ABSTRACT

Leadership and Social Effectiveness in Sport:
Conceptualizations and Investigation of Servant Leadership and Political Skill

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It is widely accepted that leadership involves a process of intentional influence being exerted over others to affect outcomes. As the world of sport transitions to a more business-oriented ethos and ethical questions arise for sport organizations, ethical forms of leadership are emerging as effective models for sport leaders. Servant leadership is one such model, based on ethics and benevolent service to others and associated with numerous positive outcomes for subordinates and organizations. Due to a limited number of studies examining servant leadership within the contextual boundaries of sport, the first purpose of this study was to investigate servant leadership's influence on leader effectiveness outcomes in interscholastic sport administration. The second purpose was to examine the role of political skill, a social effectiveness construct that measures how people influence others at work, as a possible moderator of servant leader effectiveness. Political skill comprises four dimensions: social astuteness, interpersonal influence, apparent sincerity, and networking ability. A multilevel model and regression analysis was used to test a national sample of interscholastic athletic directors (n = 250) and

subsets of head coaches (n = 809). Online surveys were completed by athletic directors to rate their own political skill. Head coaches completed an online survey evaluating the servant leadership and leader effectiveness of athletic directors, as well as their own affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Findings revealed servant leadership was directly related to leader effectiveness, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction of subordinates. However, a negative interaction between servant leadership and political skill was found. Results support servant leadership as an effective model for interscholastic athletic directors that enhances commitment and job satisfaction of employees. Because of its associations with career success and other important outcomes, political skill is a topic in need of more research to better understand the implications of effective use of political skill for sport administrators, and, also for servant leaders.

Leadership and Social Effectiveness in Sport:
Conceptualizations and Investigation of Servant Leadership and Political Skill

by

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

DEDICATION

To my late father, Matthew Earl Robinson, who taught me perseverance.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Leadership and Influence

In recent years, the meaning of the phrase "the value of sport" has evolved from referring to the intangible benefits one might receive from participating, such as discipline, character, or mental toughness. As the world of sport embraces a more business-oriented ethos, "value" now invokes thoughts associated with significant commercial endeavor. The 21st century world of sport presents a challenging time for sport leaders. As ethical questions are raised, the balance of "managerial duties" focused on the prosperity of organizations, with "educational duties" focused on the development and well-being of athletes, becomes increasingly difficult. Though leadership is one of the most fundamental and established topics in sport management literature (Branch, 1990; Soucie, 1994), and one of the most observed phenomenon throughout time, it remains a topic in need of further understanding (Burns, 1978). Most definitions tend to be based in the assumption that leadership involves a process of intentional influence being exerted over others (Gardner, 1990; House et al., 1999). Effective leaders impact efficient organizational performance by way of goal accomplishment through the coordinated efforts of those who are led, and it is widely agreed upon that, in addition to providing structure, facilitating activities, and developing relationships in groups or organizations, effective leaders also influence the attitudes, motivation, and satisfaction of subordinates among other outcomes. Indeed, influence is the apotheosis of effective

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leadership in part because achievement in life and work stem mostly from effective social exchanges (Ferris, Perrewé, & Douglas, 2002).

Servant Leadership

Motivated by a manager's need to better engage one's subordinates and customers, there has been a recent movement in organizations to shift perspective from being egoistic to being more pro-social and other-oriented (Dyck & Schroeder, 2005; Laub, 1999; Rynes, Bartunek, Dutton, & Margolis, 2012; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Organizations are looking for positive forms of leadership that focus on the needs and growth of others, specifically those models that consist of leaders who are simultaneously leading and serving (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). In response, leadership studies have begun placing more emphasis on the servant leadership model which considers a shared perspective where interaction between leader and follower are paramount (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Servant leadership is a model of leadership based on ethics and other-centeredness, suggesting that truly effective leaders place service to others ahead of personal power and control (Greenleaf, 1970). Characterized by a calling to serve others, and enduring qualities of genuine caring, humility, and empathy (Robinson, Neubert, & Miller, 2018), studies reveal consistent patterns of servant leadership behavior yielding positive individual, team, and organizational outcomes in a variety of settings (Sun, 2013; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Furthermore, servant leadership has been proposed as an effective model for sport leadership (Robinson, Neubert, & Miller, 2018) that could rectify the ethical imbalance prevalent in college athletics (Burton & Welty Peachey, 2013), and initial findings

support servant leadership's positive association with the creation of an ethical climate in college sport organizations (Burton, Welty Peachey, & Wells, (2017).

Political Skill

Social Influence Theory posits individuals use influence, be it intentional or unintentional, to achieve desired social outcomes (Levy, Collins, & Nail, 1989), and social influence literature encompasses a broad spectrum of social effectiveness constructs (e.g. social intelligence, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy) that describe an individual's ability to self-monitor, read social situations, and adapt to specific requirements of the environment to influence one's own behaviors or the behavior of others. Political skill is one of these social effectiveness constructs that has been described as a comprehensive pattern of social competencies including cognitive, affective, and behavioral manifestations (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewe, Brouer, Douglas, & Lux, 2007). Political skill is known as the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objective (Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewé, 2005). Political skill is known to be comprised of four dimensions; social astuteness, interpersonal influence, apparent sincerity, and networking ability. It combines social astuteness with the ability to relate well, and otherwise demonstrate situationally appropriate behavior in a manner that is disarmingly charming and engaging. This behavior inspires confidence, trust, sincerity, and genuineness (Ferris, Perrewé, Anthony, & Gilmore, 2000). Politically skilled individuals not only adjust one's own behavior to situational demands in a manner that appears sincere, inspires trust, and results in effective influence over others (Zellars, Perrewé, Rossi, Tepper, & Ferris, 2008), but they also effectively understand others and

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use this understanding to exercise influence (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004).

In addition to positive associations with leader effectiveness (Douglas and Ammeter, 2004; Sunindijo, 2012; Kim et al., 2016), having high levels of political skill has also been associated with a number of other positive outcomes for leaders and employees, such as higher job performance ratings from supervisors, increase in team performance, less experienced stress at work, and career success (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Perrewé et al., 2004; Magnusen et al., 2014; Magnusen & Kim, 2016, Todd, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2009).

Research Questions

In the realm of sport, servant leadership is deserving of further investigation, not only because of its ties to the development of an ethical climate in sport organizations (Burton et al., 2017), but also because of numerous positive outcomes associated with servant leadership found for individuals and organizations in a business setting, (Burton & Welty Peachey, 2013; Robinson et al., 2018; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Indeed, the contextual boundaries of servant leadership research should be extended across a variety of sport contexts and outcomes of interest (Burton et al., 2017).

Additionally, because of the interpersonal nature involved in leading sport and the numerous relationships a coach must navigate, knowledge and application of political skill appears to be an important factor to achieving success in the profession of coaching. However, for servant leaders, important career and life outcomes positively associated with being politically skilled may create a conflict regarding how political skill, a seemingly self-focused Machiavellian concept based on enhancing one's personal or

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organizational objectives, interacts with servant leadership, a concept based on benevolent service to others. Research suggests political skill is an important concept for leaders to understand and utilize, not only to be an effective leader, but to nurture the development of a successful career. Yet, an over-arching question remains, how do servant leadership and political skill interact to benefit sport practitioners and their followers? To address this question, I completed three manuscripts which comprise this dissertation. Each of the three manuscripts and their specific purposes are described below.

Manuscript One

The first manuscript of my dissertation was prepared as an educational review for the Pedagogical Innovations section of Sport Management Education Journal. The article is titled, "Servant Leadership in Sport; A Review, Synthesis, and Applications for Sport Management Classrooms". Development of the article was motivated by a need for adequate information and pedagogical resources in sport management curriculum. The review describes the origin and conceptualization of servant leadership and summarizes the positive outcomes resulting from servant leadership. An original model for understanding servant leadership attributes and dynamics in the context of sport is presented along with recommendations for sport management educators. The article was completed with guidance and contributions from co-authors, Dr. Mitchell J. Neubert and Dr. Glenn Miller. Dr. Neubert is the Chavanne Chair of Christian Ethics in Business and Professor of Management at Baylor University. He has authored many articles on the topic of servant leadership and assisted with the organizing the literature review and with

revisions of the article. Dr. Glenn Miller is Professor of Sport Pedagogy at Baylor University. Dr. Miller contributed ideas and assisted in editing the article for publication.

Manuscript Two

The second manuscript has been prepared for submission to the International Sport Coaching Journal to be considered for inclusion in the journal's Insights section. The Insights section is described as including well-reasoned and effectively articulated perspectives on issues or approaches in coaching and coaching education. Motivated by an ever-increasing interpersonal aspect to the profession of sport coaching, this review analyzes the social effectiveness construct, political skill, through the perspective of a sport coaching lens. Political skill is proposed as a crucial component of sport coaching and a means through which sport coaches may be able to build and maintain important and influential relationships with key stakeholders, thus improving the possibility of a successful career. Political skill is first defined and distinguished from other social effectiveness constructs. A brief review of positive career success outcomes associated with political skill is presented, along with theoretical explanations for how political skill impacts the career success of sport coaches. Finally, practical applications for sport coaches are discussed and suggestions for developing political skill are offered. Development of the manuscript was guided by Dr. Marshall J. Magnusen and Dr. Glenn Miller. Dr. Magnusen is Associate Professor of Sport Management at Baylor University and has authored many papers on the topic of political skill.

Manuscript Three

The final manuscript of my dissertation has been prepared for submission to Journal of Sport Management as a multi-level empirical study investigating servant leadership, political skill, and associations with leader effectiveness outcomes (i.e. leadership effectiveness, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction). The study, undergirded by Social Influence Theory which posits that individuals use social influence, be it intentional or unintentional, to achieve desired social outcomes (Levy, Collins, & Nail, 1989), utilized a population of interscholastic athletic directors and head coaches. The significance and novelty of the study also exist in examining the interaction effect between servant leadership, a concept based on benevolent service to others, and political skill, based on enhancing one's personal or organizational objectives. Specifically, the study addresses two questions.

1. Is servant leadership an effective style of leadership for interscholastic sport administrators?

2. What is the moderating effect of political skill on servant leadership when considering leader effectiveness outcomes (e.g., leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, organizational commitment)?

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Literature

The literature related to servant leadership and political skill is reviewed in this

chapter. For organizational purposes, the literature is presented under the following

topics: (1) new thinking in leadership, (2) servant leadership beginnings and evolution,

(3) theoretical overlaps with other leadership theories, (4) positive effects of servant

leadership, (5) servant leadership in sport, (6) political skill defined, (7) under the social

effectiveness umbrella, (8) positive influence of political skill (9) political skill and career

success, (10) theoretical explanations for the political skill/career success relationship,

(11) political skill and leader effectiveness, (12) summary.

New Thinking in Leadership

Leadership theories are more and more acknowledging the complexity of the

process that is leadership. Historically, leadership research generally progressed from

trait theories to behavioral paradigms to contingency theories, with a primary emphasis

on the leader and the leader's behavior (Yukl, 2013). In an overview of the current state

of leadership research, Avolio et al. (2009) described how the focus of leadership

researchers has changed from focusing solely on the leader to considering a broader

context, including followers, peers, supervisors, work setting, and culture. LMX theory

(Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) is credited with contributing to shifting the view of

leadership from something done *to* subordinates to a view of leadership as something

enacted between leader and subordinate (Walumbwa, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2012).

Increasingly, scholars are recognizing that relationships between leaders and subordinates lie at the core of successful organizations and are the mediator through which work is accomplished (Ferris et al., 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2012). The practice of leadership also has evolved in many organizations by moving primarily from a leader-focused, hierarchical, and controlling relationships to follower-focused, egalitarian, and empowered relationships, such as those evident among servant leaders and their followers (Dyck & Neubert, 2010).

Servant Leadership Beginnings and Evolution

The idea of servant leadership is not a completely new phenomenon. Indeed, notions of the leader as servant date back over thousands of years. In the Tao Te Ching written around 500 BC in China, a passage attributed to Lao-Tzu says, "The highest type of ruler is one of whose existence the people are barely aware." (Lao-Tzu, ch.35); this ancient assertion introduced the idea that effective leaders serve others without regard for recognition. In more modern times, Robert K. Greenleaf, a former executive with AT&T, tends to be credited as one of the individuals who first introduced and then championed the idea of the servant leader in the business workplace. In his seminal work, *The Servant as Leader*, which was first published in 1970, Greenleaf coined the term servant leader. He later provided what has come to be one of the most popular descriptions of servant leadership. Specifically, Greenleaf (1977) states:

> The servant leader is servant first… It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead… The best test, and difficult to administer is this: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants: And what is the effect on the least privileged in society? Will they benefit, or at least not further be harmed? (p.27)

Greenleaf (1970) described servant leadership as an approach to leading that emphasizes the moral high ground of doing "good" to others now and into the future, and in which a servant leader's ultimate objective is to enhance the personal growth and well-being of others. The style of leadership he developed also promotes teamwork and community, seeks to involve subordinates in decision making, and prioritizes ethical and caring behavior. Servant leaders are described as excellent listeners that are able to connect well with others because they exercise the ability to feel the human condition, or practice empathy (Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 1995, 1996, 1998). Servant leadership is strongly linked to ethics, virtues, and morality (Parris & Peachey, 2013; Graham, 1991; Lanctot and Irving, 2010; Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009; Russell, 2001; Whetstone, 2002), and more than any other model of leadership, it emphasizes the needs of the followers (Patterson, 2003).

The concept of servant leadership continued to be emphasized by Larry Spears, who served for 17 years as head of the non-profit organization, the Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership. Greenleaf, himself, established this organization whose aim is to promote the idea of servant leadership. Spears, who has authored more than 10 books on servant leadership, originally narrowed the description of servant leadership to 10 distinguishing characteristics of listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community (Spears, 1995, 1996, 1998).

Since the inception of the idea of servant leadership, several academic models have also been developed in the business and organizational context that present variations of servant leader attributes (Laub, 1999; Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden et

al., 2008; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011, Sun 2013). Since Spears originally identified ten specific characteristics (Spears, 1995), numerous authors have introduced models that include variations to this original list. Laub (1999), while attempting to answer the question, "Can servant leadership within organizations be assessed through a written instrument?" developed an instrument that could be used to measure servant leadership in which he describes six characteristics of servant leaders. Subsequently, Barbuto and Wheeler's (2006) model of servant leadership stands out as the first to include an altruistic calling, or address the motivation of leaders to put others needs and interests ahead of their own.

In 2008, Hammermeister and colleagues developed the Revised Servant Leadership Profile for Sport (RSLP-S) which was the first instrument to specifically target the servant leader behavior of sport coaches. The RSLP-S is comprised of three subcategories and defines servant leadership as a combination of trust and inclusion, humility, and service. In the same year, two other models were created (Liden et al., 2008; Sedjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008), which would be followed by another review and synthesis by Van Deirendonck (2011). Each of these models created a new twist on the general definition of servant leadership and further increased the challenge when attempting to answer the question, "What is servant leadership?"

To best describe the aforementioned models, Table 2.1 presents a timeline of servant leadership models including attributes of each model and definitions of those attributes. This table should allow the reader to visualize the evolution of the definition of servant leadership and to better understand the array of attributes used to describe servant leadership.

Table 2.1 Timeline of Common Academic Models

Model and Attributes	Definitions
Laub (1999)	
Values people	Believing in people and maintaining a high view of people; putting others first; active listening
Develops people	Providing for learning and growth; lead by modeling; build others up through encouragement
Builds community	Enhancing relationships; Emphasizing teamwork; Valuing the differences of others
Displays authority	Willing to be transparent and open to input from others; maintaining integrity by being honest, consistent, and behaving ethically
Provides leadership	Envisioning the future and using intuition; taking initiative; clarifying goals
Shares leadership	Shares power by empowering others; sharing positions of status
Ehrhart (2004)	
Forming relationships with subordinates	Pursuing high-quality interaction with subordinates in order to foster trust and inclusion
Empowering subordinates	Encouraging and facilitating others in identifying and solving problems
Enabling subordinate growth providing and success	Showing genuine concern for the career growth of others by support and mentoring
Behaving ethically	Interacting openly, fairly, and honestly with others
Possessing conceptual skills	Having knowledge of the organization and general tasks in order to support and assist others
Putting subordinates first	Making clear to others through words and action that satisfying their work needs is a priority
Creating value for those outside the organization	Conscious genuine concern for helping those outside of the organization
Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)	
Altruistic calling	Deep rooted desire to make a positive difference in the lives of others
Emotional healing	Commitment to and skill in fostering spiritual recovery from hardship or trauma

Model and Attributes	Definitions
Persuasive mapping	Extent to which leaders use sound reasoning and mental frameworks
Wisdom	Combination of awareness of surroundings and anticipation of consequences
Organizational stewardship	Extent that leaders prepare an organization to make a positive contribution to society through community development, programs, and outreach
Liden et al. (2008)	
Empowering	Encouraging and facilitating others, especially immediate followers, in identifying and solving problems
Helping subordinates grow and succeed	Demonstrating genuine concern for others' career growth and development by providing support and mentoring
Putting subordinates first	Using actions and words to make clear to others that satisfying their work needs is a priority
Emotional healing	Act of showing sensitivity to others' concerns
Conceptual skills so as to	Possessing the knowledge of the organization and tasks at hand be in a position to effectively support and assist others
Creating value for community	Conscious, genuine concern for helping the community
Behaving ethically	Interacting openly, fairly, and honestly with others
Sendjaya et al. (2008)	
Authentic self	Secure sense of self enables leaders to be accountable and vulnerable to others
Transforming influence	When those served by servant leaders are positively transformed into servant leaders themselves
Voluntary subordination	Willingness to take up opportunities to serve others whenever there is a legitimate need regardless of the nature of the service
Transcendental spirituality	Attuned to spiritual values; associated with calling to make a difference in the lives of others
Covenantal relationship	Acceptance of others for who they are; enables others to experiment, grow, and be creative without fear
Responsible morality	Ensuring that both the ends sought and the means employed are morally legitimized, thoughtfully reasoned, and ethically justified

Model and Attributes	Definitions
Hammermeister (2008)	
Trust and Inclusion	Coaches ability to accept others ideas when they might be better and the moral courage to do the right thing even when it may hurt politically.
Humility	Ability to keep one's talents in proper perspective.
Service	Going out of the way to help others.
Van Dierendonck (2011)	
Empowering and	Fostering a proactive, self-confident attitude among followers giving developing people a sense of personal power
Humility	Ability to put one's own accomplishments and talents in proper perspective
Authenticity	Expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings
Interpersonal acceptance	Ability to understand and experience the feelings of others; perspective taking element of empathy
Providing direction	Ensures people know what is expected of them
Stewardship	Taking responsibility for larger institution; emphasize service over control and self-interest
Sun (2013)	
Calling	Defines the vocation of the leader to be of service to others, one which is deeply spiritual and provides purpose to life
Humility	A stable attribute that orients the leader to consider others above self. It is the ability to hold one's own position and capability in proper perspective so as not to permit an inflated sense of self to get in the way of fulfilling one's calling.
Empathy	A moral attribute that enables the leader to put themselves in another person's shoes and understand the position and situation they are coming from.
Agape love	Altruistic form of love which is selfless and unconditional. It is a deeply spiritual type of love.

The broad range of attributes in these models considered to be behaviors of

servant leadership has led to attempts to integrate these diverse perspectives. Sun (2013)

developed an efficient model of servant leadership that minimizes overlaps. Like

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006), Sun's (2013) model of servant leadership begins with a

calling to serve, but includes only three additional attributes. These attributes are *agape*

love, humility, and empathy. Along with these specific attributes, Sun (2013) also

suggests that effective servant leaders not only identify with and display these distinct

servant behaviors, but, may also integrate additional behaviors as necessitated by the

situational context.

Theoretical Overlaps with Other Leadership Theories

As noted, there is some variation in characteristics presented in servant leadership

models. There also are many leadership theories which reveal overlapping characteristics

with servant leadership (e.g. transformational leadership, leader-member exchange,

authentic leadership, ethical leadership, and spiritual leadership). Sorting through the

differences between servant leadership models and distinguishing between servant

leadership and other leadership theories can be quite challenging. To better delineate

servant leadership from other leadership theories, similarities and differences between

theories are presented in Table 2.2. The overlaps between servant leadership models and

other theories of leadership further reinforce the idea that effective servant leaders may

not only exercise distinct servant leader behaviors, but also enact other behaviors that

have been generally linked to effective leadership (such as visioning, modeling integrity,

etc.).

Table 2.2 Leadership Theories and Overlapping Characteristics with Servant Leadership

Theory	Similarities with Servant Leadership	Differences with Servant Leadership
Transformational leadership	Explicit attention is given to developing followers through individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and supportive behavior (Bass, 1985).	There is a charismatic side to transformational leadership. Primary allegiance is to the organization and personal growth of followers is seen within the context of what is good for the organization (Graham, 1991)
Leader-member exchange	Shared emphasis on development of high-quality relationship between leader and follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995)	High LMX leaders seek to develop mutually beneficial relationships with subsets of followers, whereas servant leaders develop supportive relationships with all employees and colleagues.
Authentic leadership	Authentic leaders work through an increased self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing. They have a strong sense of accountability to oneself and to others. (Avolio & Gardner, 2005)	Authentic leaders are focused on being one's "true self" (e.g. authentic in interaction with others, being true to one's inner thoughts, and being willing to keep an open mind and consider change). However, being true to one's inner thoughts does not necessarily mean the leader takes on the nature of a servant. An authentic leader may feel a strong obligation to advance the organization rather than focus on follower needs and development.
Ethical leadership	Ethical leadership emphasizes caring for people, integrity, trustworthiness, and serving the good of the whole. The focus is on appropriate behavior in the workplace (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005).	Ethics emphasized through directive and normative behavior, whereas servant leadership has a stronger focus on the actions of serving and developing followers. (continued)

Theory	Similarities with Servant Leadership	Differences with Servant Leadership
Spiritual leadership	Spiritual leadership starts with creating a vision through which a sense of calling can be experienced (Fry & Slocum, 2008).	Operationalization of spiritual leadership focuses on organizational culture rather than leader behavior (Fry, 2003). Servant leadership theory better explicates the leader-follower relationship. Greenleaf positioned servant leadership as a secular theory to avoid lack of clarity that comes with the term spirituality.

