.
17. The command triad was good at convincing me to do things.
18. The command triad was gifted when it comes to persuading me.

## Organizational stewardship

19. The command triad believed that the organization (submarine) needs to play a moral role in society (Navy mission).
20. The command triad believed that our organization (the submarine) needs to function as a community.

21. The command triad saw the organization (the submarine) for its potential to contribute to society (Navy mission).
22. The command triad encouraged me to have a community spirit in the workplace.
23. The command triad was preparing the organization (the submarine) to make a positive difference in the future (Navy vision).

### Commanding Officer

#### Altruistic Calling

24. The commanding officer put my best interest ahead of his.
25. The commanding officer did everything he can to serve me.
26. The commanding officer sacrificed his interests to meet my needs.
27. The commanding officer went above and beyond the call of duty to meet my needs.

#### Emotional Healing

28. The commanding officer was someone I would turn to if I had personal trauma.
29. The commanding officer was good at helping me with emotional issues.
30. The commanding officer was talented at helping me to heal emotionally.
31. The commanding officer helped me mend my hard feelings.

#### Wisdom

32. The commanding officer seemed alert to what's happening.
33. The commanding officer had great awareness of what is going on.
34. The commanding officer seemed in touch with what's happening.
35. The commanding officer was good at anticipating the consequences of his decisions.
36. The commanding officer seemed to know what is going to happen.

#### Persuasive mapping

37. The commanding officer offered compelling reasons to get me to do things.
38. The commanding officer encouraged me to dream "big dreams" about the organization (the submarine).
39. The commanding officer was very persuasive.
40. The commanding officer was good at convincing me to do things.
41. The commanding officer was gifted when it comes to persuading me.

#### Organizational stewardship

42. The commanding officer believed that the organization (submarine) needs to play a moral role in society (Navy mission).
43. The commanding officer believed that our organization (the submarine) needs to function as a community.
44. The commanding officer saw the organization (the submarine) for its potential to contribute to society (Navy mission).
45. The commanding officer encouraged me to have a community spirit in the workplace.

46. The commanding officer was preparing the organization (the submarine) to make a positive difference in the future (Navy vision).

**Appendix E (Modified TCM)**

## Three Component Model Commitment Survey

## Submarine Force (Navy) as an Organization

## Affective Commitment Scale

47. At the time of signing my last contract, I would have been very happy to spend the rest of my career with that organization.
48. At the time of signing my last contract, I really felt as if this organization's problems were my own.
49. At the time of signing my last contract, I did not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my last submarine.
50. At the time of signing my last contract, I did not feel "emotionally attached" to my last submarine.
51. At the time of signing my last contract, I did not feel like "part of the family" at my last submarine.
52. At the time of signing my last contract, the organization had a great deal of personal meaning for me.

## Continuance Commitment Scale

53. At the time of signing my last contract, staying with my last organization was a matter of necessity as much as desire.
54. At the time of signing my last contract, it would have been very hard for me to leave my last organization, even if I wanted to.
55. At the time of signing my last contract, too much of my life would be disrupted if I had decided I wanted to leave my last organization.
56. At the time of signing my last contract, I felt that I had too few options to consider leaving that organization.
57. At the time of signing my last contract, if I had not already put so much of myself into the organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
58. At the time of signing my last contract, one of the few negative consequences of leaving that organization was the scarcity of available alternatives.

## Normative Commitment Scale

59. At the time of signing my last contract, I did not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.
60. At the time of signing my last contract, even if it were to my advantage, I did not feel it would be right to leave my organization.
61. At the time of signing my last contract, I would have felt guilty if I left my organization.
62. At the time of signing my last contract, I felt the organization deserved my loyalty.

63. At the time of signing my last contract, I felt I could not leave my organization because I had a sense of obligation to the people in it.
64. At the time of signing my last contract, I felt I owed a great deal to my organization.

**Appendix F (Follow-up Questions)**

## Follow-up Questions and Demographics

1. Number of years in the Navy.
  - a. 0-5 years
  - b. 5-8 years
  - c. 9-12 years
  - d. 12-15 years
  - e. 15+ years
2. Number of submarine tours
  - a. 0-1
  - b. 1-2
  - c. 2-3
  - d. 3-4
  - e. 5+
3. This person had the greatest influence on my decision to stay in the Navy.
  - a. Commanding Officer
  - b. Executive Officer
  - c. Command Master Chief
  - d. Other Naval Personnel (Friend/Colleague)
  - e. Family
  - f. Economy

Answer the following using this scale:

1 – Completely Agree

2 – Agree

3 – No effect

4 – Disagree

5 – Completely disagree

4. If I did not screen for my next position (i.e. I have to leave submarines), I will depart the military.
  - a. 1
  - b. 2
  - c. 3
  - d. 4
  - e. 5
5. I feel more attached to the Submarine Force than I do the Navy.
  - a. 1
  - b. 2
  - c. 3
  - d. 4
  - e. 5

6. The submarine command made me feel committed to the Navy.
  - a. 1
  - b. 2
  - c. 3
  - d. 4
  - e. 5
7. The Commanding Officer made me feel committed to the Submarine Force.
  - a. 1
  - b. 2
  - c. 3
  - d. 4
  - e. 5
8. The submarine command made me feel committed to my current submarine.
  - a. 1
  - b. 2
  - c. 3
  - d. 4
  - e. 5
9. The commanding officer made me feel committed to my current submarine.
  - a. 1
  - b. 2
  - c. 3
  - d. 4
  - e. 5
10. The submarine command made me feel committed to the Submarine Force.
  - a. 1
  - b. 2
  - c. 3
  - d. 4
  - e. 5

**Appendix G (Additional SLQ Results)**

## Commanding Officer SLQ Frequency

Commanding Officer Construct	N (Score > 2.5)	Frequency	High Mean	Low Mean
Altruistic Calling	62	84.9%	5.00	1.00
Emotional Healing	63	86.3%	5.00	1.00
Wisdom	69	94.5%	5.00	2.20
Persuasive Mapping	67	91.8%	5.00	1.6
Organizational Stewardship	68	93.2%	4.75	1.8

## Command Team SLQ Frequency

Command Team Construct	N (Score > 2.5)	Frequency	High Mean	Low Mean
Altruistic Calling	50	68.5%	4.50	1.25
Emotional Healing	56	76.7%	4.25	1.00
Wisdom	68	93.1%	5.00	1.80
Persuasive Mapping	65	89.0%	4.80	1.60
Organizational Stewardship	64	87.7%	4.80	1.40

**Appendix H (Additional TCM Results)**

## Participant TCM Frequency

TCM Construct	N (Score > 3.5)	Frequency	High Mean	Low Mean
Affective Commitment	69	94.5%	6.83	1.50
Continuance Commitment	66	90.4%	6.67	1.00
Normative Commitment	62	84.9%	6.67	1.50