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The Relationship between Leadership Style and Volunteer Intention to Stay

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND VOLUNTEER
INTENTION TO STAY

by

Mark E. Smith

Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of

Olivet Nazarene University

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in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

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Doctor of Education

in

Ethical Leadership


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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE
AND VOLUNTEER INTENTION TO STAY

by


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Dissertation




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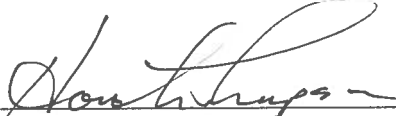
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ABSTRACT

Many organizations rely on volunteers to perform key elements of support, and leadership style plays an important role in the retention of volunteers. The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between leadership style and the intent to stay for adult and youth volunteers in a large nonprofit organization. This quantitative study examined the relationship of leadership style and intention to stay with three samples of volunteers: local leaders ($n = 91$), adult volunteers ($n = 48$), and youth volunteers ($n = 42$). A survey was administered via online survey tool for leaders and adult volunteers, and with hardcopy questionnaires mailed to youth volunteers. Data analysis included descriptive statistics, correlational analyses, and analyses of variance. A statistically significant correlation existed between leadership style and intention to stay for leaders and adult volunteers, while the correlation between the variables for leaders and youth volunteers was not statistically significant. Leaders rated themselves as stronger in servant leadership qualities, while adult volunteers and youth volunteers rated their leaders lower. Gender differences existed in how volunteers rated their leaders. Adult female volunteers rated their leaders at statistically significant lower levels than did their male counterparts, while female youth volunteers rated their leaders at statistically significant higher levels than did their male counterparts. Organizations that rely on volunteers should incorporate servant leadership skills into their training programs and encourage their leaders to embrace the principles of servant leadership.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (2014) reported that approximately 62.6 million people volunteered between September 2012 and September 2013. Allen and Mueller (2013) reported that volunteers' contributions of their time equated to 8.1 billion hours annually, with a financial benefit to the United States economy estimated at \$173 billion. These figures support the point that volunteerism has become a crucial element for many organizations, especially nonprofit services-focused organizations (Vecina, Chacón, Marzana, & Marta, 2013).

Cowlshaw, Evans, and McLennan (2010) wrote that nonprofit organizations are justified in wanting to optimize volunteer retention in order to sustain their volunteer workforce and their organizations' ability to provide their services. Optimizing volunteer retention is especially relevant given the decline in the number of individuals who choose to volunteer. The United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (2014) found that the number of volunteers was at the lowest level since they began reporting this statistic in 2002.

Individuals choose to volunteer for a variety of reasons (Clary et al., 1998). Finkelstein (2008b) found that some individuals choose to volunteer for intrinsic motives in which the individual can learn a skill or gain experience that will be helpful in other areas of the individual's life. Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres (2010) wrote that other individuals choose to volunteer for extrinsic motives in which the individual is focused

on serving others, making a contribution, and giving to the community. In many cases, individuals choose to volunteer for a variety of reasons, including both intrinsic and extrinsic motives (Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005).

There are a number of reasons why individuals choose to terminate their volunteer experiences with their organizations (Gazley, 2013). Wisner, Stringfellow, Youngdahl, and Parker (2005) found that competing priorities, time constraints, and life changes are common reasons cited by individuals who choose to stop their volunteer work. A mismatch between an individual's expectations and actual experiences in volunteer roles is another reason given for individuals quitting their volunteer positions (Millette & Gagné, 2008). An example of such a disparity would be between what the individual desires to do as a volunteer, and the actual role in which the organization places the individual (Taylor, Darcy, Hoye, & Cuskelly, 2006). Another example is when the individual receives little or no positive feedback concerning the value of the individual's volunteer contributions (Fuller et al., 2006).

Considerable literature has been devoted to exploring the relationship between leadership and paid employees (Nesbit & Gazley, 2012). Certain leadership styles, particularly transformational and servant leadership, have been found to influence employee buy-in, productivity, and intent to stay in the company (Purvanova, Bono, & Dzieweczynski, 2006; Schneider & George, 2011).

Researchers such as Kelloway, Turner, Barling, and Loughlin (2012) have determined that the quality of leadership may have a direct bearing on individuals' volunteer experiences that influence volunteers to continue or to terminate their volunteer roles. However, less literature has been devoted to exploring this dynamic in the field of

volunteers (Nesbit & Gazley, 2012). Among the limited amount of literature, researchers have found that leaders who exhibit the attributes of leadership styles that are not people-focused have been found to contribute to individuals terminating their volunteer experience (Stirling, Kilpatrick, & Orpin, 2011). Conversely, leaders who exhibit the attributes of transformational and servant leadership styles have a positive effect on volunteer buy-in, productivity, and intent to stay (Purvanova, et al., 2006). Finally, Schneider and George (2011) found that volunteers who characterized their leaders as servant leaders displayed higher intention to stay than volunteers who characterized their leaders as transformational leaders.

Statement of the Problem

Civil Air Patrol (CAP) is a nationwide volunteer organization with over 58,000 adult and youth members (Civil Air Patrol, 2014b). Passed in 1948, Public Law 557 permanently established Civil Air Patrol as the auxiliary of the United States Air Force. CAP has three congressionally-chartered missions: emergency services, cadet programs, and aerospace education (Civil Air Patrol, 2013b). Similar dynamics to those in the broader literature are reflected in the reasons individuals join CAP or leave CAP, and leadership is often mentioned as a contributing factor for volunteers leaving CAP (Civil Air Patrol, 2014a).

Volunteer membership in CAP has been declining, and a frequently-cited reason for change in membership is poor leadership (Civil Air Patrol, 2014a). The decline in membership may be due in part to inadequate skills of volunteer leaders. Characterizing and correcting shortfalls in volunteer leadership skills may lead to improved member

retention and strengthened performance of CAP's three congressionally-chartered missions.

The purpose of the current study was to examine CAP current adult and youth volunteer members' perceptions of the qualities of their squadron commander's servant leadership in order to determine the relationship between leadership style and volunteer retention.

Background

According to the United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (2014), the use of volunteers permeates United States society, with some 62.6 million people donating their time to provide services for, and assistance to, a large number of organizations. Given this reliance on the use of volunteers, organizations are sensitive to the issue of volunteer retention. Loss of volunteers can adversely impact organizations, which then need to recruit and train replacement volunteers to provide important services (Allen & Mueller, 2013). How to accomplish this in the field of volunteerism has proven challenging, as there are significant differences between leading volunteers as opposed to leading paid employees (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2009).

In their seminal work, Clary et al. (1998) conducted a series of quantitative studies that examined the motivations underlying volunteerism. Clary et al. hypothesized six functions of volunteerism: values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement. Individuals who volunteered responded more strongly to one or more of these six motivating traits than individuals who did not volunteer. As part of their research, Clary et al. developed the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) to measure these volunteer functions. The VFI instrument is widely accepted and used by researchers

examining volunteer motivations (Finkelstein, et al., 2005; Hustinx & Handy, 2009; Van Vianen, Nijstad, & Voskuyl, 2008; Vecina, et al., 2013).

A number of other researchers have examined motivations to volunteer. Finkelstein, et al. (2005) concluded that volunteer motives include role identity, perceived expectations, other-oriented empathy, and volunteer role identity. Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres (2010) concluded that intrinsic motivations, such as values and understanding, as well as life satisfaction were important motivations for volunteering.

In a similar manner, researchers have identified a number of reasons that individuals stop volunteering. Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres (2010) found that extrinsic motivators, such as career and social pressures, contributed to burnout and caused individuals to stop volunteering. Cowlshaw, et al. (2010) conducted a quantitative study to test the work-family conflict (WFC) model to determine whether WFC contributed to declining membership in volunteer emergency services organizations. The authors found that study results supported the hypothesis that family pressures could lead to burnout and cause volunteers to quit. Finkelstein (2008a) concluded that not meeting volunteers' expectations caused volunteers to leave. Allen and Mueller (2013) determined that ambiguity in volunteers' role assignments and a perceived lack of ability to share ideas and make inputs on how tasks should be done can cause volunteers to leave.

Leadership style may also factor into whether volunteers leave or stay in their respective organizations. Avery (2004) addressed four principal leadership paradigms in her book. Classical leadership is characterized by leader dominance of followers through respect and/or power to command and control. Transactional leadership reflects interactions between the leader and follower to establish agreements in what is to be done

and in what manner. Visionary leadership introduces emotion or charisma into the equation; the leader inspires the followers. Organic leadership is characterized by mutual sense-making in the group and leaders may arise naturally out of the group instead of being appointed. In general terms, Avery contended that the closer a leader's style is to the classical paradigm, the less power an employee has, while the closer the leader's style is to the visionary or organic paradigm, the more empowered an employee is.

Northouse (2013) shared attributes of servant leadership, including putting the followers first, empowering them, and helping them to develop their full potential. Johnson (2015) described some of the attributes of servant leaders as integrity, empathy, organizational stewardship, commitment to the growth of the followers, vision, trust, delegation, empowerment, and appreciation of others. In a similar vein, Avery (2004) wrote that "a leader's sense of stewardship operates on two levels: stewardship for the followers, and stewardship of the mission or purpose that underlies the enterprise" (p. 130). CAP advocates the use of the servant leadership model, and teaches this approach to both adult and youth volunteers (Civil Air Patrol, 2013a; Civil Air Patrol, 2014c). CAP contends that the servant leadership style is the one that most closely reflects CAP's core values of integrity, volunteer service, excellence, and respect (Civil Air Patrol, 2010).

Considerable research has been devoted to examining the relationship between leadership style and paid employees. For example, Volmer, Niessen, Spurk, Linz, and Abele (2011) conducted a quantitative study that examined the reciprocal relationships between leader-member exchange (LMX) and job satisfaction. Strong LMX manifests itself in attributes such as follower satisfaction and enhanced job performance. Weak LMX manifests itself in attributes such as follower dissatisfaction, poorer job

performance, and the follower's intention to leave the place of employment. The authors found that study results confirmed the hypotheses in that LMX positively affected employee job satisfaction. Strong LMX was reflected by high job satisfaction scores, while low LMX was reflected by lower job satisfaction scores. In another case, Vincent-Höper and Muser (2012) conducted a quantitative study that examined the relationships between transformational leadership, work engagement, and subjective occupational success. The authors found positive relationships between transformational leadership, work engagement, and subjective occupational success for both men and women.

A number of researchers have examined the relationship between leadership style and volunteers. For example, Stirling, et al. (2011) conducted a mixed method study that examined how management practices match volunteers' expectations and thus affect volunteer sustainability. Their research questions focused on perception of management practices, the use of formal management practices, and which factors best predicted organizational sustainability. The authors determined that transactional management approaches were negatively associated with volunteer recruitment and retention. However, public recognition of volunteer contributions was positively linked to volunteer recruiting and retention. Green, Miller, and Aarons (2013) conducted a quantitative study that examined the effects of emotional exhaustion and transformational leadership on turnover intention. The authors found that transformational leadership moderated the relationship between emotional exhaustion and turnover intention.

Researchers have also explored what factors might impact a volunteer's intention to stay in his or her volunteer position (Allen & Mueller, 2013; Millette & Gagné, 2008; Van Vianen, et al., 2008). Clary et al. (1998) conducted a series of six studies that

investigated volunteer motivations. In their sixth study, they examined the role of motivation and benefits received with intention to continue volunteering. The authors learned that volunteers who received benefits matching their primary functional motivations were satisfied with their service and planned to continue volunteering.

Leadership style is often a key factor. Schneider and George (2011) conducted a quantitative study that tested the applicability of the transformational and servant leadership models to voluntary service clubs. The authors developed research questions to determine which model of leadership that volunteers would choose as best reflecting the behavior of their leaders. Additionally, the authors developed questions that explored the mediating effect of empowerment on satisfaction, commitment and intention to stay. The authors found that respondents chose the servant leadership model more frequently than the transformational leadership model as the model that more accurately characterized their volunteer leader. Additionally, empowerment mediated satisfaction, commitment, and intention to stay for both leadership models. Finally, Schneider and George determined there was a strong correlation between servant leadership and intention to stay.

Research Questions

Although limited, literature supports the relationship between leadership style and volunteer retention (Boezeman & Ellemers, 2009; Dwyer, Bono, Snyder, Nov, & Berson, 2013). Given evidence of the linkage between leadership style and volunteer retention, as expressed by volunteer intention to stay, the following three research questions were posited for adult and youth volunteers in CAP:

1. What is the relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay?

H₁: There is a relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay.

2. What is the relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay?

H₂: There is a relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay.

3. What is the relationship between the CAP member status of leader, adult volunteer, or youth volunteer, and the scores reflected on the *Servant Leadership Scale*?

H₃: Adult volunteers and youth volunteers will rate their leaders in a similar manner as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*.

H₄: Leaders will rate themselves at a similar level as adult volunteers and youth volunteers rate their leaders as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*.

Description of Terms

Adult volunteer. Within the context of CAP, an adult volunteer is known as a senior member and is 18 years of age or older (Civil Air Patrol, 2013b).

Civil Air Patrol (CAP). The auxiliary to the United States Air Force with three missions chartered by Congress: emergency services, cadet programs, and aerospace education (Civil Air Patrol, 2013b).

Intention to stay. The likelihood that an individual will choose to remain in his or her organization (Schneider & George, 2011).

Leadership. “The art and science of influencing and directing people to accomplish the assigned mission” (United States Air Force Doctrine Document 1-1, 2006, p. vi).

Leadership styles. “. . . how they relate to others within and outside the organization, how they view themselves and their position, and - to a very large extent - whether or not they are successful as leaders” (University of Kansas Community Toolbox, n.d., para 2).

Servant leadership. A leadership style that places an organization’s people before self, developing followers to meet their full potential, stewardship of the organization, integrity, empathy, vision, trust, delegation, empowerment, and appreciation of others (Johnson, 2015; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Northouse, 2013).

Youth volunteer. Within the context of CAP, a youth volunteer is known as a cadet, and is between 12 and 21 years of age (Civil Air Patrol, 2013b). Individuals over the age of 18 and until their 21st birthday have the option of volunteering as either a cadet or a senior member.

Volunteer. An unpaid worker in an organization (Bowers & Hamby, 2013).

Significance of the Study

Several researchers have examined the relationship between leadership style and employee intention to stay in the context of the paid workforce (Allen & Mueller, 2013; Elpers & Westhuis, 2008; Kelloway, et al., 2012). Less research has been conducted on the relationship between leadership style and volunteer intention to stay (Boezeman, &

Ellemers, 2007; Garner & Garner, 2011; Stringer, 2006). Little research has been discovered that uses the servant leadership model in examining the relationship between leadership style and volunteer intention to stay (Schneider & George, 2011). No literature has been discovered that examines the relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay.

The findings of this study could be of value to CAP. Study results could be used to help fine-tune the focus of leadership training in CAP's professional development program.

Process to Accomplish

The population was comprised of the active CAP adult and youth volunteers. As of November, 30, 2014, the population consisted of 34,493 adults and 24,002 youth for a total of 58,495 volunteers (Civil Air Patrol, 2014b). At the local level, volunteers are organized into squadrons, and there are over 1,500 squadrons in CAP. The leaders of these squadrons are called squadron commanders, and they comprised the population of leaders examined in this study (Civil Air Patrol, 2013b).