Positive Effects of Servant Leadership

Servant-led organizations appear to create an atmosphere of procedural justice characterized by an open and trusting environment (Joseph & Winston, 2005; Reinke, 2004; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010; Washingon, Sutton, & Field, 2006), enhance organizational citizenship behavior (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Hu & Liden, 2011; Ehrhart, 2004; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010), increase team and leader effectiveness (Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, & Jinks, 2007; Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008; McCuddy & Cavin, 2008; Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; Hu & Liden, 2011), and encourage the collaboration between team members (Garber, Madigan, Click, & Fitzpatrick, 2009; Sturm, 2009; Irving and Longbotham, 2007). Furthermore, research on servant leadership behavior in business and organizational contexts consistently reveals the following outcomes: it positively associated with team performance (Hu & Liden, 2011; Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011), job satisfaction of employees (Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008), organizational performance and return on assets (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012), and positive perceptions of how a group is treated as a whole (Ehrhart,

2004; Walumbwa et al., 2010; Chung, Jung, Kyle, & Petrick, 2010). Servant leadership has been shown to enrich the quality of family life of employees (Zhang, Kwan, Everett, & Jian, 2012) and engender a mindset in employees that contributes to enhanced creativity and helping behavior (Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008).

Most recently, servant leadership has been found to nourish a culture of service through role modeling as it promotes the helping behavior and high-quality customer service of subordinates (Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penney, & Weinberger, 2013; Liden Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). Servant leadership has also been found to decrease disengagement of employees (Hunter et al., 2013) and turnover intentions (Hunter et al., 2013; Liden et al., 2014), while fostering employee creativity (Hunter et al., 2013; Liden et al., 2014;) and team innovation (Yoshida, Sendjaya, Hirst, & Cooper, 2014). Moreover, the positive influence of servant leadership in organizations extends to enhancing customer and patient satisfaction and contributing to organizational performance (Chen, Zhu, & Zhou, 2015; Liden et al., 2014; Neubert, Hunter, & Tolentino, 2016; Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012).

In sum, servant leadership in business and organizational settings has been shown to be associated with more satisfied and productive subordinates by creating a culture of service and an environment of trust and openness between leader and follower. Employees led by servant leaders are intrinsically motivated and are more creative than those lead by non-servant leaders. Ultimately, servant leadership contributes to more efficient and effective individual and organizational performance.

Table 2.3 Consolidation of Servant Leadership Research

Outcome	Article Citation
Open and trusting environment	Reinke, 2004; Joseph & Winston, 2005; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010
Enhances organizational citizenship behavior	Ehrhart, 2004; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010; Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Hu & Liden, 2011
Increases team and leader effectiveness	Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, & Jinks, 2007; Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008; McCuddy & Cavin, 2008; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; Hu & Liden, 2011
Encourages collaboration between team members	Irving and Longbotham, 2007; Garber, Madigan, Click, & Fitzpatrick, 2009; Sturm, 2009
Positive influence on team performance	Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Hu & Liden, 2011; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; Neubert, Hunter, & Tolentino, 2016
Increases job satisfaction	Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008; Neubert, Hunter, & Tolentino, 2016
Invokes promotion oriented regulatory focus which nourishes creativity & enhances helping behavior	Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008
Enrich quality of family life of employees	Zhang, Kwan, Everett, & Jian, 2012
Nourishes a culture of service through role-modeling & decreases disengagement of employees	Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penney, & Weinberger, 2013
Decreases disengagement and turnover intentions	Hunter et al., 2013
Fosters creativity	Neubert et al., 2008; Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014
Fosters team innovation	Yoshida, Sendjaya, Hirst, & Cooper, 2014

Servant Leadership in Sport

Though servant leadership has been studied relatively extensively in a business context and some other organizational settings, empirical studies are not as abundant in the context of sport. Hammermeister et al. (2008) was the first to empirically investigate outcomes in regards to servant leadership behaviors of coaches. An investigation of 251 college athletes from two colleges determined that servant leader coaches produced athletes that were more satisfied, had higher intrinsic motivation, were more task oriented, demonstrated stronger athletic coping skills, and possessed more self-confidence than non-servant leader coaches (Hammermeister et al., 2008). Also in 2008, Rieke, Hammermeister, and Chase published congruent findings from an investigation of male high school basketball players. Athletes who played for servant leader coaches displayed higher intrinsic motivation, were more task oriented, were more satisfied, performed better on a mental skills assessment, and perceived performance to be better than athletes coached by non-servant leaders. Rieke et al. (2008) also considered athlete preference for coaching style and found that athletes preferred the servant-leader coaching style to more traditional styles. The article concluded that servant leadership is associated with athletes' psychological health and increased performance (Rieke et al., 2008).

Since Burton & Peachey's (2013) call for servant leadership in intercollegiate athletics, the idea of servant leadership as a model for sport leadership appears to be gaining the interest of researchers as noted by a recent increase in publications and presentations. A study found a strong positive correlation of servant leadership with athlete satisfaction in female volleyball and basketball players in an Iranian university

(Azadfada, Besmi, & Doroudian, 2014). Furthermore, Gillham et al. (2014) suggested that servant leader behavior may have a positive relationship with coaching success, while Cho & Kim (2014), of the Korean National Sport University, presented findings from a study of 224 student athletes at a university in Seoul, South Korea that conclude that servant leadership by elite sport coaches positively influenced both the student athletes' immersion in the sport and athletic achievement. Their results also reveal that sport immersion, which refers to an athlete's deep mental involvement, is a mediating variable between servant leadership and athlete achievement (Cho & Kim, 2014). This suggests that servant leader behavior encourages an athlete's immersion in the activity, which then contributes to the athlete's level of achievement. Most recently, servant leadership has been proposed as a beneficial factor in building a coach-athlete relationship based on trust (Kim et al., 2017), and a study of college athletic directors supports the notion that servant leadership is effective at influencing the development of an ethical climate within a collegiate sport organization (Burton et al., 2017).

Political Skill Defined

In a 2014 review analyzing political skill and leadership dynamics, Treadway et al. attempt to dispel notions of political skill as a 'necessary evil' and argue that political skill is simply a necessary component of effective leadership because of the many social interactions and influential relationships facing leaders on a daily basis (Treadway, Bentley, Williams, & Wallace, 2014). Pfeffer (1981) was the first to articulate the concept of political skill and maintain that such ability is one of the most essential components for organizational success. Shortly after, Mintzberg (1983) also considered political skill necessary for effective personal involvement in organizations. He

associated political skill with formal power and described political skill as an effective

interpersonal style that contributes to adeptness in persuading and negotiating. More

recently, political skill has been described as the ability to be effective in informal

interactions (Perrewé, Zellars, Ferris, Rossi, Kacmar, & Ralston, 2004). One of many

social effectiveness constructs (e.g. social intelligence, emotional intelligence, self-

efficacy, self-monitoring), political skill is defined as the ability to effectively understand

others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance

one's personal and/or organizational objective (Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewé, 2005).

Politically skilled individuals understand the dynamics of social situations and are able to

combine social astuteness with the capacity to adjust one's own behavior to different

situational demands. This behavior is adapted to situations in a way that appears to be

sincere, inspires trust, and results in effective influence over others (Zellars et al., 2008).

Political skill is commonly recognized as being comprised of four dimensions.

These dimensions are social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and

apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2005a, 2007). *Social astuteness* is the ability to

accurately understand social interactions and interpret one's own behavior as well as that

of others, and to be keenly attuned to diverse social situations. Pfeffer (1992) describes

those with social astuteness as being extremely self-aware and sensitive to others.

Interpersonal influence is the ability to exert a powerful influence on others in a subtle

and convincing manner, and to appropriately adapt and calibrate one's own behavior to

each situation in order to elicit particular responses from others. Leaders adept in

interpersonal influence interact in ways that make others feel comfortable and

accommodated (Pfeffer, 1992). The capability to develop and use diverse networks of

people to secure assets that are valuable and necessary for personal and organizational success is known as *networking ability*. Effective networking skills have been commonly associated with success in the sport industry, and developing professional relationships by interacting effectively with others is crucial to recognizing and realizing professional opportunities (O'Leary & Ickovics, 1992). The final dimension is *apparent sincerity* which is known as the ability to appear to others as possessing high levels of integrity, authenticity, sincerity and genuineness (Ferris et al., 2005a, 2007). Appearing to be sincere and authentic plays a critical role in a coach's ability to influence others. Alternatively, if a coach is deemed to be untrustworthy or lacks authenticity, influence is diminished.

Ferris, Treadway, and colleagues are responsible for an ongoing stream of research of political skill and are responsible for many advancements in the area. They first developed the scale of these four dimensions in 1999, but later revised the scale to its current state (Ferris, Treadway, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, Kacmar, Douglas, & Frink, 2005b). The resulting 18-item scale is known as the Political Skill Inventory (PSI). The construct validity, the criterion-related validity, and the cross-cultural generalizability of the PSI have been supported by subsequent studies (Ferris, Blickle, Schneider, Kramer, Zettler, Solga, Noethen, & Meurs, 2008; Lvina et al., 2012; Shi and Chen, 2012).

Under the Umbrella of Social Effectiveness

Social influence literature encompasses a broad variety of constructs thought to influence behaviors. Collectively, these constructs fall under the nomenclature of social effectiveness, and include not only political skill, but also terms such as emotional intelligence, self-regulation, and self-monitoring among others. Social effectiveness is a

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broad concept that describes an individual's ability to self-monitor, read social situations, and adapt to the specific requirements of the situation. It also describes the ability of an individual to understand the motivations of others, inspire trust, and forge strong relationships with critical others. These interactions result in favorable career and life outcomes (Ferris et al., 2002a). Political skill is only one social effectiveness construct (Ferris et al., 2002b) that shares domain space with others (Treadway, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Ferris, 2005). Although there exists a connectedness between political skill and other social effectiveness constructs, there are also distinctions that make political skill conceptually different from them (Kimura, 2015).

Social intelligence may seem to be quite similar to political skill. Although both social intelligence and political skill address an individual's ability to deal effectively with others, social intelligence pertains to general social interaction, whereas political skill is more focused on social interactions at work (Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Shaw, 2007). For a sport coach, the work place takes many forms not limited to an office, but that may include a wide variety of settings. Some examples are the practice area where coaches encounter players, athletic trainers and other coaches, or administrative meetings where coaches may deal with administrators or owners. Coaches must also interact with the media in press meetings, program boosters who contribute support to the program, and the general public when recognized at the grocery store. Thus, a coach must be adept at handling these various social situations at work, whatever the work place may look like.

There is also a conceptual overlap between political skill and emotional intelligence (EI) (Semander, Robins, & Ferris, 2006), because both constructs involve interpersonal behavior (Ferris et al., 2007). EI is the ability to monitor one's own feelings

and emotions as well as the feelings and emotions of others, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide thinking and actions (Salovney & Mayer, 1990). Empirical studies confirm relatively high positive correlations between EI and political skill (Ferris et al., 2005b; Semadar et al., 2006; Sunindijo, 2012). However, EI represents peoples' general tendency to behave in an emotionally intelligent way, but political skill reflects a goal directed activity (Semadar et al., 2006). Also noteworthy, Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler (2010) found that political skill mediates the relationship between EI and job satisfaction. In Meisler (2010), after a training period, politically skilled individuals showed greater improvement on recognizing emotions than those who were not politically skilled.

It has been suggested that sport managers who embrace EI combined with general intelligence may create a foundation for optimal management (Schneider, 2013). Emotional intelligence research tends to be informed by a mixed model or ability model (Sternberg, Forsythe, Hedlund, Horvath, Wagner, Williams, Snook, & Grigorencko, 2000). The mixed model approach was popularized by the work of Goleman (1995, 1998) whereas understanding of the ability model of EI is guided by the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990). However, the validity and reliability of the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) (Goleman, 1995) has been called into question (Conte, 2005; Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2004) and Meyer and Fletcher (2007) concluded that ECI should not be applied in a sport context. Also, the instrument developed by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) known as the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) has been criticized for testing the knowledge of emotions, but not evaluating the ability of the individual to convert that knowledge into effective social exchanges

(Brody, 2004). A review by Kimura (2015) suggests that EI is a more general and fundamental construct than political skill, but may be required for the effective application of political skill. Most recently, Magnusen (2017) contends that because of the numerous conceptual and measurement issues, EI may not be the most suitable social effectiveness characteristic to apply to a sport management context.

Politically skilled individuals possess a fundamental belief that they can control the processes and outcomes of interpersonal interactions (Perrewé, Ferris, Frink, & Anthony, 2000) and have a fervent understanding of the workplace due to their high social astuteness and networking ability (Brouer, Harris, & Kacmar, 2011). This understanding lies at the core of feeling control and mastery over others in social situations at work (Ferris et al., 2007), and is closely associated with self-efficacy, another social effectiveness construct. Self-efficacy can be defined as judgements of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations (Bandura, Reese, & Adams, 1982). Self-efficacy, however, is more strongly related to task performance, and political skill is more strongly associated with contextual performance (Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2008). Therefore, the overlap between self-efficacy and political skill is modest, and although political skill contains some aspects of self-efficacy (Zellars et al., 2008), political skill is a more comprehensive pattern of social competencies (Kimura, 2015).

Political skill also has a close relationship with self-monitoring which is primarily concerned with impression management (Gabrenya & Arkin, 1980). Self-monitoring includes judging the situational appropriateness of one's own expressive behaviors and regulating self-presentation in order to achieve a desired public appearance (Gangestad

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and Snyder, 2000; Snyder 1974). High self-monitors are excellent at managing impressions (Turnley & Bolino, 2001). As with other constructs, political skill and self-monitoring somewhat overlap but are conceptually different in that while self-monitoring describes an individual's attempt to behave in a socially appropriate manner, political skill is many times used to affect change in desired forms of behavior (Ferris et al., 2000). High self-monitoring ability may be related to political skill through the use of social astuteness used to make judgements of situational appropriateness, and apparent sincerity appears to be related to the regulation of self-presentation (Kimura, 2015). Several measures of self-monitoring have been proposed. Most notable are Snyder's (1974) scale of 25 items known as the Self-Monitoring Scale (SM), and Lennox and Wolfe's (1984) Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (RSMS). However, both scales have been criticized for not possessing sufficient dimensionality and reliability (Briggs, Cheek, & Buss, 1980; Gabrenya & Arkin, 1980; Shruptine, Bearden & Teel, 1990; Deeter-Schmelz & Ramsey, 2010). Although the RSMS carries more promise of the two scales, it has been suggested that caution should be used until a valid and psychometrically sound measure of self-monitoring has been established (O'Cass, 2000).

Whereas self-monitoring has to do with judging social situations and one's own respective behavior, self-regulation is a social effectiveness construct that is concerned with how individuals manage internal states and alter behavioral responses according to one's morals, values, and social expectations in order to achieve long-term goals (Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007). Self-regulation has been associated with good adjustment and positive psychological state (Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004) like resisting inappropriate behaviors such as aggressive acts toward a subordinate when

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angered. Self-regulation can be described as an inner strength (Baumeister et al., 2007), and most research in the area focuses on outcomes of well-adjusted versus destructive behaviors. Poor self-regulation results in a number of negative consequences for individuals including declines in social competence (Muraven, Collins, Morsheimer, Shiffman, & Paty, 2005) and increased aggressive behaviors (DeWall, Baumeister, Stillman, & Gailliot, 2007). It appears that self-regulation may have a relationship with political skill through the dimension of interpersonal influence and dealing appropriately with others based on one's core beliefs and morals.

Ferris et al. (2000) present a model of political skill which suggests that political skill may be a sum of many parts. The distinct pieces of this model (e.g. social intelligence, emotional intelligence, ego-resiliency, social self-efficacy, self-monitoring, tacit and practical knowledge) collectively comprise the construct of political skill. Although political skill has been criticized for correlating with other social effectiveness constructs and for not being wholly unique in itself, there is considerable evidence for the factorial validity of the political skill construct (Ferris et al., 2008; Ferris et al., 2005b). Moreover, when predicting job performance, political skill, examined in competitive prediction with social effectiveness constructs of self-monitoring, leadership self-efficacy, and emotional intelligence, emerges as the best predictor (Semadar et al., 2006). Therefore, when considering political skill, it is important to be aware of the relationship with other social effectiveness constructs, but also understand its distinction. There are two major distinctions of political skill from other constructs discussed in this review. The first distinction is the setting in which these constructs are considered. Political skill is the only one of the social effectiveness constructs that is not a general measure of

social behaviors, but focuses on behaviors specific to the workplace. Also, political skill is used to affect change in others whereas other constructs measure only general tendencies toward behavior. Other social effectiveness constructs discussed in this review are not without value, but the focus of political skill as a construct that considers change affecting social interactions within the work environment make it a useful construct for evaluating work behaviors and examining how individuals are successful in their careers.

Positive Influence of Political Skill

Political skill has been associated with a number of positive outcome variables such as higher job performance ratings from supervisors, increase in team performance, less experienced stress, and career success (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Perrewé et al., 2004; Magnusen et al., 2014a; Magnusen & Kim, 2017, Todd, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2009). In a meta-analytic investigation, Munyon, Summers, Thompson, and Ferris (2015) confirmed that political skill is positively related to self-efficacy, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work productivity, career success and personal reputation and negatively related to physiological strain. Furthermore, Kimura (2015) proposes that political skill produces outcomes that fall into one of four categories. These are stress management, individual performance, leadership effectiveness, and career success. For purpose of this review, the author will focus on the relationship between political skill and career success. However, it should be noted that the positive effect of political skill on individual performance, stress management, and leadership effectiveness, may cumulatively result in a positive influence on career success.

Political Skill and Career Success

A multitude of studies have produced positive outcomes when considering political skill and career success in a business or organizational setting. In the realm of sport, the phenomenon is in the early stages of being researched and is so far limited to only a few empirical studies. The evolution of political skill studies in a business setting and sport setting is presented in Table 2.4 and Table 2.5 respectively.

Recently, use of political skill by NCAA division I head coaches resulted in a more positive reputation among assistant coaches and increased leader effectiveness as measured by team-unit performance and leader-unit performance questionnaires (Kim et al., 2016). Political skill has revealed itself as being an important factor in the career success of sport management interns as it results in a positive effect on career and life satisfaction, perceived external marketability, and perceived effectiveness (Magnusen & Kim, 2016). In a study of intercollegiate athletic departments, political skill has been determined to be a social effectiveness construct of which coaches should be aware and practice as it may be of particular benefit when pursuing high level recruits to join their sports teams (Magnusen, Kim, Perrewé, & Ferris, 2014b; Magnusen, Mondello, Kim, & Ferris, 2011). Furthermore, in studies of head football coaches and women's soccer coaches, those coaches who were found to be politically skilled were also found to achieve greater success in recruiting highly rated recruits than less politically skilled coaches (Magnusen et al., 2014a; Treadway et al., 2014). This ability to land top recruits has a direct impact on career success of intercollegiate coaches, not only because it allows a coach to place a better athlete in competition, but some intercollegiate coaching contracts include an allowance that awards monetary bonuses for having signed a highly

Table 2.4 Evolution of Political Skill and Career Success Study Reference

Study	Results
(Breland, treadway, Duke, & Adams, 2007)	Offsetting affects between LMX and political skill
(Ferris et al.,2008)	PS has postitive effects on hierarchical position and job satisfaction, Does not affect yearly income
(Todd et al., 2009)	Networking ability is strongest predictor of career success (i.e. total compensation, total promotion, life satisfaction, job satisfaction, perceived marketability)
(Harris, Harris, & Brouer, 2009)	Turnover intention is lowest when LMX and PS come together
(Brouer et al., 2009)	PS may contribute to reducing the impact of factors such as racial dissimilarity in the development of high quality LMX; No such effect in relationships characterized by racial similarity.
(Treadway, Breland, Adams, Duke, & Williams, 2010)	PS is more likely to lead career based networking when a person's role seems timeless.
(Liu, Liu, & Wu, 2010)	Individuals with PS accumulate personal power through active networking. PS promotes career growth for politcally skilled individuals.
(Wei et al., 2010; Wei, Chiang, & Wu, 2012)	PS leads to higher career growth potential through the development of network resources. (continued)

Study	Results
(Blickle, Wendel, & Ferris, 2010)	For individuals high on political skill, higher levels of extraversion were associated with higher levels of sales. For individuals low on political skill, higher levels of extraversion were associated with lower levels of sales.
(Blickle et al., 2011c)	Longitudinal study showed that political skill predicts career outcomes (hierarchical position, income, and career satisfaction) through the development of favorable reputation.
(Moeller & Harvey, 2011)	Politically skilled individuals were better able to leverage network resources.
(Wei et al., 2012)	Intra-organizational network resources are positively related to career growth only for politically skilled individuals.
(Blickle et al., 2012)	Impression management through appearing to be modest leads to higher hierarchical positions and career satisfaction only when it is associated with high level of PS.
(Gentry, Gilmore, Shuffler, & Gilmore, 2012)	Positive relationship between an individual's PS and other-rated promotability.
(Huang, Frideger, & Pearce, 2013)	Being perceived as politically skilled has a positive effect on being recommended for managerial positions.
(Bedi & Skowronski, 2014)	Results of this meta-analysis showed political skill is associated with better job performance, career success and job satisfaction.
(Munyon, Summers, Thompson, & Ferris, 2015)	Metanalysis confirmed the positive relationship between political skill and various aspects of career success (i.e. overall career success, income, position).