Simple random sampling was used to select samples that match CAP's overall population as closely as possible. Two hundred leaders, 200 adult volunteers, and 200 youth volunteers were selected randomly from the membership database maintained by CAP's National Headquarters.

The researcher collected demographics data using the following variables:

- Gender - discrete variable
- Age - continuous variable
- Race/ethnicity - discrete variable

- Length of service - continuous variable

The researcher collected data using the *Servant Leadership Scale* (Liden, et al., 2008). The *Servant Leadership Scale* is a survey that utilizes a 7-point Likert scale from one to seven, indicating the degree to which the respondent agrees with the statements presented in the survey. The survey is comprised of 28 items, with four items earmarked to each of seven characteristics of servant leadership. The seven characteristics, with corresponding Cronbach's alpha scores determined by Liden, et al. are:

- Conceptual skills, $\alpha = .81$
- Empowering, $\alpha = .80$
- Helping subordinates grow and succeed, $\alpha = .82$
- Putting subordinates first, $\alpha = .86$
- Behaving ethically, $\alpha = .83$
- Emotional healing, $\alpha = .76$
- Creating value for the community, $\alpha = .83$

The items required minor rewording in order to account for surveying volunteers instead of paid workers, and for specifying what leader was being evaluated. The revised survey was pilot tested to confirm that internal reliability was not compromised. An example of this rewording for item number 24 follows:

- Original wording: *My manager wants to know about my career goals.*
- Modified wording: *My squadron commander wants to know about my goals in CAP.*

Data on volunteer intention to stay in CAP was collected using a single question adapted from an item used by Schneider and George (2011). The item was also measured

using a 7-point Likert scale. The wording of this item was slightly modified to fit the context of surveying CAP volunteers:

- Original wording: *The likelihood of my continued membership in this club is high.*
- Modified wording: *The likelihood of my continued membership in CAP is high.*

A pilot test was conducted with the modified instrument in order to provide confidence that internal reliability was not compromised. The pilot test provided the opportunity to evaluate survey instructions and the consent form. For the pilot test, a squadron from New Mexico Wing was selected to participate, providing a sample size of 15 adult volunteers and 15 youth volunteers. The researcher explained to the volunteers the purpose, potential benefits, and potential risks of the research. Adult volunteers who agreed to participate completed the instrument via a web-based survey tool. Adult volunteers provided feedback on the consent forms, survey instructions, and the instrument itself. This feedback formed the basis for minor modifications before the broader study was conducted.

For the pilot test, packages were mailed to the home addresses of the youth volunteers. These packages contained the parental consent form, youth assent form, instructions, a copy of the instrument home for parent or guardian review and approval, and a pre-stamped and addressed envelope for returning the instrument and consent forms to the researcher. At a precoordinated follow-up date, the researcher met with the youth volunteers and gave them the opportunity to provide feedback on the consent forms, survey instructions, and the instrument itself. This feedback formed the basis for minor modifications before the broader study was conducted.

Separately, five current or former leaders in New Mexico Wing were invited to participate in the pilot test. They completed the survey via a web-based survey tool and provided feedback in the same manner as the adult volunteers.

For the broader study, the 200 leaders and 200 adult volunteers received an email that invited them to participate in the study. The email explained the purpose of the study, desired benefits, risk mitigation information, anonymity, and how the study was to be conducted. The email invitation included a hyperlink to a web-based survey tool that was utilized for administering the instrument and collecting the data. Instructions, the purpose of the study, and informed consent were incorporated into the online survey tool. The instructions also stressed that participation in the survey was voluntary. Leader and adult volunteer participants received the opportunity to obtain follow-up information regarding findings of the research. This debriefing information was located on the CAP professional development webpage.

For youth volunteer participation, individualized packets were mailed to each of the 200 randomly selected individuals. These packets contained an introductory letter, instructions for taking the survey, the purpose of the study, desired benefits, risk mitigation information, and how privacy would be safeguarded through confidentiality. A parental consent form, assent form for the youth volunteer, a copy of the instrument, and a stamped envelope for returning the materials to the researcher were also included in the packet. Instructions stressed that participation in the survey was voluntary. Youth volunteers returned the completed parental consent forms, youth assent forms, and instruments to the researcher using the pre-stamped and addressed envelope. Survey responses were entered into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for

analysis. Youth volunteer received the opportunity to obtain follow-up information regarding findings of the research.

Reminder emails were sent to the leader participants and the adult participants at the three-week and six-week points during the two-month window for participating in the survey. Youth participants were sent a reminder letter at the one-month point during the two-month period allowed for returning the material. The objective was to achieve a 50% completion rate for invited participants. However, as stressed by Salkind (2012), receiving an adequate number of responses to surveys can be problematic. As an incentive to participate, three \$100 gift certificates to the Vanguard online clothing store were awarded, one each to a leader, adult volunteer, and a youth volunteer.

The researcher performed the analysis using SPSS. Demographic data, such as gender, age, ethnicity and length of time in service was examined to identify differences among variables and groups. The researcher also examined the possible correlations between volunteer perception of leadership style and volunteer intention to stay in CAP. Appropriate descriptive statistics were derived, such as means, medians, and modes, which were graphically depicted for leader, adult volunteer, and youth volunteer responses to the seven factors of servant leadership plus the intention to stay item.

To answer the first question: *What is the relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay?*, a correlational analysis was conducted to assess the possible correlations between the ratings provided by participants regarding the servant leadership categories and the intention to stay, as well as the length of time in service. Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient was utilized for examining the relationships between servant leadership categories and intention to stay. These analyses

were used to assess whether or not there was a positive correlation between any of the servant leadership ratings and the intention to stay rating, as well as length of time in service.

To answer the second question: *What is the relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay?* the researcher used the same analytical approach as with the first question. The only difference was that the youth volunteers were examined instead of adult volunteers.

To answer the third question: *What is the relationship between CAP member status and the scores reflected on the Servant Leadership Scale?*, a series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted. Member status of leader, adult volunteer, and youth volunteer served as the independent variable while the rating achieved for each of the seven servant leadership factors served as the dependent variable. These analyses provided insight into whether the overall mean ratings across the different categories of member status differed in a statistically significant manner from one another, and whether any of the servant leadership factors had mean ratings that differed in a statistically significant manner from one another. Next, a single-factor between-groups ANOVA was conducted, with member status serving as the independent variable and intention to stay ratings serving as the dependent variable. This analysis allowed an assessment of any significant differences in the mean ratings across the three member categories regarding their intention to stay. Finally, a factorial ANOVA was conducted with group and gender of participant serving as the independent variables and aggregated *Servant Leadership Scale* scores serving as the dependent variable. This analysis allowed

an assessment of differences across categories rated and permitted a determination of whether there was an overall difference between genders regarding the average ratings.

Summary

The current study was designed to explore the relationship between leadership style and its impact on individuals' decisions about staying in CAP. The next chapter will expand on the literature related to the topics of leadership and intention to stay in CAP.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter examines the literature related to the association between leadership style and intention to stay in a volunteer organization. Motivations for volunteering will be examined, followed by motivations causing individuals to stop volunteering. Various models of leadership will be explored, with an emphasis on servant leadership. The relationship between leadership style and both paid employees and volunteers will be examined. Finally, factors influencing intention to stay for paid employees and for volunteers will be explored.

In the previous chapter, the researcher explained how volunteering is pervasive in the United States, with some 62.6 million people having volunteered between September 2012 and September 2013 (United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Allen and Mueller (2013) reported that the economic contribution to the United States due to volunteers is substantial: \$173 billion annually. According to Vecina et al. (2013), a related dynamic is that volunteers have become an essential part of many service-related nonprofit organizations.

Finkelstein (2008b) and Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres (2010) both noted that individuals choose to volunteer for a variety of reasons, some self-oriented and some other-oriented. Similarly, individuals choose to leave their volunteer positions for a

variety of reasons, such as burnout, lack of appreciation by leadership, and lack of positive feedback, as noted by several researchers (e.g., Fuller et al., 2006; Gazley, 2013; Marta, Pozzi, & Marzana, 2010; Millette & Gagné, 2008).

Researchers such as Volmer et al. (2011) and Vincent-Höper and Muser (2012) have concluded that leadership style has an impact on the satisfaction and productivity of paid employees. Although there is less literature available, researchers such as Stirling et al. (2011) have also determined that leadership style has an impact on volunteers. According to Avery (2004) and Green et al. (2013) volunteers generally respond better to more people-friendly leadership styles. Schneider and George (2011) discovered that servant leadership style was highly effective in volunteer settings.

A review of the literature has yielded a number of studies that explored the factors that can impact intention to stay for both paid employees and for volunteers (e.g., Allen & Mueller, 2013; Millette & Gagné, 2008; Van Vianen et al., 2008). Vincent-Höper and Muser (2012) stressed that, while there is a degree of commonality in factors affecting paid employees and volunteers, there are also key differences to which leaders of volunteers are urged to be sensitive.

Motivations to Volunteer

Researchers such as Dwiggins-Beeler, Spitzberg, and Roesch (2011) have noted considerable differences in motivations between paid employees and volunteers. While paid employees may be motivated by a paycheck or benefits, volunteers may be motivated by other intrinsic or extrinsic factors. Finkelstein (2008a) and Wilson (2012) both noted that individuals who volunteer can be motivated by more than one factor and that the importance of these motivational factors can change over the course of time.

There is also wide variance in how the terms intrinsic and extrinsic are used, which can be confusing to readers. Terminology for volunteer motivations that may be more consistently used and is perhaps less confusing is self-oriented and other-oriented motivations. This terminology is consistently utilized in a number of studies (e.g., Brayley et al., 2014; Cornelis, Van Hiel, & De Cremer, 2013; Marta et al., 2010; Newton, Becker, & Bell, 2014).

One framework for investigating motives for volunteering was especially prominent in the literature. Clary et al. (1998) conducted seminal work in the field of volunteer motives. Using a series of six quantitative studies, they proposed, tested, refined, and validated an instrument called the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). The VFI instrument is broadly used by researchers when examining volunteer motives. Examples of researchers utilizing the VFI instrument include Brayley et al. (2014), Dwiggins-Beeler et al. (2011), Finkelstein (2008b), and Newton et al. (2014). Clary et al. used functional analysis, which they described as “an approach that is explicitly concerned with the reasons and the purposes, the plans and the goals, that underlie and generate psychological phenomena – that is, the personal and social functions being served by an individual’s thoughts, feelings, and actions” (p. 1517). The functional analysis approach allowed Clary et al. to investigate the motives underlying the actions made by volunteers. The VFI instrument developed by them is designed to examine six motivational functions:

- Values. Altruism and care for others.
- Understanding. The opportunity to learn and practice new knowledge and skills.

- Social. The opportunity to spend time with friends or in an activity with people who are viewed favorably.
- Career. An individual may volunteer to learn a skill set deemed important to the individual's career.
- Protective. This function describes an individual who is motivated to volunteer in order to protect one's ego by reducing guilt or dealing with the individual's own personal problems.
- Enhancement. This function describes an individual who volunteers in order to increase self-esteem and grow psychologically.

Researchers have used the VFI instrument to examine volunteer motives of a variety of populations. For example, Brayley et al. (2014) used the VFI instrument to examine the demographic of older professionals who were retired, in transition to retire, or within two years of retirement. They hypothesized that individuals within this older population would chose to volunteer in order to continue practicing the professional skills they had developed during their careers. Brayley et al. modified the VFI instrument, dropping the motivation factor of career and adding a motivation factor entitled continuity in order to test their hypothesis. Based on the results of their research, Brayley et al. concluded that two motivational factors were statistically significant in their sample: values and continuity. Thus, their hypothesis was supported in that members of the sample stated they were motivated to volunteer in order to continue practicing their professional skill sets. In addition, members of the sample also displayed a strong values-oriented motivation to volunteer, indicating a sense of altruism and desire to give of themselves to others.

Cornelis et al. (2013) used the VFI instrument when examining self- and other-oriented behavior of volunteers in youth organizations. Cornelis et al. delved into whether individuals volunteered out of self-oriented motives or other-oriented motives. Cornelis et al. explained that self-oriented motivation was focused on egoism with associated characteristics such as anticipating praise, escaping possible guilt, and personal development. In contrast, Cornelis et al. contended that other-oriented motivation was focused on altruism, with associated characteristics such as increasing the welfare of others or contributing to the community. In mapping the VFI's six functions to self- or other-oriented focused motivations, Cornelis et al. claimed that only the VFI function of values mapped to other-focused motivation. They mapped the other five VFI factors – understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement – to self-oriented motivation.

Cornelis et al. (2013) conducted a quantitative study of 153 volunteer youth program leaders in order to determine the degree to which individuals volunteered for self- or other-oriented motivations. They concluded that their research demonstrated “that other-focused motives significantly contributed over and beyond self-oriented motives to explain volunteers’ engagement in extra-role volunteer behavior and volunteer satisfaction” (p. 462). According to Clary et al. (1998), extra role behavior refers to an individual performing work above and beyond what is normally expected of the position.

The use of self- and other-oriented terminology used by Brayley et al. (2014) and Cornelis et al. (2013) was also used by other researchers. For example, Marta et al. (2010) used the same terminology when reporting on their longitudinal, mixed methods study of volunteer motivations of young adults. Marta et al. conducted a study of 18 current and 18 former volunteers focused on determining the participants’ motivators for

volunteering as well as stopping their volunteering. Marta et al. concluded that other-focused motivations weighed more heavily than self-oriented motivations for causing young adults to volunteer.

Another framework used by a number of researchers, such as Bidee et al. (2013) and Haivas, Hofmans, and Pepermans (2014), for exploring volunteer motivators is the self-determination theory (SDT). Seminal work on applying SDT to the research of volunteer motivators was performed by Deci and Ryan (1985). Deci and Ryan contended that humans have a natural tendency towards growth, seeking challenges, extending their knowledge, and learning new skills. However, Deci and Ryan defined intrinsic and extrinsic motivations differently than did Clary et al. (1998). For Deci and Ryan, intrinsic motivation meant that a person would engage in an activity because she or he found the activity interesting and enjoyable. In contrast, people who are extrinsically motivated would engage in an activity because they could gain something from that activity.

Haivas et al. (2014) used Deci and Ryan's (1985) definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations in their quantitative study of adult volunteers. Haivas et al. mapped the VFI functions into intrinsic and extrinsic categories. Intrinsic motivations included values, understanding, and enhancement. Extrinsic motivations included social, career, and protective. Haivas et al. conducted a survey-based quantitative study designed to identify motivational factors leading to individuals choosing to volunteer. Haivas et al. concluded that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors were present in their sample.

Bidee et al. (2013) also used Deci and Ryan's (1985) definitions for intrinsic and extrinsic motivations in their SDT-focused research. Bidee et al. conducted a quantitative

study to investigate the relationship between volunteer motivation and self-reported work effort. Bidee et al. determined that intrinsic motivations came into play when an individual found an activity inherently interesting. On the other hand, extrinsic motivations came into play when individuals participated in an activity because they could gain something for themselves, avoid punishment, or receive an award.

In conclusion, as pointed out by Newton et al. (2014), people volunteer for a number of different motivations, including self-oriented and other-oriented motives. However, Finkelstein (2008a) emphasized that these motives can change over the course of one's volunteer experience. Attention will now shift to motivations which cause individuals to stop volunteering.

Motivations to Stop Volunteering

A number of authors (e.g., Fuller et al., 2006; Gazley, 2013; Marta et al., 2010; Millette & Gagné, 2008) stressed that individuals who chose to stop volunteering do so for a variety of reasons. Hustinx and Handy (2009) contended that reasons people cite for stopping volunteering fall into two broad categories: personal motivations and organizational motivations. A review of the literature supports the general concept of Hustinx and Handy's claim.

Tang, Morrow-Howell, and Choi (2010) opined that personal motivations to stop volunteering refer to events happening in people's lives that cause them to rearrange their priorities, at the expense of volunteering. Marta et al. (2010) added the nuance that individuals who stop volunteering often continue to hold the organization for which they volunteered in high regard and regret no longer being involved with the organization.

Hustinx and Handy (2009), Marta et al. (2010), and Tang et al. (2010) discovered that the most common personal motivator to stop volunteering was that more important priorities had emerged in the volunteer's life. Hustinx and Handy conducted a quantitative study of 751 current and former adult volunteers in Belgium. The authors noted that 410 of the former volunteers stated that a factor in their stopping was that their volunteering was interfering with their regular job or with their studies. In addition, Hustinx and Handy reported that 243 of the former volunteers stopped in order to spend more time with their families.

Marta et al. (2010) performed a longitudinal, mixed methods study of current and former young adult volunteers. They determined that most of the individuals who stopped volunteering did so because as they transitioned from teen years to adulthood, they found that other activities demanded their time. Many of these former volunteers spoke highly of their volunteer experiences and the friendships they formed in their volunteer organizations.

Tang et al. (2010) conducted a mixed methods study of older adults to determine their reasons for stopping their volunteer positions. The mean age of the sample was 72 years old. Similar to Hustinx and Handy (2009) and Marta et al. (2010), Tang et al. determined that the most common personal reason for these individuals stopping their volunteering was higher priorities entering their lives. In many cases, respondents stated that caring for an ailing spouse was the higher priority that caused them to drop out of volunteering. An additional factor cited by many of the respondents was that their own health was deteriorating, causing them to stop volunteering.

Allen and Mueller (2013) and Finkelstein (2008a) determined that organizational motives causing individuals to stop volunteering generally involved negative experiences with the organization. In addition, Hustinx and Handy (2009) determined that organization-related reasons for quitting fell into three categories: how the volunteer work was organized, the institutional structure of the organization, and a volunteer's affective experiences.

Hustinx and Handy (2009) stated that the manner in which an organization structured the work was at times a source of frustration for the volunteers. Former volunteers expressed dissatisfaction with their volunteer organizations when they were placed in activities that were not in alignment with the volunteer's preferences. Finkelstein (2008b) and Tang et al. (2010) came to similar conclusions in finding that a motivator for people to stop volunteering was a mismatch between the work that volunteers were expected to do and what their preferences were. Hustinx and Handy also discovered that former volunteers often cited a lack of support from the organization in the nature of training and materials as a motivator for them to stop volunteering. Tang et al. shared a similar finding, where inadequate training and material support of volunteer work was cited by many individuals as a reason to stop volunteering. Skoglund (2006) determined that many individuals quit volunteering because the organization provided poor initial training and, more often, no continuation training. The lack of training, or inadequate training, was a frustration for the former volunteers as they felt that quality training was important to help them be successful in their volunteer positions.

Hustinx and Handy's (2009) second organizational-related category for why individuals stop volunteering was the very nature of the organization itself. Some of the

respondents in Hustinx and Handy's study cited that their volunteer organization was too hierarchical, bureaucratic, and inflexible, causing the volunteers to become disenfranchised and quit. In addition, Hustinx and Handy shared that many respondents had issues with the quality of leadership in their organizations, which served as a motivator for the individuals to quit volunteering.

Other researchers reached conclusions similar to Hustinx and Handy (2009), with organizational-related factors serving as motivators for individuals to quit volunteering. Tang et al. (2010) determined that a commonly-cited reason for individuals to stop volunteering was the organization's leadership. Marta et al. (2010) shared that many respondents in their study said they stopped volunteering because of bad experiences with the volunteer organization's leadership.

Hustinx and Handy (2009) offered that a third category of organization-relative motive for individuals to stop volunteering was their affective experiences. Affective experiences in the organization referred to the volunteers' "feelings of satisfaction, recognition, and appreciation" (p. 249). One challenge reported by respondents was poor interpersonal dynamics with other volunteers, to include gossiping, quarreling, and a lack of team spirit. Hustinx and Handy also shared that many respondents reported that the lack of recognition for their volunteer contributions served as a motivator to quit. Finally, many of Hustinx and Handy's respondents perceived that the organization's leadership did not trust them to possess the skills needed to perform their assigned duties.

Other researchers reported findings that map to Hustinx and Handy's (2009) affective component of organizational-related motives. Finkelstein et al. (2005) concluded that the lack of appreciation for their contributions caused individuals to stop

volunteering. Marta et al. (2010) reported that many former volunteers stopped their involvement with their organizations because of unpleasant interpersonal relationships with other volunteers.

Understanding the motivators to stop volunteering is an important part of the equation; understanding how the volunteer gets to the point of quitting is also important. Many authors, such as Allen and Mueller (2013), use the term burnout for the process that an individual undergoes to reach the decision to stop volunteering.

Allen and Mueller (2013) conducted a quantitative study in which they proposed burnout to be an antecedent to volunteer intention to quit. Allen and Mueller considered burnout to be the result of continued work-related stresses experienced by employees and volunteers. They determined that burnout is manifested in three characteristics: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion is caused by continued drain of energy while under stress. Depersonalization refers to an individual's emotional withdrawal and personality change, often characterized by cynicism. Diminished personal accomplishment is due to an individual's loss of self-esteem, sense of insufficiency, and demotivation.

Allen and Mueller (2013) used the conservation of resources theory to help explain how a volunteer becomes burned out. Under the conservation of resources theory, an individual works for and stores things that are of value to him or her. In the context of volunteering, storing things of value equates to the storing of emotional reserves. When stresses are placed on the volunteer these emotional reserves dwindle. If the emotional reserves are not recharged through praise, training, or other positive reinforcement, a time comes when the individual's emotional reserves are exhausted and the individual faces

burnout. Allen and Mueller stated that, at that point the individual often finds the easy option is to stop volunteering.

Allen and Mueller (2013) concluded that volunteer perception of burnout was positively related to volunteer intention to quit. In addition, Allen and Mueller noted that there were two strong predictors of burnout: perception of lack of voice and role ambiguity. Perception of lack of voice occurs when volunteers believe that they are not allowed to provide ideas or that their ideas will not be accepted or respected. Role ambiguity refers to uncertainty when volunteers have doubts about their job responsibilities, how their responsibilities are supposed to be performed, or how they are to conduct themselves in their positions. Allen and Mueller determined that perceived lack of voice or role ambiguity could lead to burnout and volunteer intention to quit.

Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres (2010) also examined the issue of burnout in volunteers. They conducted a quantitative study of volunteers designed to explore dynamics related to volunteer burnout. Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres slightly modified the three characteristics of burnout. Whereas Allen and Mueller (2013) used burnout characteristics of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and low personal accomplishment, Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres used exhaustion, cynicism, and professional efficacy. Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres hypothesized that there would be two antecedents to volunteer burnout. The first antecedent was predicted to be the amount of time dedicated to volunteering. The second antecedent was predicted to be two of the VFI extrinsic motivational factors developed by Clary et al. (1998): social motivation and career motivation. Based on the results of the study, Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres concluded that the amount of time spent volunteering, social motivation, and career

motivation were antecedents of volunteer burnout. In addition, Moreno-Jiménez and Villodres determined that the VFI factors of values and understanding, life satisfaction, and integration into the volunteer organization were negatively related to burnout.

A final example of volunteer burnout is the quantitative study of volunteers conducted by Cowlshaw et al. (2010). They adapted the work family conflict model to determine whether volunteers' involvement in emergency services contributed to family conflict which in turn could lead to volunteer burnout and a decision to stop volunteering. Based on the results of their study, Cowlshaw et al. concluded that individuals with higher levels of time committed to volunteer emergency services witnessed decreased amounts of family support for their volunteering. The drop in family support contributed to volunteers reporting symptoms of burnout and choosing to stop their volunteer commitments.

In conclusion, researchers such as Allen and Mueller (2013), Finkelstein (2008a), and Marta et al. (2010) concluded that a number of motivating factors can lead to individuals electing to stop volunteering. One of the recurring motivations causing volunteers to quit was problems with leadership. Leadership styles will be examined next in order to set the stage for examining the potential impacts of leadership style on volunteers.

Leadership Styles

Examining various leadership styles is an important step to take before addressing the potential impacts that leadership style may have on employees and volunteers. Leadership styles cover a complete spectrum and, according to Avery (2004), are defined largely by how leaders derive their power, the amount of power followers have, and the

amount of consideration the leader gives to the follower. There are great differences of opinion about the definition and description of leadership styles. Accordingly, Yukl (2010) stated that the differences are “not just a case of scholarly nit-picking; they reflect deep disagreement about identification of leaders and leadership processes” (p. 21).

The consensus of many authors and researchers (e.g., Boykins, Campbell, Moore, & Nayyar, 2013; Northouse, 2013; Novac & Bratanov, 2014) is that leadership style is situation-dependent; a leader may exercise several styles based on the particular scenario he or she encounters. In addition, Bowers and Hamby (2013) and Dwyer et al. (2013) noted that leadership styles which might work well with a paid workforce can be counterproductive with volunteers. Stressing the point that volunteers benefit from different leadership styles than paid employees, Stirling et al. (2011) stated that “volunteers want appreciation and a caring management approach; one limited in autocratic and bureaucratic interactions” (p. 324).

The spectrum of leadership styles that are detailed by Avery (2004) range from leader-focused to follower-focused, and are entitled classical, transactional, visionary, and organic. Kelloway et al. (2012) noted that the terms visionary leadership and transformational leadership are often used interchangeably. Servant leadership is only addressed briefly by Avery, but it is the subject of a growing amount of literature (e.g., Liden et al., 2008; Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009; Schneider & George, 2011; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). Servant leadership will be addressed last in this section because it is the major focus of this current study.

The classical leadership model is characterized by Avery (2004) as a style with a high degree of power in the leader and little to no power for followers. Leaders dominate

through respect and the power to wield command and control over their organization. Followers demonstrate commitment to the organization out of respect for, or fear of, the leader and to gain rewards while avoiding punishment. Avery stated that in this model, a leadership vision is often not necessary in order to gain follower compliance to the leader's stated directives. Stringer (2006) agreed, noting that the classical leadership style is often maligned as not well-suited for today's fast-growing and diverse work environment.

The transactional leadership model is next on Avery's (2004) continuum, and it is characterized by a slightly-more focused look at the perspective of the followers. In this leadership model, the leader interacts and negotiates with followers to establish agreements over responsibilities, goals, and the organization's direction. While the leader exercises great influence over the followers in this model, the leader also takes the desires of the followers into consideration. As a result, flexibility in management approaches can be implemented given the dynamics of the workplace environment. Clinebell, Škudienė, Trijonyte, and Reardon (2013) characterized the exchange between leader and followers as an exchange based on self-interests and a calculation of costs versus benefits. Ruggieri and Abbate (2013) further characterized leader actions in this dynamic as a series of negotiations in which the leader attempts to influence followers to pursue certain actions.

The next leadership model on Avery's (2004) continuum is the visionary leadership model. Visionary leaders are more considerate of followers. In this model, leaders use emotion or charisma to inspire followers to pursue a certain course of action through a common shared vision. Articulation of the leader's vision is thus a central

tenant to this leadership model. Kelloway et al. (2012) noted that people often use the terms visionary leadership and transformational leadership interchangeably.

Organic leadership is the last of Avery's (2004) leadership model and the one most focused on the power of followers. In this model, leadership is derived by mutual agreement within groups. Leaders may not be appointed formally, but rise from within the group informally. Followers join a group because they buy into the group's shared values and processes. As a result, there is a high degree of self-determination in what a follower does within an organization. Vision emerges from within the group and becomes a strong cultural element in defining a group's characteristics.

A growing amount of literature is focused on the topic of transformational leadership. As Kelloway et al. (2012) noted, "transformational leadership theory has attracted more research attention than all other leadership theories combined" (p. 39). Schneider and George (2011) defined transformational leadership as "the ability to motivate and to encourage intellectual stimulation through inspiration" (p. 61). Other authors, such as Northouse (2013), Purvanova et al. (2006), and Sendjaya et al. (2008) characterized transformational leaders as charismatic and inspirational.

In his seminal article entitled "From Transactional to Transformational Leadership: Learning to Share the Vision," Bass (1990) laid the foundation for transformational leadership theory. He articulated four characteristics of the transformational leadership model.

- Idealized influence, which refers to the degree to which the leader is admired, respected and trusted.

- Inspirational motivation, where the leader promotes a common vision to the followers. In addition, the leader helps followers to discern meaning to their work and how their contributions help the organization to achieve its vision.
- Intellectual stimulation, in which the leader stimulates followers to think in new and different ways. Innovation and creativity on the part of followers is supported by the transformational leader.
- Individual consideration, where the leader takes into account the specific needs of the organization's followers. The leader then works to promote the followers' growth and development.

Clinebell et al. (2013) and Ruggieri and Abatte (2013) stressed that having a common vision shared between leader and followers is a trademark of transformational leadership. Clinebell, et al. determined that this shared vision enables employees to accept the purpose and mission of the group. Leaders practicing this approach are able to influence followers by linking work that the employees value so that they move past self-interest and come to see their work as an act of self-expression. Clinebell et al., Dwyer et al. (2013), and Purvanova et al. (2006) noted that, in turn, this feeling of self-expression increases employee confidence, group identification, and group cohesion.

Although there are many similarities between transformational and servant leadership styles, authors and researchers such as Liden et al. (2008), Parolini et al. (2009), and Sendjaya et al. (2008) contended that there are also significant differences. Sendjaya et al. opined that transformational leaders inspire followers to pursue organizational goals, whereas servant leaders focus on developing followers as the means by which to meet organizational goals. Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2004) emphasized

that “organizational goals will be achieved on a long-term basis only by first facilitating the growth, development, and general well-being of individuals who comprise the organization” (p. 355). Another key difference noted by Parolini et al. and Sendjaya, et al. is that, whereas there may be cases in which transformational leaders have questionable ethical standards, a leading characteristic of servant leaders is their strong sense of ethics. Liden et al. (2008) expounded on these differences between transformational and servant leaders. Servant leaders, Liden et al. shared, stress personal integrity, focus on long-term relationships with followers and stakeholders, and serve many stakeholders both internal and external to the organization.

Greenleaf (1977) laid the groundwork in establishing the servant leadership model. He shared that “the servant leader is servant first. It begins with a natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead” (p.27). Greenleaf stressed that a servant leader focuses on other people’s priorities before her or his own. Servant leaders have a sense of self-awareness often not found in other leaders due to their sense of altruism.

Greenleaf (1977) further contended that servant leaders develop followers across a spectrum of skills, such as task effectiveness, community stewardship, self-motivation, and future leadership capabilities. The first step, according to Greenleaf, is one-on-one meetings between the servant leader and the follower to ascertain the follower’s goals and aspirations. Next, the servant leader helps the follower to achieve these goals and aspirations through building the follower’s self-confidence, serving as a role model, inspiring trust, and providing the follower with needed information, feedback, and resources.