Table 2.5 Evolution of Political Skill in a Sport Context

Study	Results
(Magnusen et al., 2011) (Magnusen et al., 2014b)	In studying factors that affect student-athletes' college choices, political skill is determined to be of particular benefit to coaches when recruiting high level recruits.
(Magnusen et al., 2014a)	Politically skilled college women's soccer coaches achieved great success recruiting highly rated student athletes than did coaches who were not politically skilled.
(Treadway et al., 2014)	Politically skilled college head football coaches achieved greater success recruiting highly rated student athletes than did coaches who were not politically skilled.
(Kim et al. 2016)	Political skill enhanced the positive reputation of collegiate head coaches, thus improving leader effectiveness
(Magnusen & Kim, 2016)	The relationship between PS and career success is mediated by LMX. PS determined to be an important factor in career success of sport management interns by positively affecting life satisfaction, perceived external marketability, and perceived effectiveness .

ranked recruiting class. From the alternative perspective, a coach who is not politically skilled may have a poorly recruited class of athletes which will most likely result in season outcomes that may not meet expectations of administrators, boosters, and other stakeholders. A continuing lack of political skill when dealing with these relationships may culminate in negative career outcomes.

Theoretical Explanations for Political Skill/Career Success Relationship

It has been long argued that organizational politics has a large influence on individual career success (Chen and Fang, 2008; Ferris et al. 2002a; Ferris and Judge 1991; Judge and Bretz, 1994; Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997). In line with this thought, Inkson (2004) describes a career as a political campaign owing to the fact that self-promotion, impression management, reputation building, and contact-hunting are keys to improving one's career outcomes. Political skills that enable the acquisition of social resources and a positive image from a supervisor are critical to such a campaign (Kimura, 2015). Career success has been defined as the positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements that a person has accumulated through work experience (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995). Career success has been divided into extrinsic and intrinsic components by researchers (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999), and has been measured using both objective measures such as pay and promotions, and subjective measures such as career or life satisfaction (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005).

A variety of theories have been used to explain the impact of political skill on career success. Social capital theory is a term from sociology that focuses on the complex and often intangible values associated with human social relationships and has been the

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customary explanation for the impact of political skill on career success (Burt, 1997; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The keys to explaining career success using social capital theory are networking and the resulting network structures (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001b). Network structures determine the value of information and influence inputs that are critical for career success (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). Wolff and Moser (2009) connected career success and networking through the building of social capital, and among political skill dimensions, networking behaviors have been shown to have more of an impact on career success than other political skill dimensions when considering measures of total promotion, career satisfaction, life satisfaction, and perceived marketability (Todd et al., 2009). Seibert et al. (2001b) was the first to hypothesize and then find that these network structures promote both objective and subjective career outcomes through social resources and associated network benefits resulting from those relationships.

In a study of sport management interns, Magnusen and Kim (2016) considered the role of leader-member exchange (LMX) as a mediator between political skill and career success. The study found that the political skill and career success relationship are mediated by LMX, which places strong emphasis on the social relationship between leader and subordinate. Magnusen & Kim (2017) emphasize the role of political skill, but take a view of political skill as a human capital variable rather than a social capital variable. The terms social capital and human capital are derived from different areas of research (i.e. social capital from sociology, human capital from economics). Human capital includes a stock of competencies (i.e. level of education, personal abilities, work experience, political knowledge, social skills) that are embodied in the ability to perform

labor so as to produce economic value. Not much difference other than perspective, social capital is the expected collective or economic benefits derived from the social networks. Both terms seem to be somewhat interchangeable and are often used without much consideration of the consequences of merging sociological and economic ways of making sense of human activities. Either way, it is clear that the relationship between political skill and career success is strong (Magnusen et al., 2014a; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001a; Todd et al., 2009; Treadway, Adams, Hanes, Perrewe, Magnusen, & Ferris, 2014; Wei, Liu, Chen, & Wu, 2010). As in other professions, for coaches it is necessary to draw on social capital theory and construct a strong social network within the immediate work environment (i.e. coaching staff, administration) as well as the broader work environment (i.e. other coaches in the profession). This structure building plays an integral role in an individual having a successful career.

Another theory used to explain the relationship between political skill and career success is signaling theory (Spence, 1974). In order to influence observers' beliefs and to reduce ambiguity, signaling theory assumes that an individual sends signals to others as a means of transmitting information about their abilities, intention, and action (Spence, 1974). Politically skilled assistant coaches may signal their effective work performance and personal character by developing strong relationships with head coaches. Such signaling in politically skilled individuals has been shown to facilitate the establishment of the sender's positive personal reputation which makes one more likely to achieve objective career success than those who are less politically skilled (Blickle, Schneider, Liu, & Ferris, 2011). Because of the focus that signaling theory places on influencing supervisor perceptions and establishing a positive reputation, the dimensions of political

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skill that may be most impactful when looking through the lens of signaling theory may be apparent sincerity and interpersonal influence.

The final theory to be addressed as a perspective through which to view the positive impacts of political skill on career success is social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Blickle et al. (2011) found that politically skilled individuals tend to foster and develop high quality work relationships with supervisors. When beneficial to supervisors, these relationships will be reciprocated with positive personal reputation assessments and favorable objective career outcomes. Interaction frequency with supervisor (Shi, Johnson, Liu, & Wang, 2013), work relationship quality, and personal reputation have been revealed as outcomes closely associated with political skill (Harris, Harvey, & Booth, 2010; Laird, Zboja, & Ferris, 2012). Referring again to Magnusen & Kim (2017), LMX, or leader-member exchange, was found to mediate the relationship between political skill and career success on a foundation of social exchange theory. The dimensions of political skill that may have the most impact on career success from the perspective of social exchange theory are social astuteness, which is required to build influential relationships, and, as in social capital theory, networking, or developing relationships within the work environment.

Political Skill and Leader Effectiveness

A 2015 review of political skill research purports positive outcomes associated with political skill fit in one of four categories; career success, individual performance, stress management, or leader effectiveness (Kimura, 2015), and a recent meta-analysis validates political skill is positively related to self-efficacy, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work productivity, and personal reputation and negatively

related to physiological strain (Munyon, Summers, Thompson, &Ferris, 2015). Other positive outcomes resulting from effective use of political skill are higher job performance ratings from supervisors, increase in team performance, less experienced stress at work, and career success (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Perrewé et al., 2004; Magnusen et al., 2014; Magnusen & Kim, 2017; Todd, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2009). Perceptions of leader political skill have significantly predicted ratings of leader effectiveness (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004), and a study of 248 NCAA Division I assistant coaches revealed that political skill enhances measures of leader effectiveness through the building of a quality reputation (Kim, Wells, & Kim, 2016).

Political skill also influences leader effectiveness through a positive effect on charisma (Blickle, Meurs, Whiler, Ewen, & Peiseler, 2014), which may play a part in transformational and transactional leadership behaviors serving as mediators through which political skill impacts perceptions of leader effectiveness (Ewan et al., 2013). However, servant leadership does not include a charismatic component, and unlike other types of leaders, a servant leader does not initially aspire to lead but answers an altruistic calling to be "servant first" (Greenleaf, 1977). Furthermore, political skill may influence the effectiveness of leaders because of its relation to leader and follower effectiveness that happens through quality leader-follower relationships (Brower, Douglas, Treadway, & Ferris, 2012). Political skill is also associated with increased trust and job satisfaction of employees (Treadway, Bentley, Williams, & Wallace, 2014), and Moss and Barbuto (2010) found a significant relationship between political skill and altruism, a component of servant leadership, when considering leader success and effectiveness.

Summary

In summary, servant leadership is a style of leadership based on ethics and benevolent service to others that has revealed many associations with positive outcomes. Political skill, a concept based on using social influence at work to achieve desired outcomes, has also been associated with positive outcomes such as leader effectiveness, career success, job performance, and stress management. Both concepts are deserving of increased attention in the realm of sport. The purpose of this study is to extend the contextual boundaries of servant leadership research by investigating servant leadership as an effective style for interscholastic sport administrators. Additionally, the investigation will analyze the interaction effect between servant leadership and political skill when considering leader effectiveness outcomes (e.g., leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, organizational commitment).

CHAPTER THREE

Method

Because servant leadership is deserving of sustained research focus within the domain of sport management, and servant leadership research should be extended to a variety of environments within the sport arena (Welty Peachey et al., 2015), the first purpose of this study was to extend the contextual boundary conditions of servant leadership research by considering athletic director-head coach relationships in an interscholastic sport administration setting and examining the association of servant leadership behaviors with follower-perceived leader effectiveness and attitudes.

The second purpose addresses a need to investigate factors that allow servant leadership to have its greatest possible influence (Neubert, et al., 2016). For servant leaders, important career and life outcomes positively associated with being politically skilled may create a conflict regarding how political skill, a seemingly self-focused Machiavellian concept based on enhancing one's personal or organizational objectives, interacts with servant leadership, a concept based on benevolent service to others. Therefore, the second purpose of this study is to address this question is to examine the role of political skill as a potential moderator of the relationship between servant leadership and outcome variables.

Research Questions

1. Is servant leadership an effective style of leadership for interscholastic sport administrators?

2. What is the moderating effect of political skill on servant leadership when considering leader effectiveness outcomes (e.g., leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, organizational commitment)?

Hypotheses

1. Athletic directors who exhibit more servant leader behaviors will be perceived as more effective leaders than those exhibiting fewer servant leader behaviors.

2. Head coaches that work for athletic directors who exhibit more servant leader behaviors will be more affectively committed to the organization for which they work than head coaches who work for athletic directors who exhibit fewer servant leader behaviors.

3. Head coaches that work for athletic directors who exhibit more servant leader behaviors will be more satisfied with their job than head coaches who work for athletic directors who exhibit fewer servant leader behaviors.

4. Political skill will moderate the relationship between servant leadership and leader effectiveness, such that more political skill enhances the positive relationship between servant leadership and leader effectiveness.

5. Political skill will moderate the relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment of subordinates, such that more political skill enhances the positive relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment.

6. Political skill will moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction of subordinates, such that more political skill enhances the positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Sampling Procedure

Data collection consisted of two phases. Phase one of data collection utilized a purposive sample of interscholastic athletic directors (ADs) invited to participate via e-mail. Purposive sampling is a nonprobability sampling technique that researchers use when they desire to recruit study participants from specific, predefined groups (e.g. interscholastic ADs; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). Initial invitations were distributed to a list of ADs in the southwestern United States whose e-mail addresses were gathered from

school websites. The e-mail invited athletic directors to participate in a study described as "an investigation of relationship dynamics that occur between interscholastic athletic directors and head coaches." The initial distribution of invitations was enhanced with a second e-mail invitation sent by the National Interscholastic Athletic Administrators' Association to its active members. ADs were asked to complete an on-line questionnaire on Qualtrics and were informed they would be entered in a random drawing for one of 110 gift cards worth $25 each. To receive the gift card, ADs were informed they must have at least one head coach respond to the head coach questionnaire in Phase 2 of data collection. In phase 2 of data collection, participating ADs were asked to forward an e-mail invitation to all head coaches on their staff inviting them to also complete an online questionnaire. Head coaches were informed that completing the survey would make them eligible for a random drawing to win one of 110 gift cards worth $25.

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Athletic Director Variables

The athletic director instrument is provided in Appendix D.

Control variables. Control variables utilized for athletic directors were age and school enrollment.

Political skill. Athletic directors completed the Political Skill Inventory (PSI; Ferris et al., 2005b). The PSI is a self-reported questionnaire that contains items designed to assess social astuteness, interpersonal influence, apparent sincerity, and networking.

The 18-item instrument utilizes a 7-point Likert scale to measure participants' perceived levels of political skill where 1 = ''strongly agree'' and 7 = ''strongly disagree''. An example of an item from the social astuteness dimension is: "I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others." An example from the dimension of interpersonal influence reads: "I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me." An example of a question from the apparent sincerity dimension is, "When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say or do." Finally, from the dimension of networking ability, an example question states, "I have developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work whom I can call on for support when I really need to get things done." The internal consistency reliability for this scale was α = .90.

Head Coach Variables

Head coach items are listed in Appendix E.

Control variables. Control variables for head coaches were age and school enrollment.

All head coach instruments utilized a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = ''strongly agree'' and 7 = ''strongly disagree.'

Servant leadership. Head coaches evaluated servant leadership behaviors of their school's AD by completing the 14-item Servant Leadership Scale (Ehrhart, 2004). This general measure of servant leadership is based on seven categories: forming relationships with subordinates, empowering subordinates, helping subordinates grow and succeed, behaving ethically, having conceptual skill, putting subordinates first, and creating value

for those outside the organization. Sample items include, "My athletic director makes the personal development of employees a priority," "My athletic director tries to reach consensus among department employees on important decisions," and "My athletic director holds employees to high ethical standards." The reliability for this scale was α = .97.

Leader effectiveness. Head coaches evaluated leader effectiveness of the athletic director by responding to six items adapted from Douglas and Ammeter's (2004) leader effectiveness scale which measures leader effectiveness as team-unit and leader-unit performance. A sample item for team-unit performance is, "Our athletic program meets or exceeds expectations." A sample item for leader-unit performance is, "My athletic director is effective in representing our department." The reliability for this scale was α = .90.

Affective organizational commitment. Affective organizational commitment measures the strength of one's emotional attachment and identification with an organization and consists of five items (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). An example item is, "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me." The reliability for this scale was α = .79.

Job satisfaction. The four-item scale developed by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997) was used to assess employee's job satisfaction. A sample item is, "All in all, I am very satisfied with my current job."The reliability for this scale was α = .90.

Analysis Strategy

All analyses were completed using R Studio statistical analysis program (RStudio Team, 2015). Prior to analysis, data was checked for missing entries. Less than 1% missing data on any individual response was not considered a threat as a missing rate of 5% or less is considered inconsequential (Schafer, 1999). The investigation utilized a multilevel model and an analysis strategy appropriate to the levels involved in each specific hypothesis.

First examined was the association of the individual-level predictor variable (SL) and outcomes (AOC & JS) utilizing linear regression to test H_2 and H_3. Measuring outcomes at the individual-level reveals more information about individual perceptions of a leader's effectiveness and allows for numerous personal factors that may influence individual-level outcomes. Servant leadership was group-mean-centered by subtracting the unit mean (i.e., school mean) from each individual score to create a pure individual-level variable. Group-mean-centering provides similar results to grand-mean-centering but allows for a test of separate level effects (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). Thus, group-mean-centering holds value for testing cross-level interactions (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992), and provides the purest estimate of the within-group slope (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998).

Next, H_1 and H_4 were tested which involved examining the association of school-level predictors (SL & PS) and outcome (LE). Individual-level servant leadership and individual-level leader effectiveness scores were aggregated to the school-level to provide a robust evaluation of predictors based on group association rather than individual differences. Regression analysis was used to test the direct effects of SL on LE

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and examine any interaction between SL and PS that might be present. PS was mean centered prior to analysis to aid in interpreting the interaction (Bliese, 2016).

Finally, testing H_5 and H_6 involved multilevel modeling to examine the association of school-level predictors (SL & PS) and cross-level interactions that might influence individual-level outcomes (AOC & JS). Multilevel modeling can be thought of as an ordinary regression model that has additional variance terms for handling non-independence due to group membership and explains how nesting HCs in subsets may produce additional sources of variance (Jackson, 2010; Bliese, 2000).

CHAPTER FOUR

Servant Leadership in Sport:
A Review, Synthesis, and Applications for Sport Management Classrooms

Abstract

Servant leadership is a style of leadership characterized by principles of other-centeredness and ethical behavior and suggests that truly effective and legitimate leaders place service to others ahead of personal power and control. Studies on servant leadership in organizational and sport settings have consistently produced positive outcomes. However, the idea of servant leadership as a model for successful leadership in sport is only in the early stages of being accepted. Motivated by a need for adequate information and pedagogical resources, the present review describes the origin and conceptualization of servant leadership and summarizes the positive outcomes resulting from servant leadership. A model for understanding servant leadership attributes and dynamics is presented along with recommendations for sport management educators.

Introduction

Organizations are increasingly looking for positive forms of leadership that focus on the needs and growth of others because the relationships between leaders and subordinates rest at the core of successful organizations (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). In response, leadership researchers have begun

placing more emphasis on servant leadership models, which consider a shared perspective where the interactions between leaders and followers are paramount (Dyck & Neubert, 2010; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Servant leadership is a model of leadership that suggests that truly effective leaders place service to others ahead of personal power and control (Hammermeister, Burton, Pickering, Chase, Westre, & Baldwin, 2008), and existing studies reveal consistent patterns of servant leadership behavior yielding positive individual, team, and organizational outcomes in a variety of organizational settings (Van Dierendonck, 2011; Parris & Peachey, 2013).

Interestingly, although there exists an extensive amount of research and educational literature examining the importance of leadership in and outside of sport, only recently has servant leadership begun to receive elaboration in sport management textbooks (Borland, Kane, & Burton, 2014; O'Boyle, Murray, & Cummins, 2015). Table 4.1 provides a brief summary of how servant leadership is addressed in several sport management textbooks. This table offers evidence that it has been a slow process for the academic fields that influence the practices of coaches and sport managers to adopt the idea of servant leadership, and in the realm of sport, this style of leadership appears to be in the early stages of being seriously considered as a viable and effective leadership model. Still, though receiving only limited attention in sport management textbooks, the study and application of servant leadership in a sport environment is deserving of greater attention.

Consider how the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), as a non-profit association charged with regulating athletes at institutions across the United States, has as its core purpose, "to govern competition in a fair, safe, and sportsmanlike manner,

and to integrate intercollegiate athletics into higher education so that the educational experience of the student-athlete is paramount," (NCAA Strategic Plan, 2004, p.3). The NCAA core values also include integrity and sportsmanship, respect, and creating an inclusive culture (NCAA Strategic Plan, 2004). In recognition of this mission to serve student-athletes, arguments have been made that servant leadership could be the best model to support the mission and help rectify the ethical imbalance prevalent in intercollegiate athletics in the United States (Burton & Peachey, 2013). Further, in a recent review on leadership in sport, Peachey, Damon, Zhou, and Burton (2015) note that the most highly cited leadership article within the sport management literature focuses on a call for servant leadership in intercollegiate athletics. Yet, though the area of servant leadership in sport appears primed for growth, such expansion has not happened in the textbooks often used to educate students about leading and managing sport organizations.

Accordingly, the objective of this critical research review is to improve upon the ways in which servant leadership tends to be presented in sport management textbooks. This objective is accomplished through a three-fold process. First, the origin and evolution of the servant leadership concept is explored. Next, we consolidate and review how servant leadership has been studied in non-sport and sport contexts. Third, a new model for understanding the multi-faceted concept of servant leadership is proposed, and we then offer suggestions for how the proposed servant leadership model can be incorporated into sport management curriculum.

Table 4.1 *A Summary of How Servant Leadership is Taught in Sport Management Textbooks*

Source	Authors	Leadership Contents	How Servant Leadership is Addressed
Applied Sport Management Skills (2nd ed.)	Lussier & Kimball (2014)	Chapter 12 is about leadership. The chapter covers leadership traits, behaviors, various styles, and situational models.	Some examples of leadership types are addressed such as charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership. Servant leadership is not mentioned.
Contemporary Leadership in Sport Organizations	Scott (2014)	Entire book is about leadership. Chapter 2 focuses on relationship-based leadership.	Chapter 2 gives a brief description of servant leadership. Three paragraphs are devoted to servant leadership which shares a section with authentic leadership. The small amount of available research on servant leadership in a sport context is also mentioned.
Contemporary Sport Management (5th ed.)	Pedersen & Thibault (2014)	Chapter 5 pertains to managing and leading in sport organizations.	Characteristics of successful leaders are described. Leadership types such as transactional, laissez-faire, and transformational are discussed. Servant leadership is not mentioned.
Principles and Practices of Sport Management (5th ed.)	Masteralexis, Barr, & Hums (2015)	Chapter 2 applies management principles to sport organizations. No chapter is devoted to leadership.	Leading is referred to as the "action" part of management, but there is no extensive description of leadership. The importance of people skills is described, but servant leadership is not addressed.
Sport Leadership in the 21st Century	Borland, Kane, & Burton (2015)	Entire book is devoted to leadership. Chapter 3 is devoted to transformational, transactional, and servant leadership.	Several pages are devoted to servant leadership. Spears 10 characteristic are presented along with Van Dierendonck's (2011) explanation. The leader-follower relationship is emphasized and research in the sport management field is addressed. There are no developmental activities nor visual model presented. (continued)

Source	Authors	Leadership Contents	How Servant Leadership is Addressed
Understanding Sport Organizations (2nd ed.)	Slack & Parent (2006)	Chapters 10-14 focus on areas closely related to leadership such as political power and organizational change. Chapter 15 is devoted to leadership and sport organizations.	Trait and behavioral approaches to describing leadership are explained along with various theories such as path-goal and situational. Charismatic and transformational leadership are each represented with several paragraphs. To close the chapter, shared leadership is mentioned as an area for future research, but there is no mention of servant leadership.