Other authors have built upon Greenleaf’s (1977) theory of servant leadership. For example, Waterman (2011) stated that “if followers are treated as ends in themselves, rather than means to an end, they will reach their potential and so perform optimally” (p. 25). Schneider and George (2011) stressed the ethical underpinnings of servant leaders, as well as their altruistic nature to care for others before themselves. Characteristics of servant leaders defined by Johnson (2015) and Waterman are summarized in Figure 1.

Integrity	Listening
Empathy	Healing
Organizational stewardship	Awareness
Commitment to growth of followers	Persuasion
Vision	Conceptualization
Trust	Foresight
Delegation	Building community
Empowerment	Appreciation of others

Figure 1. Characteristics of Servant Leaders

The Civil Air Patrol (CAP) advocates the use of the servant leadership model, and teaches this approach to both adult and youth volunteers (Civil Air Patrol, 2013a; Civil Air Patrol, 2014c). CAP contends that the servant leadership style is the one that most closely reflects CAP’s core values of integrity, volunteer service, excellence, and respect (Civil Air Patrol, 2010). As a result, the researcher focused on the servant leadership model for this current study. A review of the literature regarding the impact of leadership style on paid employees and volunteers will be presented next.

Impact of Leadership Style on Employees or Volunteers

A considerable amount of research has been devoted to the impact of leadership style on paid employees. This emphasis on leadership reflects a growing awareness by researchers such as Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), Elpers and Westhuis (2008), and McMurray, Islam, Sarros, and Pirola-Merlo (2012) that there may be a link between leadership style and factors such as employee satisfaction, engagement, and productivity. In this section, a review of the literature will first reveal some of the more common approaches to investigating the relationship between leadership style and paid employees. Next, a review of the literature will examine research devoted to the relationships between leadership style and volunteers.

Kelloway et al. (2012) noted that much of the research about leadership and employees has focused on transformational leadership. One of the common tools researchers have used for examining transformational leadership is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), developed by Bass and Avolio (1997). The MLQ instrument is designed to measure the degree to which an individual displays attributes of transformational leadership. Four subscales are measured: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration.

Purvanova et al. (2006), using the MLQ, conducted a quantitative study to examine two sets of relationships: the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' perceptions of the meaningfulness of their work, and the relationship between employees' job perceptions and their citizen performance as rated by their supervisors. Purvanova et al. hypothesized that citizenship behaviors included traits such as "altruism, courtesy, peacemaking, cheerleading, sportsmanship, generalized

compliance, conscientiousness, and civic virtue” (p. 3). Based on the data from their research, Purvanova et al. concluded there was a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ sense of having meaningful work. In addition, Purvanova et al. determined that there was also a strong relationship between employees’ perceptions of the meaningfulness of work and employee’s citizenship behavior. Purvanova et al.’s conclusion was that transformational leadership had a direct and positive bearing on the degree of employee citizenship behavior.

In a related study, Kelloway et al. (2012) used the MLQ in a series of two quantitative studies designed to examine the relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ psychological well-being. In their first study, they identified a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being. In their second study, Kelloway et al. compared the relationship of transactional leadership and employee psychological well-being with the relationship of transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being. As a result of their research, Kelloway et al. determined there was a strong negative relationship between transactional leadership style and employee psychological well-being. In contrast, they validated the strong relationship between transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being which they had also seen in their first study.

Ruggieri and Abbate (2013) also compared the effects of transactional and transformational leadership styles. They used the MLQ instrument in their quantitative study to examine the relationship of each of the two leadership styles with team identification and leader self-sacrifice. Ruggieri and Abbate determined that

transformational leadership evoked higher levels of team identification than did transactional leadership. In addition, Ruggieri and Abbate concluded that transformational leaders developed deeper bonds with their employees, whereas transactional leaders had lower levels of interaction.

Clinebell et al. (2013) used a modification of the MLQ instrument to compare transactional and transformational leadership styles. They investigated the impact of each leadership style on employees' affective and normative commitment. Clinebell et al. explained that affective commitment means an employee stays in a job because he or she wants to. Antecedents of affective commitment include personal, job, and structural characteristics, plus work experiences. Normative commitment refers to employees who stay in their jobs because they feel they ought to do so. Antecedents to normative commitment include previous and current employment experiences. Clinebell et al. determined that the results of their research demonstrated that transformational leadership style had a higher positive relationship to both affective and normative employee commitment than did transactional leadership style.

Two final examples of researchers examining transformational research using the MLQ instrument are Vincent-Höper and Muser (2012), and Green et al. (2013). Vincent-Höper and Muser conducted a gender-sensitive quantitative study designed to determine differences in the relationships between male and female employees and their leaders. Participants were queried on their leader's behavior, the employee's work engagement, and the organization's occupational success. Vincent-Höper and Muser noted a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee work engagement, and between transformational leadership and occupational success.

Green et al. (2013) conducted a quantitative study of community mental health providers to determine the relationships between transformational leadership, and employee mental exhaustion and turnover intention. Among their conclusions Green et al. determined that transformational leadership was negatively related to employee emotional exhaustion which, in turn, was an antecedent to burnout.

Nielson, Randall, Yarker, and Brenner (2008) used a different approach to address areas that Purvanova et al. (2006) and Kelloway et al. (2012) also examined. Nielson et al. conducted a longitudinal study with an 18-month period between testing. They examined two sets of relationships in their study. Like Purvanova et al., Nielson et al. examined the relationship between transformational leadership and employee perception of the meaningfulness of their work. Nielson et al. also examined the relationship between transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being, the same topic addressed by Kelloway et al. Nielson et al. came to the same conclusions as did their colleagues. They discovered strong positive relationships between transformational leadership and employee perception of meaningful work as well as with employee psychological well-being.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory is frequently used as a framework by which to examine the impact that leadership has on paid employees, as evidenced by work conducted by researchers such as Schyns and Wolfram (2008), Stringer (2006), and Volmer et al. (2011). LMX theory is concerned with the quality of the relationship between leaders and followers. According to Stringer, strong LMX indicates a healthy relationship characterized by follower satisfaction and effectiveness, whereas weak LMX would be characterized by follower dissatisfaction, lower productivity, stress, etc.

Volmer et al. (2011) used LMX theory as the construct to examine the reciprocal relationship between LMX and job satisfaction. They constructed a longitudinal study with an 18-month period between Time 1 and Time 2 in order to investigate the idea of a reciprocal relationship. Volmer et al. hypothesized that LMX and job satisfaction would be positively related at both Time 1 and Time 2, that LMX at Time 1 would positively predict job satisfaction at Time 2, and that job satisfaction at Time 1 would positively predict the quality of LMX at Time 2. Volmer et al. concluded that data from their research supported their hypotheses. They determined that “the more people are satisfied with their work at Time 1, the more they engage in positive LMX relationships; the more people engage in positive LMX relationships, the more job satisfaction increases” (p. 535).

Stringer (2006) employed LMX theory to examine the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction. Stringer focused on examining whether two types of needs were being met for employees: hygiene and motivator. Stringer explained that hygiene needs, also called extrinsic needs, refer to the context in which the work is performed. Hygiene needs include factors such as “supervision, interpersonal relationships, physical working conditions, fair pay, benefits, job security, etc.” (p. 130). Stringer explained that meeting an employee’s hygiene needs yields a neutral state of neither satisfaction nor dissatisfaction. Motivator needs, also called intrinsic needs, refer to “the nature and consequence of work and includes contributing factors such as desirable and challenging work assignments, recognition of achievement, responsibility, and advancement” (p. 130). Meeting motivator needs results in employee satisfaction, while failure to meet motivator needs results in employee dissatisfaction. Based on the data from his

quantitative study, Stringer concluded that strong LMX was positively related to employee satisfaction. This positive relationship, Stringer determined, was present in satisfying both sets of employees' needs: hygiene and motivator.

Not all studies employing LMX delivered the results researchers were expecting. Schyns and Wolfram (2008) employed LMX theory in a quantitative study to examine three sets of leader-follower relationships. First, they hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship between LMX and followers' satisfaction and organizational commitment. Second, Schyns and Wolfram hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship between LMX and performance. Finally, they hypothesized that there would be a positive relationship between LMX and self-efficacy and a negative relationship between LMX and followers' irritation. Schyns and Wolfram explained that self-efficacy refers to employees considering themselves capable of performing particular behaviors in support of their jobs. They were surprised with the results of the study; little support was offered for their hypotheses. Schyns and Wolfram surmised that their results could have been due to leaders and followers assessing their relationships using different criteria. Leaders are more focused on performance, whereas followers are more focused on attitudes and well-being.

There is little available literature exploring the relationship between servant leadership style and paid employees. Ehrhart (2004) conducted a quantitative study designed to examine organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) at the organization level instead of the individual level. Ehrhart explained that the norm in research is to examine OCB at the individual level. Dimensions of individual OCB, Ehrhart shared, include helping other employees with heavy workloads, mentoring new employees, and taking a

personal interest in others within the organization. Ehrhart emphasized that it is important to examine the impact of leadership style at the organizational level, not just the personal level. He surmised that dimensions of organizational OCB include participating in the organization at levels above the norm, conserving the organization's resources, and following organizational rules. Ehrhart determined that his research demonstrated that there was a strong positive relationship between servant leadership style and strong organization-level OCB. Ehrhart concluded that "when leaders recognize and respond to their responsibility to work for the good of their subordinates and other stakeholders, the unit they lead will, as a whole, feel that they are treated fairly" (p. 81).

There is limited literature available addressing the relationship between leadership style and volunteers. Of the literature that is available, many of the research approaches that are used for volunteers are the same ones used when examining the paid workforce. Also, as with the literature focused on the paid workforce, there is a larger percentage of literature devoted to examining the impact of transformational leadership on volunteers.

Dwyer et al. (2013) used the MLQ instrument in a quantitative study involving volunteers. The focus of the study was on the relationship between transformational leadership and volunteer motivations on volunteer's satisfaction and contributions. Dwyer et al. found the results of their research to be somewhat surprising. As expected, both transformational leadership style and volunteer motivations were positively associated with volunteer satisfaction "through enhanced work meaningfulness and higher-quality team relationships" (p. 181). However, Dwyer et al. concluded that transformational leadership style was not positively related to volunteer contribution.

They surmised that volunteer contributions may be driven more by factors other than leadership style, such as personal motives and time constraints.

Bang (2011) conducted a quantitative study of volunteer leaders and followers from 29 nonprofit sports organizations using web-based and paper-based surveys. He used LMX theory to examine whether LMX would serve as a predictor of job satisfaction among volunteer leaders and followers. Bang explained that the four dimensions of LMX are affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. He concluded that the LMX dimensions of affect and professional respect were significant predictors of job satisfaction.

Stirling et al. (2011) and Taylor et al. (2006) used psychological contract theory to explore the relationships between leaders and volunteers. According to Stirling et al., psychological contract theory has been used frequently in studies of the relationships between employers and employees. The theory involves expectations on behalf of both employees and managers that go beyond what is found in formal work agreements. Employee expectations include job security, training, and a sense of community by being a part of the work organization. In exchange, managers expect employees to provide loyalty and engagement in the workplace. Stirling et al. conducted a mixed methods study of managers designed to explore how volunteer management practices matched volunteer expectations. Using the results of interviews and surveys, Stirling et al. determined there was a mismatch of expectations between managers and volunteers. Volunteers maintained a perception that their psychological contract entailed organizational management that was proactive and not bureaucratic. However, many volunteers were frustrated at the bureaucratic management style they encountered.

Volunteers viewed relational aspects of the psychological contract as important. Relational aspects the volunteers highlighted included recognition for volunteers' contributions to their organizations plus effective communication between staff and volunteers.

Taylor et al. (2006) conducted a qualitative study using psychological contract theory. In their study they focused on the relational aspects of the psychological contract between managers and volunteers. Taylor et al. designed their study around two subcomponents of the relational contract: good faith and fairness, and intrinsic job characteristics. Good faith and fairness refers to perceptions about how the volunteer is being treated. Intrinsic job characteristics refer to the degree to which the position satisfies the volunteer's needs. In conducting their study, Taylor et al. first held a series of focus group meetings with managers to ascertain common volunteer management approaches. They then conducted telephone interviews with volunteers. Taylor et al. determined that, similar to Stirling et al. (2011), there was a difference in expectations between managers and volunteers. In the area of good faith and fairness dealing, volunteers were much more adamant than managers about the importance of open communication and being consulted about their opinions. Regarding intrinsic characteristics, Taylor et al. determined that managers and volunteers were like-minded in their passion for the cause they were volunteering to support. However, within intrinsic characteristics, working characteristics were a source of irritation for volunteers. Volunteers perceived additional bureaucratic requirements being levied on them which added to their workload and increased their levels of frustration.

Similar to the literature addressing leadership and paid employees, some of the literature investigating volunteers also compared leadership styles. McMurray, Islam, Sarros, and Pirola-Merlo (2012) conducted a quantitative study designed to examine the relative impacts of transactional and transformational leadership styles on volunteer workgroup climate and workgroup performance. McMurray et al. expressed surprise over their findings. Transactional leadership displayed a strong positive relationship to workgroup climate. McMurray et al. surmised the reason for this positive relationship might have been due to volunteers requiring increased levels of direction and instruction in order to perform their duties. Also, McMurray et al. concluded that transformational leadership style had a stronger positive relationship to workgroup performance than did transactional leadership.

Schneider and George (2011) conducted a quantitative study in which they examined which leadership model best described volunteer leaders: transformational or servant. Schneider and George's study focused on volunteers involved with eight local clubs that were part of a national voluntary service organization. Schneider and George determined that the servant leadership style was a stronger predictor than transformational leadership for volunteer commitment and satisfaction. A key factor highlighted by Schneider and George was that volunteers' perception of empowerment mediated the relationship between servant leadership and volunteers' degree of satisfaction, commitment, and intention to stay.

Some researchers took a different approach towards examining the interaction of leadership style and volunteers. For example, Parris and Peachey (2012) performed a qualitative case study of the leader of a highly successful cause-related sporting event.

Through this case study, Parris and Peachey desired to characterize the leadership style that had made this particular annual event so successful. They conducted a series of personal interviews, document analysis, and personal observation. As a result of their analysis, Parris and Peachey determined that the leader of the annual cause-related event exhibited traits of servant leadership. Parris and Peachey shared that the servant leadership characteristics were:

- Generating a shared vision dedicated to helping others.
- Building a caring and loving community.
- Helping followers grow into becoming servant leaders themselves.

The literature demonstrates that leadership style has a direct impact on both paid employees and volunteers. Ehrhart (2004), Green et al. (2013), Purvanova et al. (2006), and Schneider and George (2011) stressed that more follower-focused leadership styles such as transformational and servant leadership had positive relationships with dynamics such as follower satisfaction, engagement, and effectiveness. In contrast, Clinebell et al. (2013), Lopez, Green, Carmody-Bubb, and Kodatt (2011), and McMurray et al. (2012) pointed out that leadership styles that are less follower-focused, such as classical and transactional, had negative relationships with the same dynamics. The next section will address a related topic: the relationship between leadership style and volunteer intention to stay.