Origin and Evolution of the Servant Leadership Concept

The idea of servant leadership is not a completely new phenomenon. Indeed,

notions of the leader as servant date back over thousands of years. In the Tao Te Ching

written around 500 BC in China, a passage attributed to Lao-Tzu says, "The highest type

of ruler is one of whose existence the people are barely aware" (Lao-Tzu, ch.35); this

ancient assertion introduced the idea that effective leaders serve others without regard for

recognition. In more modern times, Robert K. Greenleaf, a former executive with

AT&T, is credited as one of the individuals who first introduced and then championed

the idea of the servant leader in the business workplace. In his seminal work, *The Servant

as Leader*, which was first published in 1970, Greenleaf coined the term "servant leader",

and also described servant leadership as an approach to leading that promotes the

personal growth and well-being of others and emphasizes the moral high ground of doing

"good." He later provided what has come to be one of the most popular descriptions of

servant leadership. Specifically, Greenleaf (1977) states:

> The servant leader is servant first… It begins with the natural feeling that one
> wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to

lead… The best test, and difficult to administer is this: Do those served grow as persons? (p.27)

The concept of servant leadership continued to be emphasized by Larry Spears, who served for 17 years as head of the non-profit organization, the Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership. Spears, who has authored more than 10 books on servant leadership, originally narrowed the description of servant leadership to 10 distinguishing characteristics of listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community (Spears, 1995, 1996).

Since the inception of the idea of servant leadership, several academic models have also been developed in the business and organizational context that present variations of servant leader attributes (Laub, 1999; Ehrhart, 2004; Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011, Sun, 2013). Each of these models created a new twist on the general definition of servant leadership and further increased the challenge when attempting to answer the question, "What is servant leadership?" To best describe the aforementioned models, Table 4.2 presents a timeline of servant leadership models including attributes of each model and definitions of those attributes. This table should allow the reader to visualize the evolution of the definition of servant leadership and to better understand the array of attributes used to describe servant leadership.

The broad range of attributes in these models considered to be behaviors of servant leadership has led to attempts to integrate these diverse perspectives. Sun (2013) developed an efficient model of servant leadership that minimizes overlaps and includes a calling to serve, *agape* love, humility, and empathy. Along with these specific attributes,

Sun (2013) also suggests that effective servant leaders not only identify with and display these distinct servant behaviors but may also integrate additional behaviors as necessitated by the situational context.

Theoretical Overlaps with Other Leadership Theories

Just as a diverse array of characteristics have been presented in servant leadership models, so too have a variety of leadership theories been proposed by scholars that reveal overlapping characteristics with servant leadership (e.g. transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, authentic leadership, ethical leadership, and spiritual leadership). Sorting through the differences between servant leadership models and distinguishing between servant leadership and other leadership theories can be quite challenging. To better delineate servant leadership from other leadership theories, similarities and differences between theories are presented in Table 4.3. The overlaps between servant leadership models and other theories of leadership further reinforce the idea that effective servant leaders may not only exercise distinct servant leader behaviors, but also enact other behaviors that have been generally linked to effective leadership (such as visioning, modeling integrity, etc.).

An Overview of Servant Leadership Research

Servant leadership in business and organizational settings has been shown to be associated with more satisfied and productive subordinates by creating a culture of service and an environment of trust and openness between leader and follower. Employees led by servant leaders are intrinsically motivated and are more creative than those lead by non-servant leaders. Altogether, research on servant leadership points to

this style as strongly contributing to a happier and more productive work environment

that is characterized by enhanced individual and organizational performance.

Table 4.2 *Timeline of Common Academic Models*

Model and Attributes	Definitions
Laub (1999)	
Values people	Believing in people and maintaining a high view of people; putting others first; active listening
Develops people	Providing for learning and growth; lead by modeling; build others up through encouragement
Builds community	Enhancing relationships; Emphasizing teamwork; Valuing the differences of others
Displays authority	Willing to be transparent and open to input from others; maintaining integrity by being honest, consistent, and behaving ethically
Provides leadership	Envisioning the future and using intuition; taking initiative; clarifying goals
Shares leadership	Shares power by empowering others; sharing positions of status
Ehrhart (2004)	
Forming relationships with subordinates	Pursuing high quality interaction with subordinates in order to foster trust and inclusion
Empowering subordinates	Encouraging and facilitating others in identifying and solving problems
Enabling subordinate growth success	Showing genuine concern for the career growth of others by and providing support and mentoring
Behaving ethically	Interacting openly, fairly, and honestly with others
Possessing conceptual skills	Having knowledge of the organization and general tasks in order to support and assist others
Putting subordinates first	Making clear to others through words and action that satisfying their work needs is a priority
Creating value for those organization	Conscious genuine concern for helping those outside the organization (continued)

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Model and Attributes	Definitions
Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)	
Altruistic calling others	Deep rooted desire to make a positive difference in the lives of
Emotional healing	Commitment to and skill in fostering spiritual recovery from hardship or trauma
Persuasive mapping	Extent to which leaders use sound reasoning and mental frameworks
Wisdom	Combination of awareness of surroundings and anticipation of consequences
Organizational stewardship	Extent that leaders prepare an organization to make a positive contribution to society through community development, programs, and outreach
Liden et al. (2008)	
Empowering	Encouraging and facilitating others, especially immediate followers, in identifying and solving problems
Helping subordinates grow and succeed	Demonstrating genuine concern for others' career growth and development by providing support and mentoring
Putting subordinates first	Using actions and words to make clear to others that satisfying their work needs is a priority
Emotional healing	Act of showing sensitivity to others' concerns
Conceptual skills	Possessing the knowledge of the organization and tasks at hand so as to be in a position to effectively support and assist others
Creating value for community	Conscious, genuine concern for helping the community
Behaving ethically	Interacting openly, fairly, and honestly with others
Sendjaya et al. (2008)	
Authentic self	Secure sense of self enables leaders to be accountable and vulnerable to others
Transforming influence	When those served by servant leaders are positively transformed into servant leaders themselves
Voluntary subordination	Willingness to take up opportunities to serve others whenever there is a legitimate need regardless of the nature of the service
Transcendental spirituality	Attuned to spiritual values; associated with calling to make a difference in the lives of others (continued)

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Model and Attributes	Definitions
Covenantal relationship	Acceptance of others for who they are; enables others to experiment, grow, and be creative without fear
Responsible morality	Ensuring that both the ends sought and the means employed are morally legitimized, thoughtfully reasoned, and ethically justified
Hammermeister (2008)	
Trust and Inclusion	Coaches ability to accept others ideas when they might be better and the moral courage to do the right thing even when it may hurt politically.
Humility	Ability to keep one's talents in proper perspective.
Service	Going out of the way to help others.
Van Dierendonck (2011)	
Empowering and giving developing people	Fostering a proactive, self-confident attitude among followers a sense of personal power
Humility	Ability to put one's own accomplishments and talents in proper perspective
Authenticity	Expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings
Interpersonal acceptance	Ability to understand and experience the feelings of others; perspective taking element of empathy
Providing direction	Ensures people know what is expected of them
Stewardship	Taking responsibility for larger institution; emphasize service over control and self-interest
Sun (2013)	
Calling	Defines the vocation of the leader to be of service to others, one which is deeply spiritual and provides purpose to life
Humility	A stable attribute that orients the leader to consider others above self. It is the ability to hold one's own position and capability in proper perspective so as not to permit an inflated sense of self to get in the way of fulfilling one's calling.
Empathy	A moral attribute that enables the leader to put themselves in another person's shoes and understand the position and situation they are coming from.
Agape love a deeply	Altruistic form of love which is selfless and unconditional. It is spiritual type of love.

Table 4.3 *Leadership Theories and Overlapping Characteristics with Servant Leadership*

Theory	Similarities with Servant Leadership	Differences with Servant Leadership
Transformational leadership	Explicit attention is given to developing followers through individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and supportive behavior (Bass, 1985).	There is a charismatic side to transformational leadership. Primary allegiance is to the organization and personal growth of followers is seen within the context of what is good for the organization (Graham, 1991)
Leader-member exchange	Shared emphasis on development of high-quality relationship between leader and follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995)	High LMX leaders seek to develop mutually beneficial relationships with subsets of followers, whereas servant leaders develop supportive relationships with all employees and colleagues.
Authentic leadership	Authentic leaders work through an increased self-awareness, relational transparency, internalized transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balanced processing. They have a strong sense of accountability to oneself and to others. (Avolio & Gardner, 2005)	Authentic leaders are focused on being one's "true self" (e.g. authentic in interaction with others, being true to one's inner thoughts, and being willing to keep an open mind and consider change). However, being true to one's inner thoughts does not necessarily mean the leader takes on the nature of a servant. An authentic leader may feel a strong obligation to advance the organization rather than focus on follower needs and development.
Ethical leadership	Ethical leadership emphasizes caring for people, integrity, trustworthiness, and serving the good of the whole. The focus is on appropriate behavior in the workplace (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005).	Ethics are emphasized through directive and normative behavior, whereas servant leadership has a stronger focus on the actions of serving and developing followers.
Spiritual leadership	Spiritual leadership starts with creating a vision through which a sense of calling can be experienced (Fry & Slocum, 2008).	Operationalization of spiritual leadership focuses on organizational culture rather than leader behavior (Fry, 2003). Servant leadership theory better explicates the leader-follower relationship. Greenleaf positioned servant leadership as a secular theory to avoid lack of clarity that comes with the term spirituality.

A multitude of studies are responsible for positive findings associated with servant leadership in a business or organizational setting. In order to view the results, a consolidation of servant leadership research in a business setting is presented in Table 4.4. Positive outcomes are offered along with corresponding references.

Servant Leadership in the Context of Sport

Though servant leadership has been studied relatively extensively in a business context and some other organizational settings, empirical studies are not as abundant in the context of sport. Hammermeister et al. (2008) was the first to empirically investigate outcomes in regards to servant leadership behaviors of coaches. An investigation of 251 college athletes from two colleges determined that servant leader coaches produced athletes that were more satisfied, had higher intrinsic motivation, were more task oriented, demonstrated stronger athletic coping skills, and possessed more self-confidence than non-servant leader coaches (Hammermeister et al., 2008). Also in 2008, Rieke, Hammermeister, and Chase published congruent findings from an investigation of male high school basketball players. Athletes who played for servant leader coaches displayed higher intrinsic motivation, were more task oriented, were more satisfied, performed better on a mental skills assessment, and perceived performance to be better than athletes coached by non-servant leaders. Rieke et al. (2008) also considered athlete preference for coaching style and found that athletes preferred the servant-leader coaching style to more traditional styles. The article concluded that servant leadership is associated with athletes' psychological health and increased performance (Rieke et al., 2008).

Table 4.4 Consolidation of Servant Leadership Research

Outcome	Article Citation
Open and trusting environment	Reinke, 2004; Joseph & Winston, 2005; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010
Enhances organizational citizenship behavior	Ehrhart, 2004; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010; Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Hu & Liden, 2011
Increases team and leader effectiveness	Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, & Jinks, 2007; Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008; McCuddy & Cavin, 2008; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; Hu & Liden, 2011
Encourages collaboration between team members	Irving and Longbotham, 2007; Garber, Madigan, Click, & Fitzpatrick, 2009; Sturm, 2009
Positive influence on team performance	Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Hu & Liden, 2011; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; Neubert, Hunter, & Tolentino, 2016
Increases job satisfaction	Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008; Neubert, Hunter, & Tolentino, 2016
Invokes promotion oriented regulatory focus which nourishes creativity & enhances helping behavior	Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008
Enrich quality of family life of employees	Zhang, Kwan, Everett, & Jian, 2012
Nourishes a culture of service through role-modeling & decreases disengagement of employees	Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penney, & Weinberger, 2013
Decreases disengagement and turnover intentions	Hunter et al., 2013
Fosters creativity	Neubert et al., 2008; Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014
Fosters team innovation	Yoshida, Sendjaya, Hirst, & Cooper, 2014

Since Burton & Peachey's (2013) call for servant leadership in intercollegiate athletics, the idea of servant leadership as a model for sport leadership appears to be gaining the interest of researchers as noted by a recent increase in publications and presentations. A study found a strong positive correlation of servant leadership with athlete satisfaction in female volleyball and basketball players in an Iranian university (Azadfada, Besmi, & Doroudian, 2014). Furthermore, Gillham, Burton, and Gillham (2014) suggested that servant leader behavior may have a positive relationship with coaching success, while Cho & Kim (2014), of the Korean National Sport University, presented findings from a study of 224 student athletes at a university in Seoul, South Korea that conclude that servant leadership by elite sport coaches positively influenced both the student athletes' immersion in the sport and athletic achievement. Their results also reveal that sport immersion, which refers to an athlete's deep mental involvement, is a mediating variable between servant leadership and athlete achievement (Cho & Kim, 2014). This suggests that servant leader behavior encourages an athlete's immersion in the activity, which then contributes to the athlete's level of achievement.

When compared with servant leadership investigations published in business literature, it appears research on servant leadership in the realm of sport is in its infancy. There have been fivefold more studies on servant leadership in business over the last 10 years than in sport management. Positive empirical outcomes in these studies from a business setting have laid a solid foundation for the positive influences of servant leadership by considering outcomes such as environment created, organizational citizenship behavior, regulatory focus of employees, and team and leader effectiveness.

Three Sphere Model

Sorting through the various models of servant leadership can be challenging as effective servant leaders not only exercise distinct servant behaviors, but, when the context calls for it, may enact other behavioral strategies linked to effective leadership (such as visioning, modeling integrity, etc.) (Sun, 2013). Furthermore, the use of variety of terms across models that have similar meanings has increased the difficulty of comprehending servant leadership, and these models do not consider how servant leaders may adapt behaviors to various situational factors. Therefore, drawing from the models and definitions presented herein, the authors present an integrated model of servant leadership in Figure 4.1. The following multi-sphere model is offered in order to simplify the concept of servant leadership and promote a better understanding of servant leadership dynamics in sport organizations. The model is divided into three spheres; core motivation, central enduring qualities, and contextual variability.

Core – Altruistic Calling

The term, "calling", refers to one's deeply held beliefs that create a strong urge toward a particular way of life. Calling is expressed through the living out of convictions, and often times, influence one's choice of career (Sauser, 2005). Calling is not only deeply spiritual, but may also provide meaning, direction, and purpose to one's life (Fry, 2003). When calling is altruistic in nature, a person is then motivated to promote the well-being of others, even at risk or cost to one's self. Altruistic calling lies at the core of the servant leadership identity (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Sun, 2013) and has been described as a transcendental spirituality or strong desire to make a difference in the life of others (Sendjaya et al., 2008). The result of such a calling is leaders putting

subordinates first (Liden et al., 2008). This form of leadership motivates and empowers subordinates to act and perform to their full potential thus increasing possibilities of success (Liden et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Van Dierendonck & Nujiten, 2011).

Altruistic calling may reveal itself in sport managers as the perception that one's vocation and mission in life is to serve others. For example, an athletic director may feel a strong mission to serve the needs of student-athletes. This calling might motivate the athletic director to place priority on helping student-athletes grow into productive adults rather than a "win at all costs" mentality. This model proposes that altruistic calling is the motivating factor in leaders being other-centered and behaving ethically. Additionally, altruistic calling initiates behavior at subsequent spheres of the model.

Central Sphere – Enduring Qualities

With altruistic calling at the core of the servant leadership model, it is proposed that the attributes of genuine caring, humility, and empathy are present and persist in the behavioral disposition of all servant leaders. These enduring qualities also guide the cognitive processes of servant leaders and, consistent with Sun (2013), we assert they represent essential attributes of the identity of a servant leader. These enduring qualities are represented in the central sphere of the servant leadership model.

Genuine caring stems from a selfless and unconditional love known as *"agape"* love (Russell & Stone, 2002). This type of love is not merely a behavior, but also an expression of one's true inner attributes (Kouzes & Posner, 1992). *Agape* love is foundational to the servant leader identity (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Patterson, 2003) and provides the basis for passionate service which is heartfelt and supporting of others in times of need (Ferguson & McMillan, 2008; Kouzes & Posner, 1992). This selfless love

made visible through the genuine caring of servant leaders influences the behaviors of others, which in turn leads to an array of positive outcomes for followers and organizations (Chen, Yang, & Li, 2012; Fry, 2003; Fry, Vitucci, & Cedillo, 2005). Genuine caring illuminates itself through valuing and developing people (Laub, 1999), helping subordinates grow and succeed (Liden et al., 2008), service (Hammermeister et al., 2008), and building community (Laub, 1999; Liden et al., 2008). Genuine caring is a principle of servant leadership that may become visible in sport managers as a need to actively pursue strategies to help others, and it plays an essential role in creating an environment where trust flourishes and communication is optimized.

In addition to genuine caring, a servant leader is also described by the central attribute of humility (Hammermeister et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Sun, 2013). Humility is described as having a modest opinion or estimate of one's own importance, and involves the ability to keep a realistic perspective on one's position and capabilities (Patterson, 2003). Humility does not imply a lack of confidence, but rather begins with the willingness to understand oneself, acknowledgement that we are all imperfect, and involves prioritizing the needs of others above one's own (Nielsen, Marrone, & Slay, 2010). A leader displaying humility is able to put aside his or her ambitions, accomplishments, talents, and position in order to utilize the talents of others and provide the most benefits for all (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Owens & Hekman, 2012; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Van Dierendonck & Nujiten, 2011). Humility is the undergirding principle leading to subsequent behaviors such as shared leadership (Laub, 1999), putting subordinates first (Liden et al., 2008), and voluntary subordination (Sendjaya et al, 2008). Humility among sport managers can counteract the tendency in sports to self- promote

3 Levels of Servant Leadership

Core – Altruistic Calling

Central - Enduring Attributes

Contextual – Based on contextual characteristics and variables, and leader capabilities

Visioning   Developing People

Enthusiasm   Emotional Stability

Genuine Caring

Persuasion   Intuitiveness

Altruistic

Calling

Tough   Wisdom

Mindedness   Humility   Empathy

Builds Community   Displays Authority

Provides Direction   Interpersonal
Acceptance

Stewardship
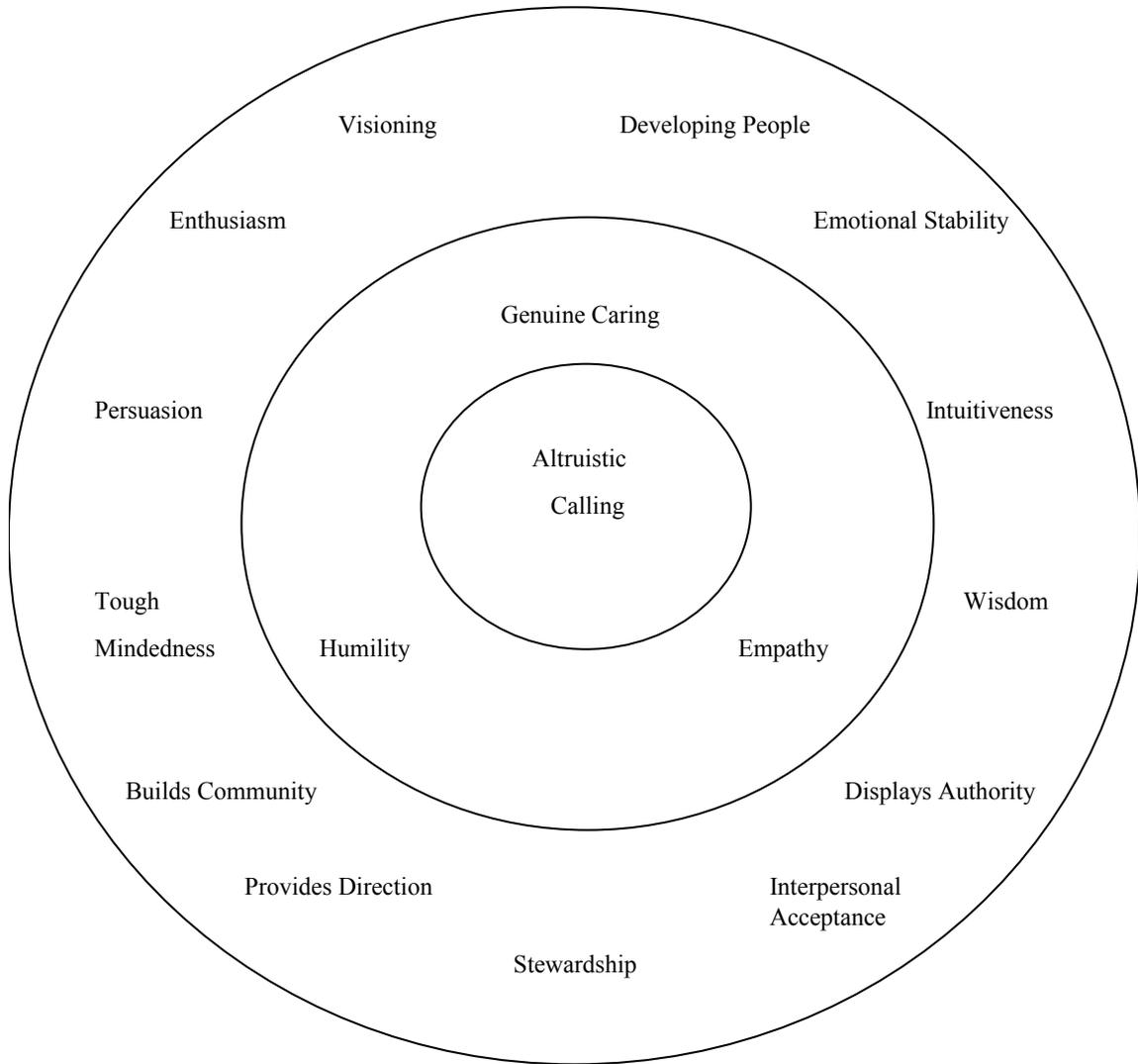
Figure 4.1 Servant Leadership Model

and act only in one's best interests. It may also help sport managers to be more open to constructive criticism, more realistic with self and program evaluations, and more motivated for others to benefit from their work.

Finally, the central quality of empathy is described as the intellectual identification with or vicarious experiencing of the feelings, thoughts, or attitudes of another. Closely related to emotional intelligence (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002), empathy is a central attribute displayed in servant leaders that describes the ability to be aware of the emotional states of others even when those emotions are not explicitly disclosed (Sun, 2013). The ability to understand others' feelings enables one to interpret verbal and nonverbal messages and understand links between peoples' emotions and behaviors (Polychroniou, 2009). Greenleaf (1977, p.50) described the empathetic relationship between servant leader and follower as the sharing of a "search for wholeness." Leaders who are empathetic are able to understand the point of view and psychological perspective of followers (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; George, 2000), and, as a result, able to provide emotional support to subordinates when needed (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden et al., 2008; Spears, 1995). In regards to sport management, an empathetic athletic director may be acutely aware of the emotional state of a coach who is dealing with numerous injuries to key team personnel. This might motivate the athletic director to seek out an opportunity to provide emotional support and encouragement to the coach.

Contextual Sphere

In addition to the distinct core and central sphere qualities of a servant leader, it has been suggested that servant leaders also may integrate other leadership behaviors as

necessitated by evolving situations (Sun, 2013). This review proposes that the servant leader identity does not deviate from the attributes described in the core and central sphere. However, a quality servant leader may exhibit additional leadership behaviors that have been linked with effective leadership. The contextual sphere of the model provides some examples of leadership qualities deemed as effective which may be utilized by servant leaders dependent upon contextual variables. To determine the best course of action, we assert that a leader must exercise emotional intelligence to interpret the mindset and needs of subordinates (Goleman et al., 2002; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). In order to accomplish an efficient and correct interpretation, a leader must be familiar with subordinates, understand individual needs, and be aware of personal motivational factors. Furthermore, an awareness of one's own and others' emotions is essential for adaptive decision making and behavioral changes that are necessary to meet these needs and demands of the context (Forgas & George, 2001). A servant leader employs emotional intelligence to identify and implement the most effective leadership behaviors.

The choice of the appropriate contextual sphere behavior are impacted by two factors, the situation or context, and the leader's capabilities. First, situational or contextual factors may require different types of behavior. For example, one situation may call for a leader to display authority or tough mindedness to subordinates, where another may necessitate participative strategies and persuasion. The leader must then draw from his or her leadership capabilities or skills developed through training, prior experience, and education to discern what they can capably implement. A more experienced servant leader is likely to have more behavioral options available for use given leadership skills tend to develop over time (Mumford, Marks, Connelly, Zaccaro,

& Reiter-Palmon, 2000). Altogether, a servant leader with an altruistic calling and enduring disposition to exhibit genuine care, humility, and empathy, also will utilize emotional intelligence to guide the choice of the contextual leadership behaviors for that particular leader in a specific situation that will be most effective in addressing follower needs.

Developing Servant Leaders: Classroom Applications of the Three Sphere Model

Though people are born with an inherent level of leadership abilities, most of the capabilities that enable an outstanding leader to lead are learned (Conger, 1992; Gardner, 1990; Mumford et al., 2000). Leadership development, however, goes beyond choosing a particular leadership theory and teaching people the behaviors associated with that theory (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Strum, & McKee, 2014). Leadership training also provides a set of systematic experiences in order to promote the development of knowledge and skills (Anderson, 1993).

Initially, the idea of servant leadership may be confounding when addressed in a curricular setting. The paradox of the servant as leader (and the leader as servant) might be difficult to grasp and not plausible. A traditional pedagogical approach based on lateral development initiates acquisition of knowledge, behaviors, and skills that may enrich and broaden one's perspective of reality (Cook-Greuter, 2004; Fisher, Rooke, & Torbert, 2003). Regarding servant leadership, lateral development may focus on increasing students' knowledge of servant leadership and enriching current communication skills (e.g. written, verbal, and interpersonal skills).

Vertical development through experiential learning also has become an important component of sport management curricula (Bennett, Henson, & Drane, 2003;

Cunningham, Sagas, Dixon, Kent, & Turner, 2005; Jowdy & McDonald, 2007; Jowdy, McDonald, & Spence, 2004; Southall, Hagel, LeGrande, & Han, 2003; Spence, Hess, McDonald, & Sheehan, 2009; Verner, Keyser, & Morrow, 2005). In order to accommodate multiple perspectives, vertical development activities engage students in a "learn by doing" process that requires students to test, rethink, and expand commonly held assumptions (Spence et al., 2009). Experiential learning provides opportunities for students to experience issues that require action and then reflect on such action (Johnson & Spicer, 2006), thus providing a potential lifelong influence on students' social interaction skills, awareness of social responsibility issues, and an ability to contribute to others (Bennett et al., 2003).

When presenting the concept of servant leadership in the context of a college classroom, instructors should first provide a working understanding of the concept of servant leadership and its attributes as presented in Figure 1. Students should then learn how to better recognize these three spheres of attributes in themselves through reflective self-assessment instruments such as the 32 item Humility Scale (Elliott, 2010) provided in Appendix A. Experiential learning activities that allow for social interaction and development of social awareness should be provided, such as the debate activity suggested in Table 5 (See Appendix B). Additionally, instructors should encourage and make available service opportunities such as volunteering at a local mission like a boys or girls club, or at a charity sport event which has been shown to develop a servant leadership orientation in volunteers (Wells & Peachey, 2014). Finally, because effective servant leaders not only exhibit distinct servant leader attributes, but enact other effective leadership behaviors as context necessitates, it is recommended that students continue to

develop other quality leadership characteristics in addition to the central servant leader attributes in order to be optimally prepared for leading others through a variety of situations and encounters.

It is through the course of everyday life that servant leadership reveals its true power and takes on the most significant meaning. Whether given charge of a large corporation, or leading people in a sport management setting, practice is essential to the development of mature servant leadership (Beazley & Beggs, 2002). Aspiring servant leaders should be mindful of opportunities to exhibit servant leader attributes. Therefore, to better enable sport management educators to instruct students on the topic of servant leadership, and in order to provide better practice opportunities, this review developed and proposes a simplified model for understanding servant leadership on a core, central, and contextual sphere (Figure 4.1). It also provides an initial set of recommendations for self-assessment and learning activities (Table 4.5) to implement in developing servant leaders.

Conclusion

In closing, while a single best leadership style for a sport organization has yet to be determined, servant leadership is a style that has the potential to yield positive results. Servant leadership as proposed here is an other-centered approach to leading that is motivated by a core altruistic calling, characterized by enduring central attributes of genuine caring, humility, and empathy, and inclusive of a range of contextually appropriate behaviors that benefit others. A combination of positive outcomes related to servant leadership in business settings, organizations, and sport contexts, and a trend of athletic organizations towards a more business-oriented perspective and commercial

Table 4.5 Attributes Defined and Suggestions for Teaching Servant Leadership

Attribute	Definition	Teaching Activity
Humility	Having a modest opinion or estimate of one's own importance; keeping a realistic perspective on one's position and capabilities (Patterson, 2003); involves prioritizing the needs of others above one's own (Nielsen, Marrone, & Slay, 2010);	In order to learn more about humility on an individual level, have students evaluate themselves through thoughtful reflection and self-assessment. The Humility Scale (Elliott, 2010) is a useful tool for such self-assessment and breaks down humility into the four subscales of openness, self-forgetfulness, accurate self-assessment, and focus on others. The 32-item assessment utilizes a 5 point Likert scale on which responses range from strongly disagree to strongly agree.
Empathy	Intellectual identification with or vicarious experiencing of the feelings, thoughts, or attitudes of another; ability to be aware of the emotional states of others without those states being explicitly communicated (Sun, 2013); allows leaders to understand the point of view and psychological perspective of others (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; George, 2000)	Partner students and assign a controversial debate topic (e.g., The use of nutritional supplements, the growth of select teams in off seasons, etc.). As the debate develops, emphasize to students to slow down and listen intently to the words that are being spoken by their debate partner. While listening, consider the person's experience and perspective. Respond visually or with sound, but no words. After the person is finished speaking, allow at least one second to pass before responding. Perhaps the student could respond with a follow-up question in order to better understand the speaker's intentions. Because the attention of the student has been focused on the speaker, students should feel comfortable taking more time than usual to formulate a response. At the conclusion of the debate, have each student write an interpretation of their partner's message and intention. Also, have the students describe physical characteristics and perceived emotions communicated by the debate partner. Upon completion, confirm with the partner whether or not interpretations were accurate.
Genuine Caring	Based on a selfless, unconditional love known as *agape* love (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Patterson, 2003); not merely behavior, but an expression of one's true inner attributes (Kouzes & Posner, 1992)	Emphasize to students the importance of practicing putting love into action by providing service opportunities. Invite students to volunteer in a situation where they come into direct contact with those whom they are serving, such as at a local boys or girls club, food pantry, or homeless shelter. Have students participate in several visits and log a journal after each visit. Include in the journal entry any feelings or emotions experienced while serving. An alternative is to have students participate as a volunteer at a charity sports event, such as a fun run or bicycle ride fundraiser. However, in such events, students may not have the opportunity for direct contact with those for whom funds are being raised.

ethos suggests that servant leadership holds great promise for research and innovative practice in sport organizations. As research confirming the positive outcomes of servant leadership expands and the practice of servant leadership grows, we envision the field of sports management moving closer to fulling both the professional mission and the personal aspirations of administrators and coaches to serve others.

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CHAPTER FIVE

A Look at Career Success Implications of Political Skill for Sport Coaches

Abstract

Motivated by an ever-increasing interpersonal aspect to the profession of sport coaching, this review analyzes the social effectiveness construct, political skill, through the perspective of a sport coaching lens. Political skill is defined as the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objective (Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewé, 2005). Political skill is comprised of four dimensions: social astuteness, interpersonal influence, apparent sincerity, and networking. The authors propose political skill as a crucial component of sport coaching and a means through which sport coaches may be able to build and maintain important and influential relationships with key stakeholders, thus improving the possibility of a successful career in sport coaching. Political skill is first defined and distinguished from other social effectiveness constructs. A brief review of positive career success outcomes associated with political skill is presented, along with theoretical explanations for how political skill impacts career success. Finally, practical applications for sport coaches are discussed and suggestions for developing political skill are offered.

Introduction

Though the term conjures ideas of the process of government or public institutions, politics is ubiquitous to humankind and can be found whenever two or more

agents are gathered in some collective activity. Whether the activity is formal, informal, public, or private, politics consists of the interactive ingredients of people, resources, and power (Leftwhich, 2005). A Machiavellian view of political skill might emphasize the importance of the ability of leaders to understand and manipulate social situations as a means of gaining power and social legitimacy (Machiavelli, N., & Morley, H., 1983), but more recently, political skill has become known as one of many social effectiveness constructs (e.g. social intelligence, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, self-monitoring), described as a comprehensive pattern of social competencies that include cognitive, affective, and behavioral manifestations (Ferris, Treadway, Perrewe, Brouer, Douglas, & Lux, 2007). It combines social astuteness with the ability to relate well, and otherwise demonstrate situationally appropriate behavior in a manner that is disarmingly charming and engaging. This behavior inspires confidence, trust, sincerity, and genuineness (Ferris, Perrewé, Anthony, & Gilmore, 2000). Politically skilled individuals not only adjust one's own behavior to situational demands in a manner that appears sincere, inspires trust, and results in effective influence over others (Zellars, Perrewé, Rossi, Tepper, & Ferris, 2008), but they also effectively understand others and use this understanding to exercise influence (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004). Political skill enables individuals "to create synergy among discrete behaviors that transcends the simple sum of the parts to realize a set of interpersonal dynamics and effective execution that results in personal and career success" (Ferris et al., 2000, p.31-32).

Because of the inter-personal nature of sport and the multitude of relationships a coach may encounter throughout his or her career, it has been suggested that the ability to be political is now a necessary part of the profession and that a coach's longevity and

career success may depend on more than just a favorable win-loss record. It may also depend on the coach's ability to garner approval from the contextual power brokers such as athletes, coaching staff, and owners or administration (Jones, Wells, Peters, and Johnson, 1993). Indeed, a 2006 national study on the nonrenewal of high school sport coaches points to poor coach relations with the administration and parents as one of three major reasons for dismissal, along with other reasons of misconduct and having poor player discipline (Miller, Lutz, Shim, Fredenburg, & Miller, 2006). Other research creates a vision of coaching as "an arena for struggle", dynamic and unstable (Potrac & Jones, 2009, p.233), where an everyday pursuit of power through relationship management with key stakeholders is necessary and has become a coach's primary duty (Potrac, Jones, & Armour, 2002; Potrac, Jones, & Cushion, 2006; d'Arripe-Longueville, Fournier, & Dubois, 1998).

Whether in coaching or in organizations, some are more effective at maneuvering the social environment than others. The effective coach manages relationships by participating in political strategies and influencing others' impressions of them in order to generate the necessary support to carry out the agenda of the program (Potrac & Jones, 2009). To effectively facilitate, coach, and orchestrate these interaction-based outcomes, it is necessary to possess and execute appropriate social skills (Ferris et al., 2000). Because of the interpersonal nature involved in leading sport and the numerous relationships a coach must navigate, knowledge and application of political skill is crucial for success in the profession of coaching. Furthermore, those in the coaching sciences should be aware of and understand the relationship between political skill and career success. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to examine the social effectiveness

construct of political skill and its relationship to career success in the field of sport

coaching. The article will first define the construct of political skill and present

theoretical explanations for the relationship between political skill and career success.

Next, a brief review of empirical outcomes that support the relationship between political

skill and career success will be presented. Political skill will then be discussed as a useful

tool for sport coaches to utilize in their many interpersonal interactions and relationships

with key stakeholders. The article concludes with ideas for practice at developing

political skill.

The Social Effectiveness Umbrella

Social influence literature encompasses a broad variety of constructs thought to

influence behaviors. Collectively, these constructs fall under the nomenclature of social

effectiveness, and include not only political skill, but also terms such as emotional

intelligence, self-regulation, and self-monitoring among others. Social effectiveness is a

broad concept that describes an individual's ability to self-monitor, read social situations,

and adapt to the specific requirements of the situation. It also describes the ability of an

individual to understand the motivations of others, inspire trust, and forge strong

relationships, resulting in favorable career and life outcomes (Ferris et al., 2002a).

Political skill shares domain space with other social effectiveness constructs (Treadway,

Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Ferris, 2005), but two major considerations set apart political

skill as a distinct construct, it considers the specific context of work and it is used to

affect change in others.

Political Skill Defined

A 2014 review analyzing political skill and leadership dynamics attempts to dispel notions of political skill as a 'necessary evil' and argue that political skill is simply a necessary component of effective leadership because of the many social interactions and influential relationships facing leaders daily (Treadway, Bentley, Williams, & Wallace, 2014a). Pfeffer (1981) first articulated the concept of political skill and maintained that such ability is one of the most essential components for organizational success. Shortly after, Mintzberg (1983) also considered political skill necessary for effective personal involvement in organizations. He associated political skill with formal power and described political skill as an effective interpersonal style that contributes to adeptness in persuading and negotiating. More recently, political skill has been described as the ability to be effective in informal interactions (Perrewé, Zellars, Ferris, Rossi, Kacmar, & Ralston, 2004), and is defined as the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objective (Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewé, 2005). Politically skilled individuals understand the dynamics of social situations and combine social astuteness with the capacity to adjust one's own behavior to different situational demands. This behavior is adapted to situations in a way that appears to be sincere, inspires trust, and results in effective influence over others (Zellars et al., 2008).

Ferris, Treadway, and colleagues are responsible for an ongoing stream of research on political skill and for many advancements in the area. The Political Skill Inventory (PSI) is an 18-item scale comprised of four dimensions: social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity (Ferris, Treadway,

Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, Kacmar, Douglas, & Frink, 2005b). *Social astuteness* is the ability to accurately understand social interactions and interpret one's own behavior as well as that of others, and to be keenly attuned to diverse social situations. Pfeffer (1992) describes those with social astuteness as being extremely self-aware and sensitive to others. *Interpersonal influence* is the ability to exert a powerful influence on others in a subtle and convincing manner, and to appropriately adapt and calibrate one's own behavior to each situation in order to elicit particular responses from others. Leaders adept in interpersonal influence interact in ways that make others feel comfortable and accommodated (Pfeffer, 1992). The capability to develop and use diverse networks of people to secure assets that are valuable and necessary for personal and organizational success is known as *networking ability*. Effective networking skills have been commonly associated with success in the sport industry and developing professional relationships by interacting effectively with others is crucial to recognizing and realizing professional opportunities (O'Leary & Ickovics, 1992). The final dimension is *apparent sincerity* which is known as the ability to appear to others as possessing high levels of integrity, authenticity, sincerity and genuineness (Ferris et al., 2005a, 2007). Appearing to be sincere and authentic plays a critical role in a coach's ability to influence others. Alternatively, if a coach is deemed to be untrustworthy or lacks authenticity, influence is diminished.

Benefits of Political Skill

Political skill has been associated with a number of positive outcome variables such as higher job performance ratings from supervisors, increase in team performance, less experienced stress, and career success (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Perrewé et al.,

2004; Magnusen, Kim, & Perrewé, 2014a; Magnusen & Kim, 2016, Todd, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2009), and a recent meta-analysis confirmed political skill is positively related to self-efficacy, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work productivity, career success and personal reputation and negatively related to physiological strain (Munyon, Summers, Thompson, & Ferris, 2015). Additionally, political skill produces outcomes that fall into one of four categories, stress management, individual performance, leadership effectiveness, and career success (Kimura, 2015). For purpose of this review, the authors will focus on the relationship between political skill and career success. However, it should be noted that the positive effect of political skill on individual performance, stress management, and leadership effectiveness, may cumulatively result in a positive influence on career success.

Career Success

Career success has been defined as the positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements that a person has accumulated through work experience (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995). Career success has been divided into extrinsic and intrinsic components by researchers (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999), and has been measured using both objective measures such as pay and promotions, and subjective measures such as career or life satisfaction (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). It has been long argued that organizational politics has a large influence on individual career success (Chen & Fang, 2008; Ferris et al. 2002a; Ferris and Judge 1991; Judge and Bretz, 1994; Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997). In line with this thought, Inkson (2004) describes a career as a political campaign owing to the fact that self-promotion, impression management, reputation building, and

contact-hunting are keys to improving one's career outcomes. Political skills that enable

the acquisition of social resources and a positive image from a supervisor are critical to

such a campaign (Kimura, 2015).

Theoretical Support

A variety of theories have been used to explain the impact of political skill on

career success. Social capital theory is a term from sociology that focuses on the complex

and often intangible values associated with human social relationships and has been the

customary explanation for the impact of political skill on career success (Burt, 1997;

Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). The keys to explaining career success using social capital

theory are networking and the resulting network structures (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden,

2001b), which determine the value of information and influence inputs critical for career

success (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). Seibert et al. (2001b) first hypothesized and

found that these network structures promote both objective and subjective career

outcomes through social resources and associated network benefits resulting from those

relationships. Career success and networking have been connected through the building

of social capital (Wolff & Moser, 2009), and among political skill dimensions,

networking behaviors have been shown to have more of an impact on career success than

other political skill dimensions when considering measures of total promotion, career

satisfaction, life satisfaction, and perceived marketability (Todd et al., 2009). As in other

professions where important network structures may play an integral role in an individual

having a successful career, for coaches it is necessary to draw from social capital theory

and construct a strong social network within the immediate work environment (i.e.

coaching staff, administration) as well as the broader professional environment (i.e. other coaches in the profession).

Signaling theory (Spence, 1974) is another prominent theory used to explain the relationship between political skill and career success. In order to influence observers' beliefs and to reduce ambiguity, signaling theory assumes that an individual sends signals to others as a means of transmitting information about their abilities, intention, and action (Spence, 1974). Politically skilled assistant coaches may signal their effective work performance and personal character by developing strong relationships with head coaches. Such signaling in politically skilled individuals has been shown to facilitate the establishment of the sender's positive personal reputation which makes one more likely to achieve objective career success than those who are less politically skilled (Blickle, Schneider, Liu, & Ferris, 2011). Because of the focus that signaling theory places on influencing supervisor perceptions and establishing a positive reputation, the dimensions of political skill that appear to be most impactful when looking through the lens of signaling theory are apparent sincerity and interpersonal influence.

Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) posits that a process of negotiated exchanges forms human relationships through using a cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives, and politically skilled individuals tend to foster and develop high quality work relationships with supervisors (Blickle et al., 2011). When beneficial to supervisors, these relationships are reciprocated with positive personal reputation assessments and favorable objective career outcomes. Additionally, Magnusen and Kim (2016) relied on social exchange theory to consider the role of leader-member exchange (LMX), which places strong emphasis on the social relationship between leader and

subordinate, as a mediator between political skill and career success. The authors found

that the political skill and career success relationship were mediated by LMX.

Additionally, interaction frequency with supervisor (Shi, Johnson, Liu, & Wang, 2013),

work relationship quality, and personal reputation have been revealed as outcomes

closely associated with political skill (Harris, Harvey, & Booth, 2010; Laird, Zboja, &

Ferris, 2012).

Outcomes

A multitude of studies have produced positive outcomes when considering

political skill and career success in a business or organizational setting. In order to view

results in an organized manner, the evolution of political skill studies in a business setting

is presented in Table 5.1.