The Relationship between Leadership Style and Intention to Stay

There is a limited amount of literature available that addresses the relationship of leadership style and intention to stay. In this section an explanation of intention to stay is provided. Next, relevant literature on the impact of leadership style and intention to stay

is provided for paid employees and volunteers. Note that different terminology is used by different authors for the concept of whether an individual elects to stay or leave an organization. Terms include retention, intention to stay, intention to quit, turnover intention, and intention to remain.

Hildago and Moreno (2009) considered the concept of intention to remain to be an intermediate variable that is a predictor of a person's length of tenure in an organization. As an intermediate variable, Hildago and Moreno contended that intention to remain can be calculated from other variables, including organizational commitment, the level of conflict in the organization, and the individual's level of satisfaction with his or her assigned task.

Hildago and Moreno (2009) noted that most research into intention to remain is conducted at the individual level. However, individuals actually work, or volunteer, in an organization and the context of organizational dynamics are often overlooked. Hildago and Moreno noted that these dynamics included instruction about the task, the nature of the task itself, training, management and leadership practices, social networking, and social support from the organization.

There is a limited amount of literature addressing the impact that leadership style may have on paid employee intention to stay. Green et al. (2013) conducted a quantitative study designed to examine the relationship between transformational leadership, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intention. As discussed earlier, Green et al. considered emotional exhaustion to be an antecedent to burnout, which would increase the likelihood of an individual quitting his or her job. As a result of their research, Green et al. confirmed that emotional exhaustion was positively related to turnover intention.

However, they also determined that transformational leadership style was negatively related to both emotional exhaustion and turnover intention. Green et al. concluded that transformational leadership style had a positive effect in mitigating emotional exhaustion and boosting employees' likelihood of remaining with their current employers.

Gray and Muramatsu (2013) and Dawley, Houghton, and Bucklew (2010) conducted very different studies but came to conclusions similar to Green et al. (2013) about the positive role of supervisor support. Gray and Muramatsu conducted a quantitative study designed to examine the relationships between work stress and resources on employee intention to quit. Elements of work stress that they examined included work overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, and lack of participation in the decision-making process. Gray and Muramatsu explained that there are two categories of resources that an employee has: psychological and sociological. They contended that psychological resources center around a person's locus of control, which is either internal or external. People who have an internal locus of control feel that they have greater control of their work environment. People who have an external locus of control believe that they have little control over their work environment. Through their research, Gray and Muramatsu determined that only one work stress element – work overload – had a direct and positive relationship with employee intention to quit. Gray and Muramatsu also determined there was a direct relationship between supervisor support and intention to quit. The stronger an employee's perception of supervisor support, the lower was his or her intention to quit. Gray and Muramatsu attributed this positive dynamic to the contributions supervisors made in clarifying job responsibilities, setting realistic job

expectations, responding to employees' concerns, and mitigating conflicts among staff members.

Dawley et al. (2010) conducted a quantitative study to investigate two dynamics that might influence employee turnover intention. First, they investigated the mediating effect of job fit on the relationship between perceived supervisor support and perceived organizational support. In addition, Dawley et al. investigated the mediating role of personal sacrifice and turnover intention. Among their findings, Dawley et al. determined that there was a strong, positive impact by leadership in mitigating employee turnover intention. This positive impact of leadership is consistent with Gray and Muramatsu's (2013) conclusions on the role of leadership. Dawley et al. determined that employee perception of supervisor support was positively related to employee perception of organizational support. In turn, employee perception of organizational support resulted in reduced turnover intention.

Much of the literature on the impact of leadership style and intention to stay for volunteers addresses aspects of the quality of the volunteer experience (e.g., Bang, 2011; Hildago & Moreno, 2009; Pauline, 2011; Schneider & George, 2011; Waters & Bortree, 2012). Hildago and Moreno conducted a quantitative study designed to examine the effect that factors of organizational socialization have on volunteer intention to remain. As described earlier, Hildago and Moreno stressed that many studies of employee or volunteer intention to remain are focused in the individual. However, employees and volunteers usually work in group settings and are affected by group dynamics. Hildago and Moreno employed the concept of organizational socialization to explain these group dynamics.

Hildago and Moreno (2009) focused on five factors of organizational socialization: social networks, training, understanding, social support in the organization, and characteristics of the assigned task. As a result of their analysis, Hildago and Moreno determined that four factors of organizational socialization were predictors of volunteer intention to remain: social networks, organizational support, characteristics of the assigned task, and training. Social networks proved to be the single largest predictor of volunteer intention to remain. Hildago and Moreno explained that leaders will enhance volunteer retention by providing a healthy organizational climate in which volunteers form affective bonds with one another. In addition, leaders will enhance volunteer retention by matching volunteers to tasks which the volunteers find interesting and assigning them a degree of autonomy in performing their tasks. Finally, providing training opportunities to volunteers to help them hone their skills positively affects intention to remain.

As discussed in the previous section, Schneider and George (2011) conducted a quantitative study designed to compare two leadership styles: transformational and servant leadership. Schneider and George concluded that servant leadership was a stronger predictor of volunteer commitment, satisfaction, and intention to stay. In addition, they determined that when leaders empowered volunteers to perform assigned tasks the result was a marked improvement in volunteer intention to stay.

Bang (2011) used LMX theory to explore two sets of relationships. First, Bang investigated the influences of the four dimensions of LMX on volunteer leaders' and followers' satisfaction. Second, the author assessed the influences of LMX and satisfaction on volunteer leaders' and followers' intention to stay. The four dimensions of

LMX that Bang studied were affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. Bang was surprised with the results of his study: affect, loyalty, and contribution were not related to volunteer leaders' and followers' satisfaction. The one LMX dimension that was positively related to satisfaction and intention to stay was professional respect. Bang stated that professional respect refers to the perception that leaders and followers have of each other's professional and personal reputations. Bang concluded that volunteer organizations should facilitate interpersonal relationships between leaders and followers so as to foster a sense of trust and respect.

A common theme that researchers such as Montgomery (2006) and Newton et al. (2014) have identified is the positive impact that providing training opportunities to volunteers has on volunteer intention to stay. Montgomery investigated the relationship between availability of training opportunities and the retention of youth volunteers in CAP. As a result of his research Montgomery determined there were two significant factors affecting CAP youth volunteers' intention to stay: the quality of leadership and the availability of training opportunities. Montgomery's work was highly relevant to the current study for two reasons. First, it is the only scholarly research that had been conducted on CAP, the organization from which the samples were drawn for the current study. Second, Montgomery's work was the only evidence in the literature of youth volunteers being the focus of a study of leadership and retention.

Newton et al. (2014) conducted a quantitative study in which they examined the relationship between learning and development opportunities, volunteer motivation, and volunteer intention to stay. Based on the results of their study, Newton et al. concluded that their hypotheses were supported. Volunteers who perceived there was a high degree

of learning and development opportunities had higher levels of organizational commitment and increased levels of intention to stay.

Although the link between leadership and retention was not directly addressed, the study conducted by Waters and Bortree (2012) is noteworthy due to the gender-sensitive approach they took to examining volunteer retention. The purpose of their study was to examine the relationship between organizational communication and inclusive behaviors on the intention to continue volunteering for both males and females. Waters and Bortree hypothesized that male and female volunteers would evaluate the organization-volunteer relationship differently, and that this evaluation would affect the volunteers' intentions to remain as a volunteer. Based on their research, Waters and Bortree found support for their hypotheses. Female and male volunteers reported differences in their volunteer experiences. Waters and Bortree wrote that "because of their diverse motivations, feelings of trust, satisfaction, commitment and the distribution of power all played significant roles in predicting future intent to volunteer" (p. 100). Female volunteers responded positively to inclusion and social group interaction. Male volunteers responded positively to involvement in organizational decision-making and the ability to voice their opinions. Waters and Bortree cautioned leaders of volunteers to be cognizant of gender-related differences to employee engagement in their organizations.

Conclusion

It is important to have an understanding of the factors serving as motivators for people to volunteer, given the crucial role that volunteering plays in nonprofit service organizations, as highlighted by Vecina et al. (2013). Seminal work was conducted by

Clary et al. (1998) to identify factors contributing to volunteer motivation. Clary et al. developed the VFI instrument, widely used in research, in which six factors for volunteering are measured: values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement. A number of researchers, including Brayley et al. (2014), Cornelis et al. (2013), and Marta et al. (2010) have built upon Clary et al.'s body of work and have determined that altruistic, or other-oriented, motivations weigh more heavily than self-oriented motivations for volunteers than for paid employees.

Self-determination theory, or SDT, is another theoretical framework employed by many researchers examining volunteer motivations. Deci and Ryan (1985) conducted seminal work in this field. They contended that humans have a natural tendency towards growth, seeking challenges, extending their knowledge, and learning new skills. Using the framework of SDT, Bidee et al. (2013) determined that intrinsic motivators were involved when an individual found an activity inherently interesting while extrinsic motivators came into play when individuals participated in an activity because they could gain something for themselves, avoid punishment, or receive an award. Haivas et al. (2014) concluded that multiple motivators were at work in peoples' decisions to volunteer. Newton (2014) and Wilson (2012) reached similar conclusions in that multiple motivators, both self-oriented and other-oriented, can factor into individuals' decisions to volunteer. Also, as Finkelstein (2008a) determined, the motivators compelling individuals to continue to volunteer can change over time.

Many researchers have determined that individuals decide to stop volunteering in a particular organization for multiple reasons (e.g., Fuller et al., 2006; Gazley, 2013; Marta et al., 2010; Millette & Gagné, 2008). Hustinx and Handy (2009) determined that

there are two main categories of motivators that cause individuals to stop volunteering: personal and organizational. Within the category of personal motivators, researchers such as Hustinx and Handy, Marta et al., and Tang et al. (2010) have confirmed that many people decide to quit their volunteer job because other, higher, priorities have entered their lives.

Allen and Mueller (2013) and Finkelstein (2008a) stressed that organizational motivators to stop volunteering arise because individuals have negative experiences with their volunteer organizations. Hustinx and Handy (2009) defined three categories of organization-related motivations to stop volunteering. The first category is how the work is organized. Finkelstein (2008b), Hustinx and Handy, and Tang et al. (2010) determined that a mismatch between the task and a volunteer's interests can serve as a motivation to stop volunteering. Also related to work organization is training. Finkelstein, Hustinx and Handy, and Skoglund (2006) determined that when volunteers do not receive training related to their tasks they may be motivated to stop volunteering.

Hustinx and Handy (2009) stated that the second category of organization-related motivations to stop volunteering is the institutional structure of the organization. Hustinx and Handy determined that people who perceived their organizations to be too bureaucratic, inflexible, or had poor leadership were motivated to stop volunteering. Marta et al. (2010) and Tang et al. (2010) also concluded that when individuals perceived their organizations to have poor leadership they were motivated to stop volunteering.

Hustinx and Handy's (2009) third category of organization-related motivations to stop volunteering is the volunteer's affective experiences in the organization, which are volunteers' "feelings of satisfaction, recognition, and appreciation" (p. 249). Finkelstein

et al. (2005) and Marta et al. (2010) concluded that poor interpersonal dynamics, a lack of recognition of contributions the volunteers made, and poor leadership contributed to volunteers' motivation to stop volunteering.

While the research described above focused on why volunteers are motivated to stop volunteering, Allen and Mueller (2013) probed into how volunteers might reach the point of making a decision to stop volunteering. Allen and Mueller hypothesized that burnout was the factor causing individuals to stop volunteering. They defined three attributes of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment. Allen and Mueller used the conservation of resources theory to study burnout and determined that perceptions of lack of voice and role ambiguity were positively related to burnout. In turn, burnout was positively related to volunteer motivation to stop volunteering. The conclusions reached by Cowlshaw et al. (2010) and Marta et al. (2010) supported Allen and Mueller's findings.

Avery (2004) defined a continuum of leadership styles that ranges from leader-focused styles in which the leader has all or most power in the relationship with followers, to follower-focused styles where there is little formal leadership structure. The four styles of leadership that Avery detailed are classical, transactional, visionary, and organic. Kelloway et al. (2012) noted that the terms visionary leadership and transformational leadership are often used interchangeably. Several researchers, such as Liden et al. (2008), Parolini et al. (2009), and Sendjaya et. al (2008), contended that servant leadership is different from transformational leadership due to its emphasis on ethics and focus on others versus self.

Greenleaf (1977) was an early advocate of the servant leadership style. He explained that servant leaders are focused on their followers, and not themselves. Greenleaf also shared that servant leaders concentrate on understanding the aspirations of their followers and helping these followers to achieve their full potentials. CAP has embraced the servant leadership model, teaching it to both adult and youth volunteers (Civil Air Patrol, 2014c; Civil Air Patrol, 2013a). The servant leadership style closely reflects CAP's core values of integrity, volunteer service, excellence, and respect (Civil Air Patrol, 2010). As a result, servant leadership was the style of leadership examined in the current study.

A considerable amount of literature is available regarding the impact of leadership style on employees, and many researchers used the transformational leadership style as the framework for their studies. For example, Kelloway et al. (2012) identified a positive relationship between transformational leadership and increased psychological well-being. Other authors also identified a positive relationship between transformational leadership and attributes such as enhanced employee satisfaction (e.g., Green et al., 2013; Nielson et al., 2008; Purvanova et al., 2006; Vincent-Höper & Muser, 2012). Clinebell et al. (2013), Kelloway et al. (2012), and Ruggieri and Abbate (2013) are among the researchers who also noted that employees responded more positively to the more follower-focused transformational leadership style than the more leader-focused transactional leadership style. Literature addressing the impact of the servant leadership style on employees is limited. Ehrhart (2004) determined that servant leadership contributed to enhanced employee organizational citizenship behavior.

There is a limited amount of literature available that examines the impact of leadership style on volunteers. Bang (2011) concluded that LMX was positively related to volunteer satisfaction. Dwyer et al. (2013) determined there was a positive relationship between transformational leadership and volunteer satisfaction. McMurray et al. (2012) and Schneider and George (2011) found that, as with employees, volunteers responded better to follower-oriented leadership styles. In addition, Schneider and George determined that volunteers responded more favorably to servant leadership than to transformational leadership.

Literature addressing the impact of leadership on paid employees' intention to stay is limited. Green et al. (2013) determined that transformational leadership mitigated employee emotional exhaustion and turnover intention. Gray and Muramatsu (2013) identified a direct link between supervisor support and intention to quit. Similarly, Dawley et al., 2010 determined that supervisor support was positively related to employee perception of organizational support and organizational support was related negatively to employee intention to quit.

There is also a limited amount of literature available regarding the impact of leadership style on volunteers' intention to stay. Hildago and Moreno (2009) examined volunteer intention to stay at the organizational level. They noted that all four factors of organizational socialization – social networks, organizational support, task characteristics, and training – were predictors of intention to remain. Bang (2011) identified a relationship between professional respect and intention to remain, whereas Montgomery (2006) and Newton et al. (2014) saw a relationship between training and intention to remain. Schneider and George (2011) determined that servant leadership was

a better predictor than transformational leadership for volunteer commitment, satisfaction, and intention to remain.

Summary

A direct relationship between leadership style and intention to stay for volunteers is reflected in the literature. As a result, the current study examined the relationship between leadership style and adult and youth volunteer intention to stay.