In the realm of sport, the phenomenon is in the early stages of being researched

and is, so far, limited to only a few empirical studies. A study of intercollegiate athletic

departments supports political skill as a social effectiveness construct of which coaches

should be aware and practice as it may be of particular benefit when pursuing high level

recruits to join their sports teams (Magnusen, Kim, Perrewé, & Ferris, 2014b; Magnusen,

Mondello, Kim, & Ferris, 2011). Furthermore, in studies of head football coaches and

women's soccer coaches, those coaches who were found to be politically skilled were

also found to achieve greater success in recruiting highly rated recruits than less

politically skilled coaches (Magnusen et al., 2014a; Treadway et al., 2014b). This ability

to land top recruits has a direct impact on career success of intercollegiate coaches, not

Table 5.1 Evolution of Political Skill and Career Success Study Reference

Study	Results
(Breland, treadway, Duke, & Adams, 2007)	Offsetting affects between LMX and political skill
(Ferris et al.,2008)	PS has postitive effects on hierarchical position and job satisfaction, Does not affect yearly income
(Todd et al., 2009)	Networking ability is strongest predictor of career success (i.e. total compensation, total promotion, life satisfaction, job satisfaction, perceived marketability)
(Harris, Harris, & Brouer, 2009)	Turnover intention is lowest when LMX and PS come together
(Brouer et al., 2009)	PS may contribute to reducing the impact of factors such as racial dissimilarity in the development of high quality LMX; No such effect in relationships characterized by racial similarity.
(Treadway, Breland, Adams, Duke, & Williams, 2010)	PS is more likely to lead career based networking when a person's role seems timeless.
(Liu, Liu, & Wu, 2010)	Individuals with PS accumulate personal power through active networking. PS promotes career growth for politcally skilled individuals.
(Wei et al., 2010; Wei, Chiang, & Wu, 2012)	PS leads to higher career growth potential through the development of network resources. (continued)

Study	Results
(Blickle, Wendel, & Ferris, 2010)	For individuals high on political skill, higher levels of extraversion were associated with higher levels of sales. For individuals low on political skill, higher levels of extraversion were associated with lower levels of sales.
(Blickle et al., 2011c)	Longitudinal study showed that political skill predicts career outcomes (hierarchical position, income, and career satisfaction) through the development of favorable reputation.
(Moeller & Harvey, 2011)	Politically skilled individuals were better able to leverage network resources.
(Wei et al., 2012)	Intra-organizational network resources are positively related to career growth only for politically skilled individuals.
(Blickle et al., 2012)	Impression management through appearing to be modest leads to higher hierarchical positions and career satisfaction only when it is associated with high level of PS.
(Gentry, Gilmore, Shuffler, & Gilmore, 2012)	Positive relationship between an individual's PS and other-rated promotability.
(Huang, Frideger, & Pearce, 2013)	Being perceived as politically skilled has a positive effect on being recommended for managerial positions.
(Bedi & Skowronski, 2014)	Results of this meta-analysis showed political skill is associated with better job performance, career success and job satisfaction.
(Munyon, Summers, Thompson, & Ferris, 2015)	Metanalysis confirmed the positive relationship between political skill and various aspects of career success (i.e. overall career success, income, position).

only because it allows a coach to place a better athlete in competition, but some intercollegiate coaching contracts include allowances that award monetary bonuses for having signed a highly ranked recruiting class. From the alternate perspective, a coach who is not politically skilled may have a poorly recruited class of athletes which will likely result in season outcomes that may not meet expectations of administrators, boosters, and other stakeholders. A continuing lack of political skill when dealing with these relationships may culminate in negative career outcomes. Most recently, use of political skill by NCAA division I head coaches resulted in a more positive reputation among assistant coaches and increased leader effectiveness as measured by team-unit performance and leader-unit performance questionnaires (Kim et al., 2016), and political skill has revealed itself as being an important factor in the career success of sport management interns as it results in a positive effect on career and life satisfaction, perceived external marketability, and perceived effectiveness (Magnusen & Kim, 2016).

Discussion

The generalizability of political skill to a multitude of contexts and situations is well-accepted (Ferris et al., 2005b). For the profession of sport coaching, the construct of political skill may provide a means through which coaches can learn these seemingly intangible social skills and is a concept that coaching science and sport management instructors can specify, teach, and practice, thus increasing coaches' probability of career success. Table 5.2 addresses multiple relationships that a coach will encounter throughout a career, the most influential theories and dimensions of political skill pertaining to each relationship, and examples of how political skill may work through each relationship to affect positive career outcomes. Table 5.2 attempts to draw on the most relevant theory

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and dimensions for each particular relationship with an understanding that each relationship represents a social exchange and the dimension of social astuteness is important in all situations where there is social interaction. Table 5.2 also calls attention to the importance of communicating effectively with others in social situations, and how social exchange has become an integral feature included in many aspects of a coach's job.

The first relationship addressed in Table 5.2 is a coach's relationship with immediate coaching staff, and, also with others in the profession of coaching that may not be on the same staff. Building network structures resulting in influence inputs critical for career success and promoting career success through fostering relationships may be best viewed through the lens of social capital theory and social exchange theory respectively. Assembling network structures through relationship building is integral in successful careers, and, of all political skill dimensions, networking has been shown to have the most impact on career success (Todd et al., 2009). Relationships with administration or ownership may be best considered from a signaling theory perspective, as a coach attempts to credibly convey some information about himself to the supervisory party. In this case the coach may be attempting to put forth signals that appear sincere in order to establish a positive reputation. The positive reputation then builds trust, and positively affects interpersonal influence. Player relationships are also impacted by signaling theory and social exchange theory as coaches send signals in order to appear sincere (i.e. coaches doing what they say) and communicate through genuine social exchange that establishes confidence and trust. This confidence and trust accentuates interpersonal influence between coach and players, resulting in players that trust coaches, practice

Table 5.2 Coach Relationships, Influential Theories and Political Skill Dimensions, and Examples of How PS may Contribute to Career Success

Relationships	Most/More Influential Theories	Most/More influential dimensions of PS	Example of how PS may work
Staff / Professional	Social capital Social exchange	Networking ability Social astuteness	Building network structures that result in influence inputs that are critical for career success
Administration/ Ownership/Financial Supporters	Signaling	Apparent sincerity Interpersonal influence	Sending positive signals to supervisors establishes a positive reputation and positively affects interpersonal influence
Players	Social exchange Signaling	Interpersonal influence Apparent sincerity	Building relationships with players through genuine social exchange establishes confidence and trust
Parents	Signaling Social exchange	Apparent sincerity Social astuteness	Communicating effectively with parents to reduce ambiguity and to transmit information about abilities, intention, and action
Media/Public	Signaling Social exchange	Apparent sincerity Social astuteness	Sending positive signals through body language, word, and deed, whether dealing directly with the media, general population, or being viewed from afar

more effectively and perform better. Finally, relationships with parents, media, and general public take place in a wide variety of social contexts. Being socially astute allows a coach to understand social situations and manage behavior accordingly to appear sincere and make the appropriate impression. This perspective draws on a social exchange theory view, but these relationships can be rooted also in signaling theory as coaches send signals through body language, word, and action, whether dealing with media, interactions with general population, or being viewed from afar.

Practical Application

The social effectiveness construct of political skill is not without practical applications for the profession of sport coaching. Magnusen (2016) emphasized the importance of integrating the teaching of political skill into the leadership education of undergraduate and graduate sport management students and suggests training applications for the development of political skill in sport management. Due to the increasing interpersonal nature of sport coaching and the numerous social interactions that happen throughout the career of a sport coach, this review further suggests that political skill be addressed not only in sport management classrooms, but also as a clearly articulated objective of sport pedagogy and coaching science programs.

Because political skill appears to have great importance regarding the career success of coaches, it is quite fortunate that political skill is trainable and can be developed through practice. Also, although political skill is inherent to some extent, without proper training, those skills may never be realized if not effectively practiced. (Ferris et al., 2000). Certain coaches will naturally be more politically skilled than others. However, becoming a socially effective coach is an achievable objective, a) if coaches

are willing to spend effort at improving their political skill, and, b) a mentor with understanding of political skill, as well as the social environment and political structures at work, is available to provide direction and feedback on political skill development. Empirical studies note the possibility that mentoring is an avenue through which political skill can be learned (Blass & Ferris, 2007; Chopin, Danish, Seers, & Hook, 2012; Ferris et al., 2008) and development of political skill may have its most significant impact on subsequent career success when addressed in the early career stage (Chao et al.,1994).

Ferris et al. (2000) propose that developing political skill is composed of three steps. The first step is to develop self-awareness and understanding of oneself. This might be accomplished through thoughtful reflection or self-evaluation instruments such as the PSI. The individual should also become involved in political skill development through established learning methods such as experiential exercises, role-playing, and communication skills training. Finally, periodic evaluation and feedback is recommended as many individuals who are politically inept lack a keen sense of what is appropriate or tasteful and are often unaware that their behavior might be offensive and void of tact and diplomacy. Table 5.3 addresses each dimension of political skill and presents suggestions as to how these dimensions might be practiced by sport coaches to improve political skill and positively affect career success.

Implications that political skill may hold for the area of personnel selection are another reason to emphasize educating coaches on the importance of political skill. As coaches participate in interview situations with primary stakeholders (i.e. athletic director, boosters), it is necessary to understand the social environment in order to adapt one's behavior and send positive signals, resulting in a good impression. A coach

Table 5.3 Suggested Practice for Coaches

Political Skill Dimension	Suggestions for Practice
Social Astuteness	Social astuteness can be improved with feedback. For example, a head coach may observe an assistant coach in an interaction with peers or other organizational personnel. It may be helpful for the head coach to offer pointers about how the assistant coach appeared to interpret his or her circumstances as well as the emotions of others involved.
Networking	Networking can be improved with a concerted effort to interact with co-workers, and others in the profession of coaching and sport industry. A coach does not need to be exceptionally extroverted to be an effective networker, but must be disciplined in attempts to contact others in the profession. In the immediate environment, set a goal to visit intentionally with a different person each day for a few minutes. Also, set goals to write notes to others in the profession or correspond via email on a daily basis.
Interpersonal Influence	Mentoring, leadership training, and behavior modeling are helpful tools for learning interpersonal influence. Assistant coaches might observe head coaches methods for performing administrative duties such as handling player discipline or meeting with a parent. The assistant coach should then seek out opportunities to model the behavior while being observed by the head coach and later receiving feedback.
Apparent Sincerity	A course in communication training or practice in public speaking can improve apparent sincerity. Feedback from a superior is also helpful in this situation as there are times when one may feel to appear sincere but in actuality does not. Coaches should also aspire to learn how verbal language (e.g. appropriate vocal tone, words selection) and nonverbal body cues (e.g. making eye contact, body position) convey interest and concern when speaking with stakeholders.

proficient in political skill might appear more sincere than a coach who is lacking in

political skill development. Adeptness at political skill could provide a better opportunity

for interviewees to influence decision makers, obtain the position, and thus, achieve a

higher level of career success. An evaluation of political skill may also help head coaches

and/or administration in the selection of new personnel that possess the best chance of being successful, thus improving the overall status of the program.

Conclusion

Political skill is a social effectiveness construct that describes how a leader understands social situations in the workplace and practices effective influence over others. For sport coaches, the workplace takes on many different settings, each involving important social interaction that may be integral to a coach's career success. A combination of the positive effects of political skill on career success in business and sport combined with the increasing interpersonal aspect of sport coaching, mandates that coaches be aware of and utilize political skill to appropriately manage social interactions, build necessary stakeholder relationships, and ultimately, position themselves for the best opportunity of having a successful career.

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CHAPTER SIX

Servant Leadership, Leader Effectiveness, and the Role of Political Skill:
A Study of Interscholastic Sport Administrators

Abstract

Servant leadership is a model of leadership based on ethics and benevolent service

to others and has been associated with numerous positive outcomes for employees and

organizations. Due to a limited number of studies examining servant leadership within

sports, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relation of servant leadership and

leader effectiveness outcomes in sport administration and to examine if political skill

(i.e., how people influence others), was a moderator of servant leader effectiveness. A

multilevel model was used to examine these questions within a national sample of

interscholastic athletic directors and head coaches. Findings revealed servant leadership

was directly related to leader effectiveness, organizational commitment, and job

satisfaction of head coaches. Moreover, there was a significant negative interaction

between servant leadership and political skill. The negative interaction indicates that

extreme values of servant leadership have opposite relations to leader effectiveness and

other outcomes when political skill is present. Though a minimal effect, political skill

detracts from LE in those who are perceived as exhibiting strong servant leader

behaviors. Findings and limitations are discussed; questions for future research are

suggested.

Introduction

Leadership is one of the most observed phenomena on earth (Burns, 1978) and one of the most fundamental and established topics in sport management literature (Branch, 1990; Soucie, 1994). Yet, effective leadership remains a practice that sport management leadership scholars strive to more comprehensively understand (Welty Peachey, Zhou, Damon, & Burton, 2015). Recently, motivated by organizations' search for pro-social forms of leadership, the focus of leadership studies and practice has shifted from traditional authoritarian leadership styles to more positive and less-egoistic forms of leadership aimed at developing subordinates by meeting their needs and promoting the growth of others (Rynes, Bartunek, Dutton, & Margolis, 2012). This shift in focus has increased attention being given to servant leadership, a style of leadership structured on foundational principles of other-centeredness and ethical behavior that suggests truly effective and legitimate leaders prioritize service to others ahead of personal power and control (Greenleaf, 1977).

Research from a variety of settings provides support for servant leadership's important associations with follower attitudes and behaviors, as well as unit and organizational outcomes (Van Dierendonck, 2011; Parris & Peachey, 2013). However, in sport management and the coaching sciences, only recently has servant leadership begun to receive consideration as an effective leadership model (Burton & Peachey, 2013; Burton, Welty Peachey, & Wells, 2017; Kim, Kim, & Wells, 2017; Robinson, Neubert, & Miller, 2018). Contingency and person-situation theories of leadership assert a leader's effectiveness in influencing others depends on the interaction of a leader's behavior with characteristics of the context (Avolio, 2007; Yukl, 2013). Because servant leadership is

deserving of sustained research focus within the domain of sport management, and servant leadership research should be extended to a variety of environments within the sport arena (Welty Peachey et al., 2015), the first purpose of this study is to extend the contextual boundary conditions of servant leadership research by considering athletic director-head coach relationships in an interscholastic sport administration setting by examining the association of servant leadership behaviors with follower-perceived leader effectiveness and attitudes.

The second purpose addresses a need to investigate factors that allow servant leadership to have its greatest possible influence (Neubert, et al., 2016). Most definitions of leadership tend to be based on the assumption that leadership involves a process of intentional influence being exerted over others to provide structure, facilitate activities and relationships, and guide the coordinated efforts of followers (Gardner, 1990; House et al., 1999); servant leaders also influence the attitudes, motivation, and satisfaction of subordinates among other outcomes (Parris & Peachey, 2013; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Social Influence Theory posits individuals use influence, be it intentional or unintentional, to achieve desired social outcomes (Levy, Collins, & Nail, 1989), and social influence literature encompasses a broad spectrum of social effectiveness constructs (e.g. social intelligence, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy) that describe an individual's ability to self-monitor, read social situations, and adapt to specific requirements of the environment to influence one's own behaviors or the behavior of others. Political skill is one such construct defined as the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objective (Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewé, 2005a). In

addition to positive associations with leader effectiveness (Douglas and Ammeter, 2004; Sunindijo, 2012; Kim et al., 2016), having high levels of political skill has also been associated with a number of other positive outcomes for leaders and employees, such as higher job performance ratings from supervisors, increase in team performance, less experienced stress at work, and career success (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Perrewé et al., 2004; Magnusen et al., 2014; Magnusen & Kim, 2016, Todd, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2009).

For servant leaders, important career and life outcomes positively associated with being politically skilled may create a conflict regarding how political skill, a seemingly self-focused Machiavellian concept based on enhancing one's personal or organizational objectives, interacts with servant leadership, a concept based on benevolent service to others. Research suggests political skill is an important concept for leaders to understand and utilize, not only to be an effective leader, but to nurture the development of a successful career. Yet, the question remains, how does the use of political skill impact measures of servant leader effectiveness and follower attitudes? Therefore, the second purpose of this study is to address this question by examining the role of political skill as a potential moderator of the relationship between servant leadership and outcome variables.

Because the process of leadership influence happens through multilevel interactions between leader and follower (Yammarino, 2013), and multilevel examination is essential for advancing leadership theory and practice in the realm of sport (Welty Peachey et al., 2015), the sum of intended explorations in this multilevel model of interscholastic athletic directors and head coaches is illustrated in Figure 6.1.
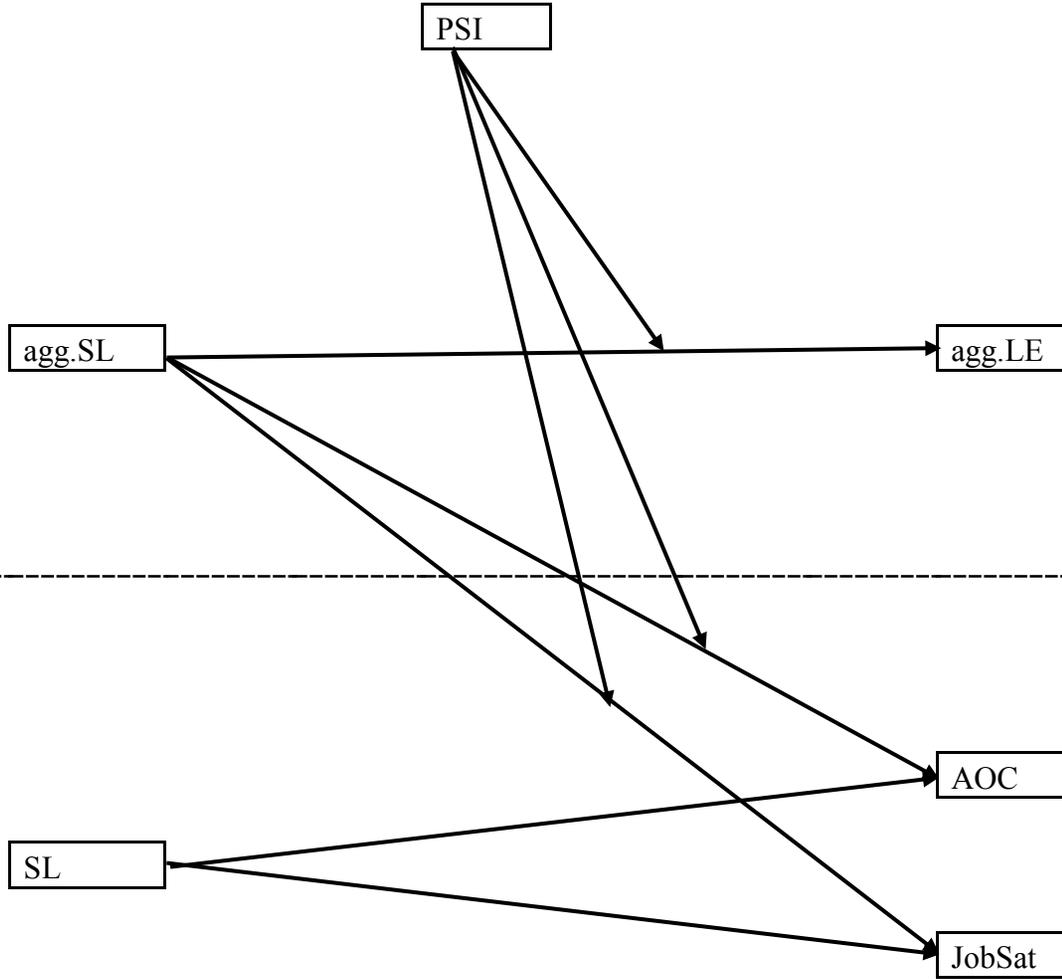
Figure 6.1 Hypothesized Model

The Influence of Servant Leadership

Robert K. Greenleaf became the modern-day champion of the servant leadership movement while working as an executive for AT&T in the 1970s. Greenleaf described servant leadership as a leadership style that emphasizes the moral high ground of doing "good" to others now and into the future and is based on teamwork and community, seeks to involve subordinates in decision making, and seeks to impact subordinates by modeling ethical and caring behavior (Greenleaf, 1970). Greenleaf described servant leaders as motivated to be "servant first", and then they aspire to lead (Greenleaf, 1977, p.27). Servant leaders consider a shared perspective where interaction between leader and follower are paramount (Van Dierendonck, 2011), and the ultimate objective of a servant leader is to enhance the personal growth of others (Spears, 1998).

Since the inception of the idea of servant leadership, several academic models have also been developed. Each of these models presents slight variations of servant leader attributes, but central themes of genuine caring, humility, and empathy are present in most (Laub, 1999; Ehrhart, 2004; Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011, Sun, 2013, Robinson et al., 2018). To provide a brief historical summary of servant leadership models, a timeline of servant leadership models and attributes is displayed in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Timeline of Common Academic Models

Laub (1999)	**Sendjaya et al. (2008)**
Values people	Authentic self
Develops people	Transforming influence
Builds community	Voluntary subordination
Displays authority	Transcendental spirituality
Provides leadership	Covenantal relationship
Shares leadership	Responsible morality
Ehrhart (2004)	**Hammermeister (2008)**
Forming relationships with	Trust and Inclusion
subordinates	Humility
Empowering subordinates	Service
Enabling subordinate growth	
and success	**Liden et al. (2008)**
Behaving ethically	Empowering
Possessing conceptual skills	Helping subordinates grow and succeed
Putting subordinates first	
Creating value for those	Putting subordinates first
outside the organization	Emotional healing
	Conceptual skills
Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)	Creating value for community
Altruistic calling	Bahaving ethically
Emotional healing	
Persuasive mapping	**Sun (2013)**
Wisdom	Calling
Organizational stewardship	Humility
	Empathy
Van Dierendonck (2011)	*Agape* love
Empowering and developing	
people	**Robinson et al. (2018)**
Humility	Altruistic calling - core
Authenticity	Genuine caring - central
Interpersonal acceptance	Humility - central
Providing direction	Empathy - central
Stewardship	

Servant-led organizations appear to create an atmosphere of procedural justice characterized by an open and trusting environment (Joseph & Winston, 2005; Reinke, 2004; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010; Washingon, Sutton, & Field, 2006), enhance organizational citizenship behavior (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Hu & Liden, 2011; Ehrhart, 2004), increase team and leader effectiveness (Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, & Jinks, 2007; Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008; McCuddy & Cavin, 2008; Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; Hu & Liden, 2011), and encourage collaboration between team members (Garber, Madigan, Click, & Fitzpatrick, 2009; Sturm, 2009; Irving & Longbotham, 2007). Furthermore, research on servant leadership behavior in business and organizational contexts consistently reveals the following outcomes: it positively associated with team performance (Hu & Liden, 2011; Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011), job satisfaction of employees (Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008), organizational performance and return on assets (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012), and positive perceptions of how a group is treated as a whole (Ehrhart, 2004; Chung, Jung, Kyle, & Petrick, 2010). Servant leadership has been shown to enrich the quality of family life of employees (Zhang, Kwan, Everett, & Jian, 2012) and engender a mindset in employees that contributes to enhanced creativity and helping behavior (Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008).