In the next chapter, the researcher will detail the methodology of the research. Data collection instruments, population, sample, and analytical methods used in the current study will be explained. Chapter III will provide the basis for the findings and recommendations that will be detailed in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In the previous chapter, the researcher reviewed the literature related to the relationship between leadership style and volunteer intention to stay. This review included examining individuals' motivations to volunteer and to stop volunteering. Leadership styles were also reviewed, as well as the impact of leadership styles on both paid employees and volunteers. Finally, literature about the relationship between leadership style and intention to stay for both paid employees and volunteers was examined.

The current study sought to characterize the relationship between leadership style and the intention to stay in a large volunteer organization. This chapter provides a description of the study's methodology. It will include a description of the research design, population and samples, data collection, analytical methods, and limitations.

In the current study the researcher investigated the following research questions and associated hypotheses:

1. What is the relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay?

H₁: There is a relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay.

2. What is the relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay?

H₂: There is a relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay.

3. What is the relationship between the Civil Air Patrol (CAP) member status of leader, adult volunteer, or youth volunteer, and the scores reflected on the *Servant Leadership Scale*?

H₃: Adult volunteers and youth volunteers will rate their leaders in a similar manner as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*.

H₄: Leaders will rate themselves at a similar level as adult volunteers and youth volunteers rate their leaders as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*.

Research Design

The purpose of the current study was to examine CAP adult and youth volunteer members' perceptions of the qualities of their squadron commander's servant leadership in order to determine the relationship between leadership style and volunteer retention. A quantitative research design was used to achieve this purpose. Leedy and Ormrod (2013) explained that a quantitative approach examines quantities of one or more variables of interest. In addition, Leedy and Ormrod shared that a quantitative approach allows the researcher to "establish, confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalizations that contribute to existing theories" (p. 96).

The current study incorporated a correlational research approach in response to the first two research questions. Salkind (2012) explained that correlational research

allows the researcher to describe the relationship between variables, and can indicate whether variables share any correlations. The framework developed by the researcher to conduct this correlational research approach employed the cross-sectional use of a questionnaire-based survey. Robson (2011) explained that cross-sectional study designs are characterized by collecting all the measures at one point in time or during a short time period. Robson also shared that cross-sectional designs are often accomplished through the use of surveys. According to Salkind, survey research “examines the frequency and relationships between psychological and sociological variables and taps into constructs such as attitudes, beliefs, prejudices, preferences, and opinions” (p. 198).

The current study also employed an inferential research approach in order to address the third research question. As described by Salkind (2014), inferential statistics allow the researcher to make inferences to a larger population here. For the current study, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and a factorial ANOVA were conducted to explore the relationships between how adult volunteers and youth volunteers perceived the strength of their leader’s attributes as reflected in the volunteers’ responses to the *Servant Leadership Scale* (Liden, et al., 2008).

The researcher used the *Servant Leadership Scale* (Liden, et al., 2008) to collect the data required for the present study. The *Servant Leadership Scale* is a survey that utilizes a 7-point Likert scale from one to seven, indicating the degree to which the respondent agrees with the statements presented in the survey. The survey includes 28 items, with four items earmarked to each of these seven identified characteristics of servant leadership: conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow and

succeed, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community.

The *Servant Leadership Scale* was selected because of its use in similar studies and its acceptable levels of reliability and validity. Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2012) defined reliability as “the degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it is measuring” (p. 165). Cronbach’s alpha is often used to determine internal consistency (Gay et al.; Leedy & Ormrod, 2011). Liden et al. (2008) reported the following Cronbach’s alpha values for the *Servant Leadership Scale*:

- Conceptual skills, $\alpha = .81$
- Empowering, $\alpha = .80$
- Helping subordinates grow and succeed, $\alpha = .82$
- Putting subordinates first, $\alpha = .86$
- Behaving ethically, $\alpha = .83$
- Emotional healing, $\alpha = .76$
- Creating value for the community, $\alpha = .83$

Salkind (2014) shared that validity means that the tool does what it says it will do. Liden, et al. (2008) stated that they first conducted face validity of previously used measures when developing their scale. Next, Liden, et al. conducted content validation through the use of subject matter experts. Finally, the authors validated their instrument by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis of the sample’s responses.

A single item was also used in the current study to measure volunteer intention to stay. The intention to stay item was adapted from the item used by Schneider and George (2011). Schneider and George had in turn adapted the item from a scale discussed by

Cook, Hepworth, Wall, and Warr (1981). Schneider and George stated that “a Cronbach’s α internal reliability analysis was performed on each of the scales measuring the outcome variables, as well as on the empowerment, transformational leadership, and servant leadership scales” (p. 65). However, Schneider and George did not publish the results of this Cronbach’s α analysis for the intention to stay item. A review of the literature reflected the use of similar intention to stay items in other closely-related research (Dawley et al., 2010; Gray & Muramatsu; 2013; Green et al., 2013; Newton et al., 2014).

Participants

Gay et al. (2009) explained that the population is the larger group from which the sample is selected. For the current research, the population consisted of the volunteer membership of the CAP, which numbered over 58,000 adult and youth volunteers (Civil Air Patrol, 2014b). Three subgroups within the overall participation were defined for the purpose of selecting samples. The population of local leaders numbered 1,438; the number of adult volunteers was 34,367; and the number of youth volunteers was 23,763 (Civil Air Patrol, 2014b).

Leedy and Ormrod (2013) stressed that the sample should be carefully chosen so as to truly represent the population. The researcher employed simple random sampling to select 200 individuals nationwide from each of the three populations: leaders, adult volunteers, and youth volunteers of the Civil Air Patrol. Leaders and adult volunteers were invited to participate in an online survey, while youth volunteers were mailed hardcopy surveys. Response to the surveys was: 95 out of 200 leaders for a 47.5% rate, 51 out of 200 adult volunteers for a 25.5% rate, and 47 out of 200 youth volunteers for a

23.5% rate. After eliminating unusable responses, the three sample sizes equaled 91 leaders, 48 adult volunteers, and 42 youth volunteers.

The researcher collected demographic data using the variables listed in Figure 2.

Variable Name	Variable Type
Gender	Discrete
Age	Continuous
Length of Service	Continuous
Race/Ethnicity	Discrete

Figure 2. Demographic Variables

The descriptive data for gender and ethnicity for the three samples are detailed in Table 1. For the leader sample ($n = 91$), 76.0% ($n = 76$) were male, 15.6% ($n = 14$) were female, and one respondent chose not to specify gender. Regarding ethnicity, 79.1% ($n = 72$) of the leaders identified themselves as White, 11.0% ($n = 10$) identified themselves as Hispanic or Latino, 2.2% ($n = 2$) identified themselves as Black or African American, 3.3% ($n = 3$) identified themselves as Asian or Pacific Islander, 2.2% ($n = 2$) identified themselves as Other, and 2.2% ($n = 2$) did not specify their ethnicity. For the adult volunteer sample ($n = 48$), 83.3% ($n = 40$) were male, and 16.7% ($n = 10$) were female. Regarding ethnicity, 83.3% ($n = 31$) of the adult volunteers identified themselves as White, 16.7% identified themselves as Hispanic or Latino, 2.1% ($n = 1$) identified themselves as Black or African American, and 2.1% ($n = 1$) identified him or herself as Other. For the youth volunteer sample, 76.2% ($n = 42$) were male, and 23.8% ($n = 10$) were female. Regarding ethnicity, 73.8% ($n = 31$) identified themselves as White, 23.8%

($n = 10$) identified themselves as Hispanic or Latino, and 2.1% ($n = 1$) identified him or herself as Black or African American.

Table 1

Gender and Ethnicity Demographic Data Summary

Category	Leader		Adult Volunteer		Youth Volunteer	
	$n = 91$	Percent	$n = 48$	Percent	$n = 42$	Percent
Gender						
Male	76	83.5	40	83.3	32	76.2
Female	14	15.4	8	16.7	10	23.8
Did Not Specify	1	1.1	0	0	0	0
Ethnicity						
White	72	79.1	40	83.3	31	73.8
Hispanic or Latino	10	11.0	5	10.4	10	23.8
Black or African American	2	2.2	1	2.1	1	2.4
Asian or Pacific Islander	3	3.4	0	0	0	0
Other	2	2.2	1	2.1	0	0
Did Not Specify	2	2.2	0	0	0	0

The descriptive data for age and membership tenure for the three samples are detailed in Table 2. For the leader sample, age ranged from 28 to 79 years with a mean age of 53.23 years, and membership tenure ranged from 1 to 37 years with a mean tenure of 10.94. For the adult volunteer sample age ranged from 22 to 85 years with a mean age of 54.21, and membership tenure ranged from 1 to 42 years with a mean tenure of 9.85. With the youth volunteer sample age ranged from 12 to 18 years with mean age of 15.21, and membership tenure ranged from 1 to 7 years with a mean tenure of 1.81 years.

Table 2

Age and Membership Tenure Demographic Data Summary

Demographic Category	Age (Years)		Membership Tenure (Years)	
	Range	Mean	Range	Mean
Leader	28 – 79	53.23	1 – 37	10.94
Adult Volunteer	22 – 85	54.21	1 – 42	9.85
Youth Volunteer	12 – 18	15.21	1 – 7	1.81

The demographic variables will be further reviewed in Chapter IV. The researcher will analyze the demographic variables in the context of their relationships with the scores from the *Servant Leadership Scale* and the intention to stay item.

Data Collection

The instruments used in the current study were based upon the *Servant Leadership Scale* (Liden et al., 2008). The *Servant Leadership Scale* is designed to

measure the strength of an individual's servant leadership characteristics. Seven factors are measured by 4 items each, for a total of 28 items in the instrument. The seven servant leadership factors measured by the instrument are conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community. The *Servant Leadership Scale* utilizes a seven-point Likert scale.

Modifications were made to the wording of the items to ensure the instruments would properly engage the targeted sample. An example of this rewording for item number 24 follows:

- Original wording: *My manager wants to know about my career goals.*
- Modified wording for leader instrument: *I want to know about my squadron members' CAP career goals.*
- Modified wording for adult volunteer and youth volunteer instruments: *My squadron commander wants to know about my goals in CAP.*

In addition to the 28-item modified *Servant Leadership Scale*, a single item was used to measure participant intention to stay. The item employed a seven-point Likert scale. The wording of this item was slightly modified to engage the three samples better.

- Original wording: *The likelihood of my continued membership in this club is high.*
- Modified wording: *The likelihood of my continued membership in CAP is high.*

See Appendix A for the *Servant Leadership Scale*, Appendix B for the leader instrument, and Appendix C for the adult and youth volunteer instrument.

A pilot study was conducted with the modified instruments to provide confidence that reliability and validity were not compromised. The pilot study also provided the

opportunity to evaluate survey instructions and consent forms. For the modified leader instrument, six current or former squadron commanders were invited to participate in the pilot study. An email was sent to each of them inviting them to participate in the survey, thus exercising the online survey procedures. Participants were given the opportunity to provide feedback on the consent forms, survey instructions, and the instrument itself. No additional modifications were required for the instrument while minor modifications to the survey instructions were made for clarity.

For the pilot study of the modified adult and youth instrument, one squadron from New Mexico Wing was selected to participate, providing a sample size of 15 adult and 15 youth volunteers. The researcher explained the purpose, potential benefits, and potential risks of the research. Adult volunteers who agreed to participate were sent an email invitation to participate, exercising the online survey procedures. Packages were sent to the home addresses of the youth volunteers to test the procedures planned for the larger youth survey. Each package contained a copy of the instrument, instructions, a parental consent form, a youth assent form, and a stamped return envelope. Youth volunteers mailed their packages to the researcher.

Adult and youth volunteers from the squadron selected for the pilot study were given the opportunity to provide feedback on the consent forms, survey instructions, and the instrument itself. No additional modifications were required for the instrument while minor modifications to the survey instructions were made for clarity.

The 200 randomly-selected nationwide members of the leader sample received email invitations to participate in the survey. The email invitations included a link to an online survey site where the instrument was hosted. Participants were able to submit their

responses anonymously via the online survey instrument. Responses were gathered over a two-month time period. Reminder emails were sent to participants at the three-week point and six-week point. Individuals were incentivized to participate by having the opportunity to win a \$100 gift card to the online store used by CAP volunteers for purchasing uniforms and uniform accessories.

The process used to collect data for leaders was also used for the nationwide adult volunteer sample. Email invitations were sent to the 200 individuals with a link to an online survey site. Reminder emails were sent at the three-week and six-week points during the two-month window for participating in the survey. Adult volunteer participants were also incentivized through the chance to win a \$100 gift card to the online store used by CAP volunteers for purchasing uniforms and uniform accessories.

The 200 members of the nationwide youth volunteer sample were sent packages to their home addresses. Each package contained a copy of the instrument, a parental consent form, a youth assent form, instructions, and a stamped return envelope. Youth participants were sent a reminder letter at the one-month point during the two-month period allowed for returning the material. Youth participants were also incentivized with the opportunity to win a \$100 gift card to the online store used by CAP volunteers for purchasing uniforms and uniform accessories. Two surveys were returned without completed parental consent and youth assent forms and were not used in the analysis.

Analytical Methods

Correlational analyses were conducted for the first two research questions in order to assess the correlations between the ratings provided by participants regarding the servant leadership categories. Spearman's Rho was utilized for correlational analyses

between leadership categories and the intention to remain rating (Gay, et al., 2012; Leedy & Ormrod, 2013; Salkind, 2014).

Inferential analyses were conducted in order to examine the third research question. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with the member status of leader, adult volunteer, or youth volunteer, and the seven categories of servant leadership serving as independent variables, while the category ratings served as the dependent variable. This factorial analysis allowed the researcher to determine whether the data suggested that the overall mean ratings across the different categories of member status differed from one another in statistically significant ways. The analysis allowed the researcher to identify those leadership categories whose mean ratings differed from one another in statistically significant ways. Finally, interactions between who the rater was, i.e., leader, adult volunteer, or youth volunteer, and the particular categories rated were assessed.

Next, a factorial ANOVA was conducted with group and gender of participant serving as the independent variables and aggregated *Servant Leadership Scale* scores serving as the dependent variable. This analysis allowed the researcher to assess any differences across categories rated that might exist and whether there was a statistically significant difference between genders regarding the average ratings. The analysis also identified interactions between the gender and category rated variables.

Limitations

There were two limitations to the current study due to constraints in time and resources. First, a longitudinal study would be insightful to determine whether volunteers' attitudes towards leadership changed as their time in service grew. Second,

due to the use of random selection, the current study could not examine the direct relationships between a leader and his or her followers.

Summary

This chapter provided details of the research design and data analysis used in the current study. A detailed explanation of the statistical analyses used to address the research questions was also presented. Demographic data summary and the methodology for data collection were detailed in order to provide information that helped answer the research questions. The next chapter will discuss the research findings, based upon the data analysis. Data collected will be interpreted and conclusions and implications of the research will be presented. Finally, recommendations for further research in this area will be provided.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The previous chapter provided a detailed explanation of the methodology used in the current study, to include the research design, participants, data collection, analytical methods, and limitations. In this chapter, the researcher will present the findings, conclusions, and implications of the study, plus recommendations for further research. The results of the current study were analyzed and interpreted using SPSS version 23.0. The findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations will be discussed after the results of the data collection and analysis are detailed.

The purpose of the current study was to examine CAP adult and youth volunteer members' perceptions of the qualities of their squadron commander's servant leadership in order to determine the relationship between leadership style and volunteer retention. In the current study the researcher investigated the following research questions and hypotheses:

1. What is the relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay?

H₁: There is a relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay.