More recently, servant leadership has been found to nourish a culture of service through role modeling as it promotes the helping behavior and high-quality customer service of subordinates (Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penney, & Weinberger, 2013;

Liden Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). Servant leadership has also been found to decrease disengagement of employees (Hunter et al., 2013) and turnover intentions (Hunter et al., 2013; Liden et al., 2014), while fostering employee creativity (Hunter et al., 2013; Liden et al., 2014;) and team innovation (Yoshida, Sendjaya, Hirst, & Cooper, 2014). Moreover, the positive influence of servant leadership in organizations extends to enhancing customer and patient satisfaction and contributing to organizational performance (Chen, Zhu, & Zhou, 2015; Liden et al., 2014; Neubert, Hunter, & Tolentino, 2016).

In the context of amateur sport, initial empirical studies investigating servant leadership and its associations with positive outcomes focused on coach-player relationships. Findings convey that servant leader coaches produced athletes that were more satisfied, had higher intrinsic motivation, were more task oriented, demonstrated stronger athletic coping skills, and possessed more self-confidence than non-servant leader coaches (Hammermeister et al., 2008; Rieke, Hammermeister, and Chase, 2008). Additional findings reveal that servant leadership behavior of coaches positively affects athlete satisfaction (Azadfada, 2014), level of mental focus, and performance (Cho & Kim, 2014). Most recently, servant leadership has been proposed as a beneficial factor in building a coach-athlete relationship based on trust (Kim et al., 2017).

Because the servant leadership model is strongly linked to ethics, virtues, and morality (Parris & Peachey, 2013; Graham, 1991; Lanctot and Irving, 2010; Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009; Russell, 2001; Whetstone, 2002), it has also been proposed as a model of leadership that may provide an avenue to alleviating the ethical imbalance prevalent in intercollegiate athletics (Burton & Peachey, 2013). A recent study of college athletic

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directors supports the notion that servant leadership is effective at influencing the development of an ethical climate within a collegiate sport organization (Burton et al., 2017). When subordinates perceive an organization's leadership and climate to be ethical, characterized by honesty, concern for others, and interpersonal fairness, attachment to the organization and attitudes towards individual jobs are positively influenced (Brown, Trevino & Harrison, 2006; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009). Thus, it is expected that perceived servant leadership behavior of athletic directors will be related to perceived leader effectiveness and follower attitudes, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

Hypotheses

H_1 – Athletic directors who exhibit more servant leader behaviors will be perceived by head coaches as more effective leaders than those exhibiting fewer servant leader behaviors.

H_2 – Head coaches that work for athletic directors who exhibit more servant leader behaviors will have more affective commitment to their work organization (i.e., schools) than head coaches who work for athletic directors who exhibit fewer servant leader behaviors.

H_3 – Head coaches who work for athletic directors who exhibit more servant leader behaviors will be more satisfied with their job than head coaches who work for athletic directors who exhibit fewer servant leader behaviors.

Political Skill and Leadership

In a 2014 review analyzing political skill and leadership dynamics, Treadway et al. attempted to dispel notions of political skill as a 'necessary evil' and argued that political skill is simply a necessary component of effective leadership because of the many social interactions and influential relationships facing leaders (Treadway, Bentley, Williams, & Wallace, 2014). Politically skilled individuals understand the dynamics of

social situations and can combine social astuteness with the ability to make behavioral adjustments to different situational demands in the workplace. This behavior is adapted to situations in a way that appears to be sincere, inspires trust, and results in effective influence over others (Zellars, Perrewé, Rossi, Tepper, & Ferris, 2008), allowing objectives to be accomplished without leaders appearing overtly manipulative or controlling (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004).

Ferris, Treadway, and colleagues are responsible for an ongoing stream of research in the area and recognize political as being comprised of four dimensions; social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity (Ferris et al., 2005b; Ferris et al., 2007). *Social astuteness* is the ability to accurately understand social interactions and interpret one's own behavior as well as that of others, and to be keenly attuned to diverse social situations. *Interpersonal influence* is the ability to exert a powerful influence on others in a subtle and convincing manner, and to appropriately adapt and calibrate one's own behavior to each situation to elicit particular responses from others. *Networking ability* is the capability to develop and use diverse networks of people to secure assets that are valuable and necessary for personal and organizational success. The final dimension is *apparent sincerity* which is known as the ability to appear to others as possessing high levels of integrity, authenticity, sincerity and genuineness.

Political Skill, Leader Effectiveness and Follower Attitudes

A 2015 review of political skill research purports positive outcomes associated with political skill fit in one of four categories; career success, individual performance, stress management, or leader effectiveness (Kimura, 2015), and a recent meta-analysis validates political skill is positively related to self-efficacy, job satisfaction,

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organizational commitment, work productivity, and personal reputation and negatively related to physiological strain (Munyon, Summers, Thompson, &Ferris, 2015). Other positive outcomes resulting from effective use of political skill are higher job performance ratings from supervisors, increase in team performance, less experienced stress at work, and career success (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004; Perrewé et al., 2004; Magnusen et al., 2014; Magnusen & Kim, 2017; Todd, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2009). Perceptions of leader political skill have significantly predicted ratings of leader effectiveness (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004), and a study of 248 NCAA Division I assistant coaches revealed that political skill enhances measures of leader effectiveness through the building of a quality reputation (Kim, Wells, & Kim, 2016).

Political skill also influences leader effectiveness through a positive effect on charisma (Blickle, Meurs, Whiler, Ewen, & Peiseler, 2014), which may play a part in transformational and transactional leadership behaviors serving as mediators through which political skill impacts perceptions of leader effectiveness (Ewan et al., 2013). However, servant leadership does not include a charismatic component, and unlike other types of leaders, a servant leader does not initially aspire to lead but answers an altruistic calling to be "servant first" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 27). Is it important for servant leaders to utilize political skill? Political skill may influence the effectiveness of servant leaders because of its relation to leader and follower effectiveness that happens through quality leader-follower relationships (Brower, Douglas, Treadway, & Ferris, 2012). Political skill is also associated with increased trust and job satisfaction of employees (Treadway, Bentley, Williams, & Wallace, 2014), and Moss and Barbuto (2010) found a significant relationship between political skill and altruism, a component of servant leadership, when

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considering leader success and effectiveness. Thus, supported by Social Influence Theory

(Levy et al., 1989), it is expected that political skill will positively enhance the relations

among servant leadership, leader effectiveness, and follower attitudes (See Figure 6.1).

Hypotheses

H_4 – Political skill will moderate the relation between servant leadership and
leader effectiveness, such that more political skill enhances the positive relation between
servant leadership and leader effectiveness.

H_5 – Political skill will moderate the relationship between servant leadership and
affective organizational commitment of subordinates, such that more political skill
enhances the positive relation between servant leadership and affective organizational
commitment.

H_6 – Political skill will moderate the relation between servant leadership and job
satisfaction of subordinates, such that more political skill enhances the positive
relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Method

Sampling Procedure

Data collection consisted of two phases. Phase one of data collection utilized a

purposive sample of interscholastic athletic directors (ADs) invited to participate via e-

mail. Purposive sampling is a nonprobability sampling technique that researchers use

when they desire to recruit study participants from specific, predefined groups (e.g.

interscholastic ADs; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). Initial invitations were distributed to a

list of ADs in the southwestern United States whose e-mail addresses were gathered from

school websites. The e-mail invited athletic directors to participate in a study described as

"an investigation of relationship dynamics that occur between interscholastic athletic

directors and head coaches." The initial distribution of invitations was enhanced with a

second e-mail invitation sent by the National Interscholastic Athletic Administrators'

Association to its active members. ADs were asked to complete an on-line questionnaire on Qualtrics and were informed they would be entered in a random drawing for one of 110 gift cards worth $25 each. To receive the gift card, ADs were informed they must have at least one head coach respond to the head coach questionnaire in Phase 2 of data collection. In phase 2 of data collection, participating ADs were asked to forward an e-mail invitation to all head coaches on their staff inviting them to also complete an online questionnaire. Head coaches were informed that completing the survey would make them eligible for a random drawing to win one of 110 gift cards, each worth $25.

Funding for incentives was provided through an award from the Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership and a departmental dissertation grant from the Department of Health, Human Performance, and Recreation at Baylor University.

Athletic Director Variables

The athletic director instrument is provided in Appendix D.

Control variables. Control variables utilized for athletic directors were age and school enrollment.

Political skill. Athletic directors completed the Political Skill Inventory (PSI; Ferris et al., 2005b). The PSI is a self-reported questionnaire that contains items designed to assess social astuteness, interpersonal influence, apparent sincerity, and networking. The 18-item instrument utilizes a 7-point Likert scale to measure participants' perceived levels of political skill where 1 = ''strongly agree'' and 7 = ''strongly disagree''. An example of an item from the social astuteness dimension is: "I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others." An example from the dimension

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of interpersonal influence reads: "I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me." An example of a question from the apparent sincerity dimension is, "When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say or do." Finally, from the dimension of networking ability, an example question states, "I have developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work whom I can call on for support when I really need to get things done." The internal consistency reliability for this scale was $\alpha =$ .90.

Head Coach Variables

Head coach items are listed in Appendix E.

Control variables.. Control variables for head coaches were age and school enrollment.

All head coach instruments utilized a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = ''strongly agree'' and 7 = ''strongly disagree.'

Servant leadership. Head coaches evaluated servant leadership behaviors of their school's AD by completing the 14-item Servant Leadership Scale (Ehrhart, 2004). This general measure of servant leadership is based on seven categories: forming relationships with subordinates, empowering subordinates, helping subordinates grow and succeed, behaving ethically, having conceptual skill, putting subordinates first, and creating value for those outside the organization. Sample items include, "My athletic director makes the personal development of employees a priority," "My athletic director tries to reach consensus among department employees on important decisions," and "My athletic director holds employees to high ethical standards." The scale reliability was $\alpha = .97$.

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Leader effectiveness. Head coaches evaluated leader effectiveness of the athletic director by responding to six items adapted from Douglas and Ammeter's (2004) leader effectiveness scale which measures leader effectiveness as team-unit and leader-unit performance. A sample item for team-unit performance is, "Our athletic program meets or exceeds expectations." A sample item for leader-unit performance is, "My athletic director is effective in representing our department." The reliability for this scale was α = .90.

Affective organizational commitment. Affective organizational commitment measures the strength of one's emotional attachment and identification with an organization and consists of five items (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). An example item is, "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me." The reliability for this scale was α = .79.

Job satisfaction. The four-item scale developed by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997) was used to assess employee's job satisfaction. A sample item is, "All in all, I am very satisfied with my current job."The reliability for this scale was α = .90.

Data Analysis

All analyses were completed using R Studio statistical analysis program (RStudio Team, 2015). Prior to analysis, data was checked for missing entries. Less than 1% missing data on any individual response was not considered a threat and was listwise deleted as a missing rate of 5% or less is considered inconsequential (Schafer, 1999). Furthermore, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of head coach reported scales was

executed as well as a test for the influence of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012; Williams, Cote, & Buckley, 1989). A CFA is used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables and allows a researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship exists between observed variables and their underlying latent construct. The model demonstrated acceptable fit (x^2(399, N=807) = 2774.461, p<.01;CFI = .88, TLI = .88, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .07). A test of the influence of common method variance (CMV) was performed by running the same CFA but allowing all items to load onto an uncorrelated latent variable representing method. The average variance explained by the method factor was 12%, which is less than the 25% average in the literature (Williams et al., 1989), suggesting CMV was not a major threat in this sample.

The investigation utilized a multilevel model (Figure 6.1) and an analysis strategy appropriate to the levels involved in each specific hypothesis. I first examined the association of the individual-level predictor variable servant leadership (SL) and outcomes, affective organizational commitment (AOC) and job satisfaction (JS), utilizing linear regression to test H_2 and H_3. Measuring outcomes at the individual-level reveals more information about individual perceptions of a leader's effectiveness in relation to outcomes. Servant leadership was group-mean-centered by subtracting the unit mean (i.e., school mean) from each individual score to create a pure individual-level variable. Group-mean-centering provides similar results to grand-mean-centering but allows for a test of separate level effects (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). Thus, group-mean-centering holds value for testing cross-level interactions (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992), and provides the purest estimate of the within-group slope (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998).

Next, H_1 and H_4 were tested which involved examining the association of school-level predictors (SL & PS) and outcome (LE). Individual-level servant leadership and individual-level leader effectiveness scores were aggregated to the school-level to provide an evaluation of predictors based on group association rather than individual differences. Regression analysis was used to test the relationship between SL and LE, as well as any interaction between SL and PS that might be present. Already a school-level variable, PS was grand mean centered prior to analysis to aid in interpreting the interaction (Bliese, 2016).

Finally, testing H_5 and H_6 involved multilevel modeling to examine the association of school-level predictors (SL & PS) and cross-level interactions that might influence individual-level outcomes (AOC & JS). Multilevel modeling can be thought of as an ordinary regression model that has additional variance terms for handling non-independence due to group membership and explains how nesting HCs in subsets may produce additional sources of variance (Jackson, 2010; Bliese, 2000). Variance partitions coefficient (VPC) and AIC scores were evaluated to determine the model that explained the most variance. VPC is a measure of the amount of variance explained by the model, calculated by dividing the between-school variance by the total variance. Use of AIC index comparison approach is quite common within sociological literature, utilized to quantify the degree to which the given model represents improvement over comparison models (McCoach & Black, 2012).

Results

Data was collected from 250 interscholastic athletic directors (ADs) and corresponding subsets of head coaches (HCs). The sample of respondents consisted of

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secondary schools covering 47 states in the United States of America. Descriptive statistics, level 1 and level 2 intercorrelations, and scale reliabilities are presented in Table 6.2 and Table 6.3.

Table 6.2 Descriptive Statistics

Level 1 - Head Coaches (n=809)				
	Age	Enrollment	Years with AD	Gender
Mean	43.14	1063	4.8	229 Female
Median	43	950	3	577 Male
Range	21-77	85-4822	<1-25	3 na

Level 2 - Athletic Directors (n=250)						
	Age	Enrollment	Years as AD	Gender	Number of HCs	School Classification
Mean	47.9	1065.2	11	41 Female	19.63	211 Public
Median	48	832.5	10	209 Male	17.5	39 Private
Range	26-66	85-8000	1-38		2-126	

Prior to testing hypotheses, Kernel density plots deemed the assumption of normality tenable and no outliers were identified. Diagnostics tools confirmed assumptions of linearity in regression models by plotting the residuals of the model to the predicted values and the independent variables. Graphs showed the linearity assumption was met. The normality assumption was checked using QQ plots, and histograms which showed the normality assumption also tenable.

Table 6.3 Intercorrelations

Level 1 Correlations

Scale	α =	1.00	2.00	3.00	4.00	5.00	6.00
1. Enrollment							
2. Age		-0.01					
3. Servant Leadership	0.97	-0.04	0.00				
4. Leader Effectiveness	0.90	-0.06	-0.05	0.73			
5. Affective Org. Commitment	0.79	-0.02	-0.04	0.45	0.54		
6. Job Satisfaction	0.90	0.00	-0.04	0.42	0.55	0.54	
Mean		1064.00	43.14	2.03	2.12	2.26	1.84
Standard Deviation		739.86	11.41	1.03	0.94	0.93	0.85
Range		85-4822.00	21-77.00	1.00-7.00	1.00-6.33	1.00-6.00	1.00-7.00

Level 2 Correlations

Scale		1.00	2.00	3.00	4.00	5.00
1. Enrollment						
2. Age		0.06				
3. Political Skill	0.90	-0.03	-0.03			
4. Servant Leadership (agg)		-0.01	0.08	0.09		
5. Leader Effectiveness (agg)		-0.04	0.01	0.13	0.80	
Mean		1065.20	47.90	1.91	2.04	2.16
Standard Deviation		967.92	9.09	0.47	0.78	0.80
Range		85-8000.00	26-66.00	1.00-3.50	1.00-5.50	1.00-5.67

Aggregation statistics were utilized to ensure appropriate aggregation of the multilevel variables servant leadership and leader effectiveness, and to determine if multilevel modeling was appropriate for individual-level outcomes. First, I calculated $r_{wg(j)}$ which is useful for determining within group agreement and reliability (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). The mean of group $r_{wg(j)}$ scores for servant leadership ($r_{wg(j)} = $ .76) and leader effectiveness ($r_{wg(j)} = .75$) exceeded the strong interrater agreement threshold of .70, and affective organizational commitment ($r_{wg(j)} = .52$) and job satisfaction ($r_{wg(j)} = .61$) are considered moderate agreement (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). This evidence supports aggregating servant leadership and leader effectiveness to the unit-level to provide an evaluation of predictors based on group association rather than individual differences. Next, intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) were calculated as an empirical test of whether there is sufficient variance at the unit-level to employ multilevel analyses (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). The ICC indicates the percentage of variance in individual measures that can be attributed to group membership. Results indicated the ICC for servant leadership (.19), leader effectiveness (.20), organizational commitment (.08), and job satisfaction (.05) were sufficient for multilevel modeling to be deemed appropriate as ICCs as low as .05 have been shown to provide evidence of group level effects (LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

Hypothesis Tests

First, the direct relationships between servant leadership and outcome variables were tested. Step one utilized linear regression for testing H_2 and H_3 concerning the direct effects of individual-level predictor SL on individual-level outcomes of affective organizational commitment (AOC) and job satisfaction (JS). An AIC model was

calculated using group mean centered SL and HC control variables, age and enrollment, to find the model of best fit for each outcome (AOC & JS). Results of AIC analysis indicated the model of best fit for each outcome included SL as a lone predictor variable. Therefore, control variables were dropped from the final regression analysis. Step one utilized linear regression for testing H_2 and H_3 at the individual-level. Results indicated the predictors explained 9% of the variance in both AOC ($R^2 = .094$, $F(1,807) = 84.11$, $p < .00$) and JS ($R^2 = .091$, $F(1,807) = 80.71$, $p < .00$). SL was significantly associated with both AOC ($\beta = .37$, $p < .00$, 95% CI [.30, .46]) and JS ($\beta = .34$, $p < .00$, 95% CI [.26, .41]) in the predicted direction confirming SL's significant association with AOC and JS and supporting H_2 and H_3.

Step two involved testing H_1 and H_4 at the school-level. Because H_1 and H_4 include only school-level predictors (SL & PS) and outcome (LE), associations were tested using multiple linear regression to examine the direct effects of SL on LE, and, also examine any interaction between SL and PS that might be present. Following the procedures of individual-level analysis in step one, an AIC model was calculated to determine the model of best fit using school-level predictor variables SL and PS and control variables age and enrollment. The model containing an interaction term between SL and PS provided the best fit. However, the difference in the top three models was negligible. Results of AIC analysis are presented in Table 6.4. The model containing servant leadership as a stand-alone predictor scored only .16 higher on AIC analysis, suggesting that PS may not play much of a role in SL effectiveness.

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Table 6.4 Model Selection based on AIC

Model	K	AICc	Delta_AICc	AICcWt	CumWt	LL
SL.PSI	4	346.95	0.00	0.29	0.29	-169.39
SL.Age	4	347.08	0.13	0.27	0.57	-169.46
SL	3	347.11	0.15	0.27	0.84	-170.50
SL.Enr	4	348.11	1.16	0.16	1.00	-169.97
PSI	3	597.48	250.53	0.00	1.00	-295.69
PSI.Enr	4	599.14	252.19	0.00	1.00	-295.49
PSI.Age	4	599.51	252.56	0.00	1.00	-295.68
SL.PSI.Enr.Age	3	600.67	253.72	0.00	1.00	-297.29
Sl.PSI.Age	3	601.19	254.24	0.00	1.00	-297.54
Enr	3	601.30	254.35	0.00	1.00	-297.60
SL.PSI.Enr	3	601.48	254.53	0.00	1.00	-297.69
Age	3	601.76	254.80	0.00	1.00	-297.83

Results of school-level regression are presented in Table 6.5. School-level SL was positively associated with LE supporting H_1. Though not significant, political skill was also positively associated with leader effectiveness. However, results also reveal a significant antagonistic interaction between SL and PS ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .10$). An antagonistic interaction indicates that extreme values of the predictor variable have opposite relations to the outcome than it would have if there was no moderating effect, but H_4 predicted that PS would moderate the relationship between SL and LE such that more PS enhances the positive relationship between SL and LE. I followed steps for graphing the interaction recommended by Beaujean (2013). Figure 6.2 presents a graph of the interaction between SL and PS which reveals that PS does not positively enhance servant leader effectiveness except in those who are at the far end of being perceived as not being servant leaders. Furthermore, though minimal, political skill detracts from LE in those who are perceived as strong in servant leadership. Therefore, H_4 is rejected.