2. What is the relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay?

H₂: There is a relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay.

3. What is the relationship between the Civil Air Patrol (CAP) member status of leader, adult volunteer, or youth volunteer, and the scores reflected on the *Servant Leadership Scale*?

H₃: Adult volunteers and youth volunteers will rate their leaders in a similar manner as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*.

H₄: Leaders will rate themselves at a similar level as adult volunteers and youth volunteers rate their leaders as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*.

Findings

Research Question One

The first research question was “What is the relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay?” The corresponding hypothesis was that “There is a relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay.” Through the use of a questionnaire, adult volunteers were asked to agree or disagree with statements that described their leader’s servant leadership characteristics. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used, with a score of 1 indicating that the participant strongly disagreed with the statement to a score of 7, indicating that the participant strongly agreed with the statement. Intention to stay was also measured for the adult volunteers. A seven-point Likert-type scale was again used, with a score of 1 indicating that the participant strongly

disagreed with the statement that the participant intended to stay in the organization, while a score of 7 indicated that the participant strongly agreed with the statement that the participant intended to stay in the organization.

A Spearman's Rho correlation was performed between the aggregated servant leadership scale score and the intention to stay item. Salkind (2014) stressed that Spearman's Rho is the correct analytical technique to use in determining correlations when one or more of the variables is measured with an ordinal scale, such as the intention to stay item in the current study. The results of the Spearman's Rho correlation calculations indicated that there was a positive correlation between the two variables ($r_s(48) = .44, p = .002$); as the aggregated score on the Servant Leadership Scale increased, so did the score for intention to stay for adult volunteers.

Next, Spearman's Rho correlation calculations were performed between the seven servant leadership scale subscales and the intention to stay item to determine whether any statistically significant relationships existed at the subscale level. The results of the Spearman Rho correlation calculations are detailed in Table 3. Analysis indicated that the relationships between intention to stay and all seven servant leadership factors were statistically significant.

After analyzing the data in Table 3, the results supported Hypothesis 1, reflecting a positive correlation between the seven servant leadership factors and adult volunteers' intention to stay. When the scores for each of the servant leadership factors increased, the score for the intention to stay item also increased.

Table 3

Spearman's Rho Correlations Between Servant Leadership Factors and Intention to Stay for Adult Volunteers

Servant Leadership Factor	r_s	p
Conceptual Skills	.51*	< .001
Empowering	.35*	.02
Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed	.46*	.001
Putting Subordinates First	.38*	.01
Behaving Ethically	.38*	.01
Emotional Healing	.36*	.01
Creating Value for the Community	.33*	.02

Note. $n = 46$.

* $p < .05$.

Research Question Two

The second research question was “What is the relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay?” The corresponding hypothesis was that “There is a relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay.” Through the use of a questionnaire, youth volunteers were asked to agree or disagree with statements that described their leader’s servant leadership characteristics. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used, with a score of 1 indicating that the participant strongly disagreed with the statement to a score of 7, indicating that the participant strongly agreed with the statement. Intention to stay was also measured for the youth volunteers. A seven-point Likert-type scale was again used, with a score of 1 indicating that the

participant strongly disagreed with the statement that the participant intended to stay in the organization, while a score of 7 indicated that the participant strongly agreed with the statement that the participant intended to stay in the organization.

A Spearman's Rho correlation was calculated between the aggregated servant leadership scale score and the intention to stay item. The results of the calculation indicated that the correlation between the two variables ($r_s(42) = .25, p = .16$) for youth volunteers was not statistically significant. Next, Spearman's Rho correlation calculations were performed between the seven servant leadership scale subscales and the intention to stay item in order to determine whether any statistically significant relationships existed at the subscale level. The results of Spearman's Rho calculations between servant leadership factors and youth volunteers are displayed in Table 4.

Only one correlation was statistically significant: behaving ethically and intention to stay ($r_s(41) = .32, p = .04$). The relationship between intention to stay and other six servant leadership factors were not statistically significant. Upon analyzing the data in Table 3, the results did not support Hypothesis 2 because there was a positive relationship between just one of seven servant leadership factors.

Research Question Three

The third research question was "What is the relationship between the Civil Air Patrol (CAP) member status of leader, adult volunteer, or youth volunteer, and the scores reflected on the *Servant Leadership Scale*?" The corresponding hypotheses were:

H₃: Adult volunteers and youth volunteers will rate their leaders in a similar manner as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*.

H₄: Leaders will rate themselves at a similar level as adult volunteers and youth volunteers rate their leaders as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*.

Table 4

Spearman's Rho Correlations Between Servant Leadership Factors and Intention to Stay for Youth Volunteers

Servant Leadership Factor	<i>r_s</i>	<i>p</i>
Conceptual Skills	.28	.08
Empowering	.27	.09
Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed	.25	.12
Putting Subordinates First	.20	.22
Behaving Ethically	.32*	.04
Emotional Healing	.29	.07
Creating Value for the Community	.28	.07

Note. *n* = 42.

**p* < .05.

The researcher obtained data from leaders, adult volunteers, and youth volunteers using the *Servant Leadership Scale*. A series of one-way ANOVAs was performed in order to compare the scores of the three membership categories with each of the seven subscales of the *Servant Leadership Scale*: conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community. According to Gay et al. (2012), ANOVAs are the appropriate analytical approach for determining whether statistically significant

differences exist in the means of three or more groups. The results of the ANOVAs are detailed in Table 5.

Table 5

One-Way ANOVA Between Membership Category and Servant Leadership Scale Factors

Servant Leadership Factor	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2
Conceptual Skills (<i>n</i> = 178)	2.18	.12	.02
Empowering (<i>n</i> = 177)	3.56	.03	.04*
Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed (<i>n</i> = 178)	22.69	< .01	.20*
Putting Subordinates First (<i>n</i> = 178)	26.26	< .01	< .01*
Behaving Ethically (<i>n</i> = 178)	12.28	< .01	.02*
Emotional Healing (<i>n</i> = 177)	21.21	< .01	.19*
Creating Value for the Community (<i>n</i> = 178)	8.15	< .01	.08*

**p* < .05.

Analysis of the data in Table 5 determined that there were statistically significant differences in the means of the three samples for six of the seven servant leadership factors: empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community. One of the seven leadership factors, conceptual skills, did not reflect statistically significant differences in ratings between leaders, adult volunteers, and youth volunteers.

Salkind (2014) explained that post hoc testing is conducted to determine the source of differences in means between three or more groups. Post hoc testing was therefore conducted to determine where the differences in means existed for the three samples: leaders, adult volunteers, and youth volunteers. Results of the post hoc testing

are presented in three sets of pairings: adult volunteers and youth volunteers, leaders and adult volunteers, and leaders and youth volunteers. The results of post hoc tests using Bonferroni's correction for the differences in means between adult volunteers and youth volunteers are detailed in Table 6.

Table 6

Post Hoc Tests for One Way ANOVA Between Adult Volunteers and Youth Volunteers

Servant Leadership Factor	Adult <i>M</i>	Youth <i>M</i>	<i>p</i>
Conceptual Skills	5.52	5.91	.21
Empowering	4.89	4.63	.96
Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed	4.88	5.93	< .01*
Putting Subordinates First	4.84	5.40	.06
Behaving Ethically	5.91	6.03	1.0
Emotional Healing	4.56	4.98	.31
Creating Value for the Community	5.44	5.92	.11

**p* < .05.

Analysis of the data, detailed in Table 6, revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of the two groups for six of the seven servant leadership factors. The mean score of the youth group was higher at a statistically significant level than the mean score of the adult volunteer group for one servant leadership factor: helping subordinates (*p* < .01, youth volunteer *M* = 5.93, adult volunteer *M* = 4.88). The results of the post hoc tests supported Hypothesis 3: adult volunteers and youth volunteers rated their leaders' servant leadership skills at a similar level for six out of seven servant leadership factors.

Post hoc testing was also conducted to determine where the differences in means existed between leaders and adult volunteers. The results of post hoc tests using Bonferroni's correction for the differences in means for these two groups are detailed in Table 7.

Table 7

Post Hoc Tests for One Way ANOVA Between Leaders and Adult Volunteers

Servant Leadership Factor	Leader <i>M</i>	Adult <i>M</i>	<i>p</i>
Conceptual Skills	5.85	5.52	.20
Empowering	5.21	4.89	.41
Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed	6.29	4.88	< .01*
Putting Subordinates First	6.26	4.84	< .01*
Behaving Ethically	6.63	5.91	< .01*
Emotional Healing	5.91	4.56	< .01*
Creating Value for the Community	6.21	5.44	< .01*

**p* < .05.

Analysis of the post hoc tests, detailed in Table 7, revealed that the mean scores of the leader group were higher at a statistically significant level than the mean scores of the adult volunteer group for five of the seven servant leadership factors: helping subordinates, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community. While the leaders' mean scores for conceptual skills and empowering were also higher than the mean scores for adult volunteers, the differences were not statistically significant. The results of post hoc tests resulted in

rejection of Hypothesis 4. Scores on the Servant Leadership Scale were not similar between leaders and adult volunteers.

Post hoc testing was also conducted to determine where the differences in means existed between leaders and youth volunteers. The results of post hoc tests using Bonferroni’s correction for the differences in means for these two groups are detailed in Table 8.

Table 8

Post Hoc Tests for One Way ANOVA Between Leaders and Youth Volunteers

Servant Leadership Factor	Leader <i>M</i>	Youth <i>M</i>	<i>p</i>
Conceptual Skills	5.85	5.91	1.0
Empowering	5.21	4.63	.03*
Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed	6.29	5.93	.31
Putting Subordinates First	6.26	5.40	< .01*
Behaving Ethically	6.63	6.03	< .01*
Emotional Healing	5.91	4.98	< .01*
Creating Value for the Community	6.21	5.92	.42

**p* < .05.

Analysis of the post hoc tests, detailed in Table 7, revealed that the mean scores of the leader group were higher at a statistically significant level than the mean scores of the youth volunteer group for four of the seven servant leadership factors: empowering, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, and emotional healing. The differences in the mean scores between the two groups were not statistically significant for conceptual skills, empowering, and creating value for the community. The results of post hoc tests

resulted in rejection of Hypothesis 4. Scores on the Servant Leadership Scale were not similar between leaders and youth volunteers.

In support of Research Question 3, a factorial ANOVA was performed in order to determine whether there were gender-based differences in the scores of the three membership categories. Salkind (2014) explained that a factorial analysis is appropriate for determining whether statistically significant differences exist in the means of groups when there is more than one independent variable. The results of the descriptive statistics for the factorial ANOVA are detailed in Table 9.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Investigating Gender Differences in Mean Scores

Group	Gender	Mean	<i>n</i>
Leaders	Male	6.05	76
	Female	6.02	14
Adult Volunteers	Male	5.30	40
	Female	4.46	8
Youth Volunteers	Male	5.40	32
	Female	6.01	10

In examining the mean scores of males and females within the three groups, there appeared to be statistically significant differences between male and female participants in the adult volunteer and youth volunteer groups. A factorial ANOVA was conducted to determine whether the differences in mean scores were, in fact, statistically significant. The results of the analysis indicated that the overall effects of gender were not

statistically significant ($F_{(1,180)} = .203, p = .653$). Gender effects canceled out at the aggregated level of all three groups. However, the effect of gender on groups was statistically significant ($F_{(2,180)} = 4.31, p = .015$). There were statistically significant gender-based differences in mean scores within the adult volunteer and youth volunteer groups. Female adult volunteers on average rated their leaders lower at statistically significant levels than did their male counterparts. Conversely, female youth volunteers on average rated their leaders higher at statistically significant levels than did male youth volunteers.

Conclusions

The first research question in the current study examined whether there was a relationship between leadership style and adult volunteer intention to stay. The hypothesis was that there would be a relationship between the two variables. Analysis of the data, detailed in Table 3, concerning these variables indicated that there was a positive correlation between the aggregated servant leadership scores and the intention to stay item. When additional Spearman's Rho calculations were performed, a statistically significant relationship was found to exist between the seven individual servant leadership factors and adult volunteer intention to stay. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported. A positive relationship exists between leadership style and intention to stay for adult volunteers. The stronger adult volunteers perceived their leaders' servant leadership qualities to be, the higher they rated their intention to continue volunteering in CAP.

Past studies have revealed similar findings to the current study concerning the relationship between adult volunteers and intention to stay. Schneider and George (2011) conducted a quantitative study involving volunteers of eight local clubs that were part of

a national volunteer service organization. Schneider and George found that volunteers who characterized their leaders as servant leaders displayed higher intention to stay than volunteers who characterized their leaders as transformational leaders. Similarly, as a result of their mixed method study of the relationship between managers and volunteers, Stirling, et al. (2011) found a direct positive relationship between leadership style and volunteer retention.

The second research question in the current study examined whether there was a relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay. The hypothesis was that there would be a relationship between the two variables. Analysis of the data concerning these variables indicated that the relationship between the aggregated score for servant leadership and youth volunteer intention to stay was not statistically significant. When additional Spearman's Rho calculations were performed, a statistically significant relationship was found to exist between just one of the seven individual servant leadership factors: ethical behavior and youth volunteer intention to stay. As a result of this analysis, detailed in Table 4, the current study's second hypothesis was rejected. There was not a statistically significant relationship between youth volunteer assessments of their leader's servant leadership factors and youth volunteer intention to stay.

As noted earlier, the literature on the effects of youth volunteers is extremely limited. Montgomery (2006) investigated the relationship between availability of training opportunities and the retention of youth volunteers in CAP. As a result of his research, Montgomery determined there were two factors affecting CAP youth volunteers' intention to stay: the quality of leadership and the availability of training opportunities.

His findings differed from the findings of this current study. The quality of leadership, according to Montgomery, was positively correlated to the retention of youth volunteers. However, in this current study, the relationship between leadership style and youth volunteer intention to stay was not statistically significant.

The third research question in the current study examined whether there was a relationship between the CAP member status of leader, adult volunteer, or youth volunteer, and the scores reflected on the *Servant Leadership Scale*. There were two hypotheses associated with this research question. Hypothesis 3 was that adult volunteers and youth volunteers would rate their leaders in a similar manner as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*. Hypothesis 4 stated that leaders would rate themselves at a similar level as adult volunteers and youth volunteers would rate their leaders as reflected by their scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale*.

To address Hypotheses 3 and 4, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the ratings of the three membership categories of leaders, adult volunteers, and youth volunteers. The results, detailed in Table 5, indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the means of six of the seven servant leadership categories: empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community. The seventh leadership factor, conceptual skills, did not reflect statistically significant differences in ratings between leaders, adult volunteers, and youth volunteers.

A series of post-hoc testing was conducted in order to identify the sources of the difference in ratings between membership categories. Table 6 delineates the results of post-hoc testing for adult volunteer and youth volunteer scores. One servant leadership

factor, helping subordinates, reflected a statistically significantly higher mean for adult volunteers than youth volunteers. However, there were not statistically significant differences between the means of the two groups for the other six servant leadership factors. The results of the analysis generally supported Hypothesis 3. There were no statistically significant differences in how adult volunteers and youth volunteers rated their leaders on six out of seven servant leadership factors.

Regarding Hypothesis 4, the results of post-hoc testing of the scores for leaders and adult volunteers are detailed in Table 7. Analysis revealed that the mean scores of the leader group were higher, at statistically significant levels, than the mean scores of the adult volunteer group for five of the seven servant leadership factors: helping subordinates, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community. The leaders' mean scores for the other two servant leadership factors, conceptual skills and empowering, were also higher than the mean scores for adult volunteers, although the differences were not statistically significant. Table 8 contains the details of post hoc testing for leader and youth volunteer scores. The mean scores of the leader group was higher than the mean scores of the youth volunteer group at statistically significant levels for four of the seven servant leadership factors: empowering, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, and emotional healing. The differences between the mean scores for the two groups were not statistically significant for conceptual skills, empowering, and creating value for the community. The results did not support Hypothesis 4: leaders did not rate themselves at similar levels as adult volunteers and youth volunteers rated their leaders. The leaders who participated in the study rated themselves at statistically significant higher levels than adult volunteers rated

their leaders in five of seven servant leadership categories. Similarly, the leaders rated themselves higher, at statistically significant higher levels, than youth volunteers rated their leaders in four of seven leadership categories.

One past study revealed similar findings to the current study concerning the ratings of volunteers and their leaders. Bang (2011) found that the differences in ratings of leaders and volunteers on three of four relationship dimensions – affect, loyalty, and contribution – were not statistically significant. The one LMX dimension that Bang found to have a statistically significant difference between leader and volunteer was professional respect.

In conjunction with Hypothesis 4 of the current study, the data were also examined to determine whether differences in scores on the *Servant Leadership Scale* could be attributed to gender. A factorial ANOVA was conducted to analyze the three membership groups. The analysis revealed that, when examining the three groups combined, there was not a statistically significant difference between the scores of male and female participants. However, there was a statistically significant difference within two of the three groups. Female adult volunteers rated their leaders lower, at statistically significant levels, than their male counterparts. Conversely, female youth volunteers rated their leaders higher, at statistically significant levels, than male youth volunteers. The difference in the average means between male and female leaders was negligible. Regarding gender, the results did not support Hypothesis 4. Statistically significant gender-related differences were found between how adult volunteers and youth volunteers rated their leaders.

Past studies have revealed similar findings to the current study. For example, Waters and Bortree (2012) examined the relationship between organizational communication and inclusive behaviors on the intention to continue volunteering for both males and females. Waters and Bortree found that male and female volunteers evaluated the organization-volunteer relationship differently, and that this evaluation would affect the volunteers' intentions to remain as a volunteer.

Implications and Recommendations

The findings clearly indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between leadership style and intention to stay for adult volunteers in CAP. Specifically, adult volunteers responded positively to those leaders who exhibited strong traits of servant leadership. The more strongly adult volunteers perceived their leaders to possess servant leadership qualities, the higher they rated their intention to continue volunteering in CAP.

Leadership styles that are more focused on followers have been shown to result in greater satisfaction and intention to stay for paid employees and volunteers alike (e.g., Allen & Mueller, 2013; Vincent-Höper & Muser, 2012; Millette & Gagné (2008), Stirling, et al., 2011; Van Vianen, et al., 2008; Volmer, et al., 2011). In particular, the servant leadership style has been found to be particularly effective in volunteer organizations (Parris & Peachey, 2012; Schneider & George, 2011). CAP should modify its leadership training to equip its leaders to operate using the principles of servant leadership. Emphasis for servant leadership training should be placed in early leadership training classes focused on local leaders, called squadron commanders, where the large majority of volunteers in CAP are assigned.

The findings indicated that there was not a statistically significant relationship between leadership style and intention to stay for youth volunteers in CAP. There was not a clear link between the strength of a leader's servant leadership skills, as reported by the youth volunteer, and the youth volunteer's stated intention to stay. The current study was designed to examine the relationship between CAP unit leaders, called squadron commanders, and youth volunteers, called cadets. However, the structure of CAP's cadet program (Civil Air Patrol, 2015) results in other youths and designated adult volunteers other than the unit leader being directly involved with the youth volunteer. The distance between leader and youth volunteer caused by this organizational arrangement may have affected the survey results of the youth volunteers.

The findings also clearly indicated that there were differences in how leaders and followers perceived servant leadership skills. Leaders perceived themselves as possessing greater levels of servant leadership qualities, while both adult volunteers and youth volunteers rated their leaders as having lower levels of servant leadership qualities. The servant leadership factors that adult volunteers rated lower were helping subordinates, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community. The servant leadership factors that youth volunteers rated lower were empowering, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, and emotional healing. Leadership training in CAP should be redesigned to emphasize the servant leadership skills that adult volunteers and youth volunteers reported to be deficient in their leaders. Leadership training should stress the areas rated lower by the adult volunteers and youth volunteers. Redesigned training could result in higher levels of servant leadership skills

which, in turn, would positively impact volunteer intention to stay (Schneider & George, 2011).

The findings of the current study clearly indicated that there were statistically significant differences in how male and female adult volunteers rated their leaders. While adult volunteers as a group rated their leaders' servant leadership skills lower than the leaders did themselves, female adult volunteers rated their leaders lower, at statistically significant levels, than did their male counterparts. Gender differences in how adult employees (Vincent-Höper & Muser, 2012) and volunteers (Waters & Bortree, 2012) respond to leadership styles have been noted by other researchers, although the literature is limited.

Interestingly, the gender-related responses to leadership style by youth volunteers were opposite those of adult volunteers in the current study. Female youth volunteers rated their leaders higher than did their male counterparts. One possible explanation is that there are fewer female youth volunteers than male youth volunteers in CAP. As a result, those female volunteers who remain with the program are more highly motivated than their male counterparts. No literature was discovered during the course of the current study regarding gender-related differences in the response of youth volunteers to leadership style.

CAP's leadership must be sensitive to gender-related differences in how volunteers respond to leadership style. Waters and Bortree (2012) determined that female volunteers responded positively to inclusion and social group interaction. On the other hand, male volunteers responded positively to involvement in organizational decision-making and the ability to voice their opinions. CAP leaders must be aware of these

gender-related differences and incorporate these considerations into their leadership training.

There are a number of areas where further research is recommended. First, more research into the relationship between leadership style and the intention to stay for adult volunteers would be helpful. The current study employed simple random sampling by which to derive the leader and adult samples. Cluster sampling, in which an entire unit is selected for participation, would enable researchers to examine directly the relationship between leader self-report and volunteer assessment of the leader. Longitudinal studies would also be helpful to understand whether volunteers' assessments of servant leadership traits or intentions to stay change over time. Finally, investigating other types of volunteer organizations would be insightful. CAP is a highly structured organization with a quasi-military structure. The findings of the current study may not translate to the dynamics present in other types of volunteer organizations.

There is a lack of literature regarding the relationship of leadership style and youth volunteers. To overcome the limitation experienced in the current study, subsequent research should focus on examining the leaders most closely involved with the youth volunteers. Further, the literature is extremely limited regarding the relationship between leadership style and intention to stay for youth volunteers. There is some evidence that such a relationship exists (Montgomery, 2006); however, more research is required to fully understand the dynamics of the relationship.

Finally, further research is needed to characterize differences that may exist in how males and females respond to leadership style. A limited amount of literature is available for gender-related studies with adult employees and volunteers (e.g., Vincent-

Höper & Muser, 2012; Waters & Bortree; 2012). No literature was discovered regarding the gender-related differences in how youth volunteers respond to leadership style.

Leaders in volunteer organizations need to be aware that their leadership style directly impacts whether volunteers choose to leave or choose to continue serving in the organization. Volunteers respond more favorably to leadership styles that are less authoritarian and more focused on the followers. The most effective leadership style in a volunteer setting appears to be the servant leadership model. Organizations that rely on volunteers would be well advised to incorporate servant leadership skills into their training programs and encourage their leaders to embrace the principles of servant leadership.

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APPENDIX A

Servant Leadership Scale

Servant Leadership Scale (Liden et al., 2008)

1. I would seek help from my manager if I had a personal problem.
2. My manager cares about my personal well-being.
3. My manager takes time to talk to me on a personal level.
4. My manager can recognize when I'm down without asking me.
5. My manager emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community.
6. My manager is always interested in helping people in our community.
7. My manager is involved in community activities.
8. I am encouraged by my manager to volunteer in the community.
9. My manager can tell if something is going wrong.
10. My manager is able to effectively think through complex problems.
11. My manager has a thorough understanding of our organization and its goals.
12. My manager can solve work problems with new or creative ideas.
13. My manager gives me the responsibility to make important decisions about my job.
14. My manager encourages me to handle important work decisions on my own.
15. My manager gives me the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way that I feel is best.
16. When I have to make an important decision at work, I do not have to consult my manager first.
17. My manager makes my career development a priority.
18. My manager is interested in making sure that I achieve my career goals.

19. My manager provides me with work experiences that enable me to develop new skills.
20. My manager wants to know about my career goals.
21. My manager seems to care more about my success than his/her own.
22. My manager puts my best interests ahead of his/her own.
23. My manager sacrifices his/her own interests to meet my needs.
24. My manager does what she/he can do to make my job easier.
25. My manager holds high ethical standards.
26. My manager is always honest
27. My manager would not compromise ethical principles in order to achieve success.
28. My manager values honesty more than profits.

APPENDIX B

Leader Instrument

Leader Survey Instrument

Section I. We would like to gather some information about you.

1. What is your gender?

Male

Female

2. How old were you on your last birthday? ____

3. How long have you been a member of CAP? ____

4. What is your ethnicity or race?

White

Hispanic or Latino

Black or African American

Native American or American Indian

Asian/Pacific Islander

Other

Section II. In responding to the following questions please rate how much you agree or disagree with the statements regarding your role and actions as a squadron commander.

Please select your response from Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 7 and enter the corresponding number in the space to the left of each question.

Strongly							Strongly
Disagree							Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

- ___1. I can tell if something CAP-related is going wrong with one of my squadron members.
- ___2. I give my squadron members the responsibility to make important decisions about their squadron CAP duties.
- ___3. I am sincerely interested in the CAP career development of my squadron members.
- ___4. I care more about my squadron members' success than my own.
- ___5. I hold high ethical standards.
- ___6. My squadron members would seek help from me if they had a personal problem.
- ___7. I emphasize to my squadron members the importance of giving back to the community.
- ___8. I am able to effectively think through complex problems.
- ___9. I encourage my squadron members to handle important CAP decisions on their own.
- ___10. I am interested in making sure that my squadron members achieve their CAP career goals.
- ___11. I put my squadron members' best interests ahead of my own.
- ___12. I am always honest.
- ___13. I care about my squadron members' personal well-being.
- ___14. I am always interested in helping people in our community.

- ___15. I have a thorough understanding of our organization and its goals.
- ___16. I give my squadron members the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way that they feel is best.
- ___17. I provide my squadron members with CAP experiences that enable them to develop new skills.
- ___18. I sacrifice my own interests to meet my squadron members' needs.
- ___19. I would *not* compromise ethical principles in order to achieve success.
- ___20. I take time to talk to my squadron members on a personal level.
- ___21. I am involved in community activities.
- ___22. I can solve CAP problems with new or creative ideas.
- ___23. When my squadron members have to make an important decision at the squadron, they do *not* have to consult me first.
- ___24. I want to know about my squadron members' CAP career goals.
- ___25. I do whatever I can to make my squadron members' CAP duties easier.
- ___26. I value honesty more than the squadron's success.
- ___27. I can recognize when a member of my squadron is disappointed without asking him/her.
- ___28. I encourage my squadron members to volunteer in CAP.
- ___29. The likelihood of my continued membership in CAP is high.

Item Key (SL-28)

Item #s	Reference/comments
1, 8, 15, 22	Servant Leadership: Conceptual skills
2, 9, 16, 23	Servant Leadership: Empowering: our items
3, 10, 17, 24	Servant Leadership: Helping subordinates grow and. Item #3 is adapted from Ehrhart (2004)
4, 11, 18, 25	Servant Leadership Putting subordinates first. Items #11 and #18 adopted from Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)
5, 12, 19, 26	Servant Leadership: Behaving. Item #5 is adapted from Ehrhart (2004)
6, 13, 20, 27	Servant Leadership: Emotional healing
7, 14, 21, 28	Servant Leadership: Creating value for the community. Item #7 is adopted from Ehrhart (2004)

Items 1-28 adapted from Liden et al. (2008).

The Item Key for Items 1-28 is from Liden et al.

Item 29 adapted from Schneider and George (2011).

APPENDIX C

Adult and Youth Volunteer Instrument

Adult and Youth Volunteer

Survey Instrument

Section I. We would like to gather some information about you.

1. What is your gender?

Male

Female

2. How old were you on your last birthday? ____

3. How long have you been a member of CAP? ____

4. What is your ethnicity or race?

White

Hispanic or Latino

Black or African American

Native American or American Indian

Asian/Pacific Islander

Other

Section II. In responding to the following questions please think of your squadron commander.

Please select your response from Strongly Disagree = 1 to Strongly Agree = 7 and enter the corresponding number in the space to the left of each question.

- | Strongly
Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Strongly
Agree |
|----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| ___1. | | | | | | | |
| ___2. | | | | | | | |
| ___3. | | | | | | | |
| ___4. | | | | | | | |
| ___5. | | | | | | | |
| ___6. | | | | | | | |
| ___7. | | | | | | | |
| ___8. | | | | | | | |
| ___9. | | | | | | | |
| ___10. | | | | | | | |
| ___11. | | | | | | | |
| ___12. | | | | | | | |
| ___13. | | | | | | | |
| ___14. | | | | | | | |

- ___15. My squadron commander has a thorough understanding of our organization and its goals.
- ___16. My squadron commander gives me the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way that I feel is best.
- ___17. My squadron commander provides me with CAP experiences that enable me to develop new skills.
- ___18. My squadron commander sacrifices his/her own interests to meet my needs.
- ___19. My squadron commander would *not* compromise ethical principles in order to achieve success.
- ___20. My squadron commander takes time to talk to me on a personal level.
- ___21. My squadron commander is involved in community activities.
- ___22. My squadron commander can solve CAP problems with new or creative ideas.
- ___23. When I have to make an important decision at the squadron, I do *not* have to consult my squadron commander first.
- ___24. My squadron commander wants to know about my CAP career goals.
- ___25. My squadron commander does whatever she/he can to make my squadron job easier.
- ___26. My squadron commander values honesty more than the squadron's success.
- ___27. My squadron commander can recognize when I'm disappointed without asking me.
- ___28. I am encouraged by my squadron commander to volunteer in CAP.
- ___29. The likelihood of my continued membership in CAP is high.

Item Key (SL-28)

Item #s	Reference/comments
1, 8, 15, 22	Servant Leadership: Conceptual skills
2, 9, 16, 23	Servant Leadership: Empowering: our items
3, 10, 17, 24	Servant Leadership: Helping subordinates grow and. Item #3 is adapted from Ehrhart (2004)
4, 11, 18, 25	Servant Leadership Putting subordinates first. Items #11 and #18 adopted from Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)
5, 12, 19, 26	Servant Leadership: Behaving. Item #5 is adapted from Ehrhart
6, 13, 20, 27	Servant Leadership: Emotional healing
7, 14, 21, 28	Servant Leadership: Creating value for the community. Item #7 is adopted from Ehrhart

Items 1-28 adapted from Liden et al. (2008).

The Item Key for Items 1-28 is from Liden et al.

Item 29 adapted from Schneider and George (2011).