Table 6.5 Level 2 Regression Results (School-level)

Leader Effectiveness

	B	SE B	p		95% CI	
Intercept	2.169	0.030	0			
Unit-level SL	0.813	0.039	<0.000	***	0.736	- 0.889
Political Skill (PSI)	0.106	0.064	0.101		-0.021	- 0.234
Unit-level SL x PSI	-0.150	0.080	0.061	*	-0.307	- 0.007

*p<.10, ***p<.001

Residual standard error: 0.4769 on 246 degrees of freedom

Multiple R-squared: 0.6472,   Adjusted R-squared: 0.643
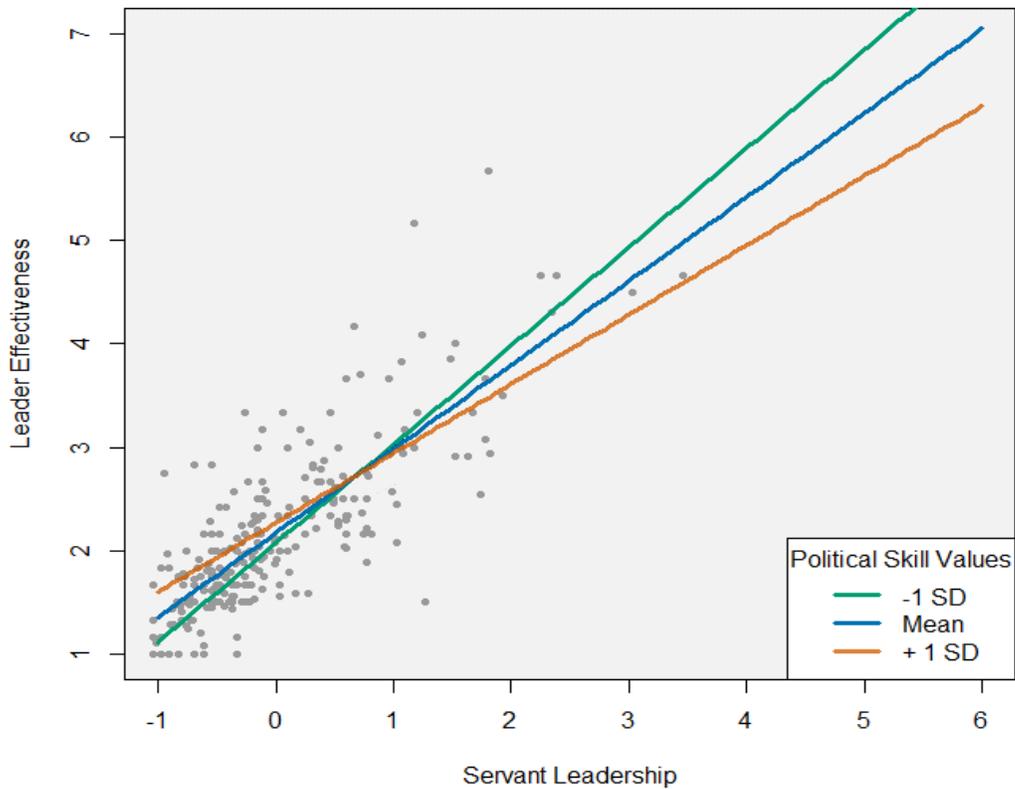
F-statistic: 150.4 on 3 and 246 DF, p-value: < 2.2e-16

Figure 6.2 Level 2 Interaction Plot

The third step of analysis involved testing H_5 and H_6 concerning the cross-level interaction of unit-level SL and PS on individual-level outcomes (AOC & JS). Results of multilevel regression are displayed in Table 6.6 and Table 6.7. First, the simplest multilevel model which allows for school effects on outcomes was constructed. The variance partition coefficient (VPC), calculated by dividing the between-school variance by the total variance, was .103 for AOC and .078 for JS indicating that 10.3% (AOC) and 7.8% (JS) of variance in outcome variables can be attributed to school effects.

Next, to build the multilevel model, the intercept was allowed to vary across schools by adding the individual-level variable SL. Then, the intercept and slope were allowed to vary by adding the school-level variable SL. Finally, to test the cross-level interaction, the school-level interaction term (PSI) was added to the model. In the case of both AOC and JS, an evaluation of VPC and AIC scores indicated the model containing the cross-level interaction explained no more variance than the model allowing for random intercept and random slope. Results also reveal a very small improvement in fit when allowing for a random slope versus a fixed slope. Thus, as in H_4, H_5 and H_6 were not supported because political skill did not positively enhance servant leadership's association with AOC and JS.

Discussion

The principal theoretical contribution of this study is it addresses a neglected and necessary area of leadership research in sport management and further advances leadership research by providing a look at leadership processes through which outcomes are influenced (Welty Peachy et al., 2015). The investigation also incorporates a multilevel model which answers a call to extend research examining leadership in sport

Table 6.6 Multilevel Modeling Results, Affective Organizational Commitment

Level and variable	Null (Step 1)	95% C.I.	Random Intercept Fixed Slope (Step 2)	95% C.I.	Random Intercept Random Slope (Step 3)	95% C.I.	Random Intercept Random Slope Cross-level Interaction (Step 4)	95% C.I.
Level 1								
Intercept	2.26	2.18 - 2.33	2.26	2.19 - 2.33	2.26	2.18 - 2.33	2.26	2.17 - 2.33
Individual-level SL			0.38	0.30 - 0.45	0.44	0.35 - 0.53	0.45	0.03 - 0.87
Level 2								
Variance components								
Within-unit (L1) variance	0.78	-0.94 - 2.5	0.67	-0.94 - 2.27	0.63	-0.93 - 2.19	0.63	-0.92 - 2.18
Intercept (L2) variance			0.12	-0.55 - 0.79	0.13	-0.57 - 0.83	0.13	-0.57 - 0.83
Unit-level SL					0.05	-0.37 - 0.57	0.04	-0.34 - 0.42
Unit-level SL x PSI							0.05	-0.37 - 0.47
n (indiviual-level)	803.00		802.00		802.00		802.00	
n (unit-level)	249.00		249.00		249.00		249.00	
Variance Partition Coefficient	0.103		0.150		0.170		0.137	
AIC	2155.00		2065.00		2061.10		2066.30	
logLik	-1074.50		-1028.50		-1024.60		-1024.10	
Deviance	2149.00		2057.00		2049.10		2048.30	

Table 6.7 Multilevel Modeling Results, Job Satisfaction

Level and variable	Null (Step 1)	95% C.I.	Random Intercept Fixed Slope (Step 2)	95% C.I.	Random Intercept Random Slope (Step 3)	95% C.I.	Random Intercept Random Slope Cross-level Interaction (Step 4)	95% C.I.
Level 1								
Intercept	1.84	1.77 - 1.91	1.84	1.77 - 1.91	1.84	1.77 - 1.91	1.84	1.77 - 1.91
Individual-level SL			0.34	0.27 - 0.41	0.34	0.25 - 0.43	0.34	0.25 - 0.43
Level 2								
Variance components								
Within-unit (L1) variance	0.66	-0.63 - 1.95	0.58	-0.91 - 2.07	0.51	-0.89 - 1.90	0.51	-0.89 - 1.91
Intercept (L2) variance			0.08	-0.46 - 0.62	0.10	-0.53 - 0.73	0.10	-0.52 - 0.72
Unit-level SL					0.08	-0.48 - 0.64	0.08	-0.47 - 0.63
Unit-level SL x PSI							0.00	-0.93 - 0.07
n (indiviual-level)	805.00		804.00		804.00		804.00	
n (unit-level)	249.00		249.00		249.00		249.00	
Variance Partition Coefficient	0.078		0.116		0.145		0.145	
AIC	2014.30		1930.70		1897.70		1903.60	
logLik	-1004.10		-961.30		-942.90		-942.80	
Deviance	2008.30		1922.70		1885.70		1885.60	

management beyond a single level (Welty Peachey et al., 2015). The absence of multilevel studies has been noted as a primary limitation to studying leadership (Hitt, Beamish, Jackson, & Mathieu, 2007; Yammarino & Dansereau, 2011; Yammarino, 2013). Furthermore, to develop leadership theory focused on sport and understand the contextual boundaries best suited for each theory, it is critical that multilevel investigations be implemented in sport leadership research (Welty Peachey et al., 2015).

The study answers a second call, to investigate the effects of servant leadership across multiple sport contexts (Welty Peachey et al., 2015). This is the first study to examine servant leadership within the contextual boundary of interscholastic sport administration. Complimenting earlier findings that servant leadership of administrators nourishes an ethical climate in sport organizations (Burton et al., 2017), findings of the present study support that servant leadership behaviors exhibited by interscholastic athletic directors do lead to increased head coach perceptions of leader effectiveness, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. revealing servant leadership as a positive and effective style for leading interscholastic sport organizations.

Finally, the study extends understanding of influence mechanisms involved in leadership by examining the interaction of servant leadership and the social effectiveness construct, political skill. H4, H5, and H6 proposed that political skill would moderate the effectiveness of servant leadership, such that more political skill would enhance the positive relationship between servant leadership and outcomes, but these hypotheses were rejected. Political skill has revealed a positive association with leader effectiveness (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004) and follower attitudes (Treadway et al., 2004; Moss & Barbuto, 2010) when not considered in conjunction with servant leadership. However,

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because the Political Skill Inventory is a self-perceived scale, it appears that the most effective servant leaders, as perceived by head coaches, evaluated themselves as possessing less PSI, and servant leaders who rated themselves as having more political skill, were perceived by head coaches as less effective leaders. It is reasonable to assume that the humility present in servant leaders (Hammermeister, 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011; Sun, 2013; Robinson et al., 2018) may be a factor in servant leader athletic directors evaluating themselves as having less political skill. The presence of humility in servant leadership may also be a factor in increased leader effectiveness scores from subordinates.

Practical Implications

These findings suggest several implications for leadership practice. An obvious move is to advocate the cause of servant leadership as a model for interscholastic sport administration. Servant leadership's focus on developing others appears to mesh well with the primary goals of education based athletic participation, student academic and social development (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2011). Furthermore, the purpose of the National Interscholastic Athletic Administrators Association is to not only support athletic administrator's effort in providing quality athletic participation opportunities for students, but to place emphasis on the development of ethics in leadership (niaaa.org). The movement toward servant leadership practice in amateur sport begins in sport management classrooms by preparing future sport management practitioners. Robinson et al. (2018) present a useful tool for sport management professors to implement the practice of servant leadership in sport management courses. The authors' present a three-sphere model of servant leadership

based on a core altruistic calling and central qualities of genuine caring, empathy, and humility. Additionally, the authors offer suggestions for teaching and activities for developing servant leadership in undergraduate and graduate sport management students.

Findings also hold important ramifications for athletic directors in that servant leader athletic directors may have the capacity to influence head coaches and student-athletes through role-modeling. In a study of retail organizations in the U. S., the behavior of servant leaders was mirrored through helping behavior of subordinates and high-quality customer service, as well as reciprocated through decreased turnover intentions and disengagement (Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penney, & Weinberger, 2013). Ultimately, it is student-athletes who may be the greatest beneficiaries of having a servant leader athletic director and head coaches who mirror servant leader behaviors. The result may be the development of head coaches who focus on helping behavior and high-quality instruction rather than harsh criticism and a win-at-all costs mentality. In addition, because of servant leadership's positive association with development of an ethical climate (Burton et al., 2017), servant leadership may be an important and effective style for athletic directors to consider when presented the opportunity to build or re-build an athletic program to be based on ethics, and that increases commitment and satisfaction of followers.

Regarding the relationship between servant leadership and political skill, one could posit that results of this study vividly portray the contrast that occurs with the interaction of other-centered style leadership and self or organization-focused influence behaviors. Considering the positive outcomes that accompany the politically skilled (e.g. career success, job performance), aspiring servant leaders may need to balance the

possible positive impacts of political skill on career advancement and other outcomes with the negative impact on servant leader effectiveness. Or, perhaps the powerful effectiveness that accompanies servant leaders is rooted so deeply in other-centered behavior that use of political skill and its benefits should not be considered by servant leaders. Additional investigations that consider the career success of servant leaders, with and without the use of political skill, are needed.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

One potential limitation to this study is that athletic directors were required to make the first decision of whether to participate or not. The testing of this model in a national population provided a large sample size, but some athletic directors may have chosen not to participate if they felt the relationships with their head coaches were weak and lacking in trust. Additionally, I was unable to gather responses from every head coach on each staff as some chose not to participate, and some athletic directors who chose to participate had no head coaches respond to the survey. The design of the study and choice of measures may also be sources of limitation. The servant leader instrument used in the study was an other-reported scale that provided a head coach evaluation of athletic director servant leadership behaviors. The PSI was a self-reported measure completed by athletic directors evaluating themselves on political skill. It appears from the results that the most effective servant leaders rated themselves lower on political skill than less effective servant leaders. Adding an other-reported measure of political skill and self-reported measure of servant leadership would make an interesting comparison study. Also, the use of self-reported measures suggests these hypotheses tests are vulnerable to the influence of common method variance (CMV). The CFA results and test for CMV

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assuages some of this concern, but outcomes from the perspective of the athletic director would be an excellent step to strengthen the study and further extend the findings.

This study is a step toward answering the call to place focused attention on the study of servant leadership and its effects on outcomes of interest in multiple sport contexts (Welty Peachey et al., 2015). Another sport-based population in which servant leadership should be investigated is athletic training. Positive benefits from servant leadership may exist for athletic trainers as seen in other service-oriented industries such as nursing (Hunter et al., 2013). Researchers should also continue the investigation of servant leadership in sport utilizing a multi-level design and extend the investigation to 3-levels including student-athletes. For example, in the current study, a 3-level design would allow opportunity to measure the trickle down of benefits from servant leader behaviors of athletic directors to student-athletes as in Hunter et al., (2013) and their study of nurse managers and patient outcomes. There is also a need to continue exploring the contextual variance of servant leadership effectiveness by considering the role of follower variables. One question to be addressed, is servant leadership effective if the subordinate is not of similar mindset as the servant leader? Does bottom-line mentality (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Eissa, 2012), existing as a one-dimensional win-at-all-costs attitude in head coaches, deflect the positive benefits of servant leadership by sport administrators, and are servant leaders able to effectively influence the reversal of this mentality in subordinates?

In the current study, political skill did not emerge as a mechanism that improves servant leader effectiveness, but is political skill important to sport leaders? Political skill has been shown to enhance the positive reputation of collegiate athletic directors, and

according to a study of university alumni encompassing various professions, political skill is a positive factor in having a successful career (Todd et al., 2009). Because of the increasing interpersonal and social aspect of the sport industry and increased visibility of sport administrators and coaches, a study of the career success implications of political skill for sport professionals is needed. Also, other social influence measurements should be explored to extend our understanding of the inner-workings of servant leadership influence such as the extended Influence Behavior Questionnaire, a measure of proactive tactics used to influence people in organizations (Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2008).

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study extends research on servant leadership by demonstrating the association of servant leadership behaviors with perceptions of leader effectiveness, and commitment and job satisfaction of employees in a sport administration setting. Political skill was also evaluated as an influence mechanism that enhances servant leader effectiveness, but no positive moderation effect was found. Numerous questions remain for future researchers regarding the influence and practice of servant leadership, but this study mirrors accumulating evidence that benefits abound for leaders who practice servant leadership by promoting the development and interests of others.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

Summary

This dissertation is a study of leadership and influence. Specifically, servant leadership, a model of leadership based on ethics and other-centeredness, and political skill, a social effectiveness construct that measures how one influences others in the context of work, have been conceptualized for sport management educators and practitioners and investigated for associations with leader effectiveness outcomes. The study answers a call to extend servant leadership research across multiple sport contexts and advances leadership research by investigating the process through which leadership outcomes are influenced.

In Chapter Four, servant leadership was presented as an important style of leadership associated with many positive outcomes and a style for sport practitioners and sport management educators to understand and utilize. A three-sphere model was presented based on altruistic calling as the core of servant leadership. Enduring qualities of genuine caring, humility, and empathy are contained within the second sphere, and the outer sphere allows room for variation in leadership practice based on context of the situation and capability of the leader. Additionally, suggestions for teaching were presented to close the article.

Next, in Chapter Five, effective use of political skill was discussed in relation to career success implications for sport coaches. Due to the interpersonal interaction involved in sport coaching and the importance for coaches to build quality relationships

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with key stakeholders, political skill was proposed as being important in the career success of sport coaches. Theoretical explanations for the relationship between political skill and career success were presented and the most impactful dimensions of political skill were discussed in relation to important stakeholder relationships a coach encounters. Specifically, five key groups of relationships a coach may encounter during a career (i.e. staff/professional, administration/ownership/ financial supporters, players, parents, and media/public) were proposed. Also discussed in the manuscript were strategies for developing political skill and practice ideas for coaches.

Finally, results presented in Chapter Six support servant leadership as an effective model for interscholastic sport administrators. Athletic directors who were perceived as being servant leaders were also perceived as effective, and head coaches who worked for servant leaders were more committed and satisfied with their jobs. Though not significant, political skill also revealed a positive effect on leader effectiveness, but a significant antagonistic interaction was found between servant leadership and political skill. Results suggest that at extreme values of servant leadership, political skill has a negative effect on leader effectiveness, thus raising questions for future investigations. Political skill is conceptualized herein as being an important factor in the career success of coaches, but future investigations should aim to support this concept with empirical evidence. Moreover, if political skill is important to career success for sport practitioners, what is the relationship between political skill and career success for servant leaders?

In conclusion, servant leadership appears to be an effective style for sport administrators to understand and put into action. Political skill may hold important ramifications for the career success of sport practitioners and servant leaders. Future research should focus on these areas with an aim to extend understanding of the relationship between servant leadership and political skill so that sport practitioners and servant leaders may be well-informed, effective leaders who optimize chances for career success.

APPENDICES

32 Item Humility Scale (Elliott, 2010)

Please circle the response that most accurately describes you.

1= Strongly Disagree

2= Disagree

3=Uncertain

4=Agree

5=Strongly Agree

1.When it seems like God is ignoring my prayers, I become frustrated.   1 2 3 4 5

2. I enjoy spending time reflecting on the majesty and power of nature.   1 2 3 4 5

3. It is easy for me to accept the honest criticism of a friend.   1 2 3 4 5

4. When asked I can give an accurate assessment of my personal strengths.   1 2 3 4 5

5. I often spend time thinking about my personal inadequacies.   1 2 3 4 5

6. When I have put myself out for another, I want them to acknowledge my sacrifice.   1 2 3 4 5

7. I often feel bad for wanting more, when so many have less than me.   1 2 3 4 5

8. The challenges ahead of me often cause me to feel overwhelmed.   1 2 3 4 5

9. When asked to do something, I usually think of others who are more qualified.   1 2 3 4 5

10. During times of prayer/meditation, I reflect on areas in my life where I

need improvement.   1 2 3 4 5

11. When someone else is being recognized, I think about my accomplishments.   1 2 3 4 5

12. I feel honored when others ask for my help.   1 2 3 4 5

13. I often struggle with being selfish.   1 2 3 4 5

14. Compared to the greatness and vastness of the universe, I feel so insignificant.   1 2 3 4 5

15. It frustrates me, when others are praised and I am not.   1 2 3 4 5

16. I don't have my act together the way I'd like.   1 2 3 4 5

17. Recently, I have felt ashamed of my arrogance.   1 2 3 4 5

18. I often wish I was as talented as my peers.   1 2 3 4 5

19. When I don't know an answer, I get upset because I think I should have.   1 2 3 4 5

20. I get angry with know-it-alls.   1 2 3 4 5

21. When I see inspiring examples, it reminds me of what I could be.   1 2 3 4 5

22. When confronted with my mistakes, my first response is to explain why I did it.   1 2 3 4 5

23. I am deeply touched when others sacrifice for me.   1 2 3 4 5

24. It is hard for me to accept others' praise because I am far from perfect.   1 2 3 4 5

25. It irritates me when people below me don't fulfill their responsibilities.   1 2 3 4 5

26. I feel valuable doing "lowly" things for others.   1 2 3 4 5

27. When friends ask for my counsel, I feel like "why me"?   1 2 3 4 5

28. When I get in trouble, it is important to me to be able to explain what happened.   1 2 3 4 5

29. I try to downplay my part when I help others.   1 2 3 4 5

30. Death usually reminds me how needy I am.   1 2 3 4 5

31. When I have been confronted with the reality of death, it causes me to think

how quickly life passes by.   1 2 3 4 5

32. I am usually quick to rationalize my failures.   1 2 3 4 5

(Reverse score items: 1, 5, 6, 11, 15, 19, 20, 22, 24, 25, 28, 29, 32)

APPENDIX B

Directions for Developing Empathy through Conversation

Activity Overview

After identifying a partner, begin a discussion on a controversial debate topic, (e.g., The use of nutritional supplements, the growth of select teams in off seasons, etc.). As the debate develops, place an emphasis on slowing down and listening intently to the words that are being spoken by your debate partner. While listening, consider the person's experience and perspective. Respond visually or with sound, but no words. After the person is finished speaking, allow at least one second to pass before responding. Perhaps respond with a follow-up question in order to clarify the speaker's intentions. Because the attention of the student has been focused on the speaker, students should feel comfortable taking more time than usual to formulate a response. At the conclusion of the debate, write an interpretation of your partner's message and intention. Also, have the students describe physical characteristics and perceived emotions communicated by the debate partner. Upon completion, confirm with the partner whether or not interpretations were accurate.

Debate Topic:_____

1. Participant 1 - What is this participant's experience? How does this experience shape the perspective through which the topic is viewed by the participant?

   Participant 2 Response

   Rate Participant 1's interpretation of your experience and perspective. How accurate is the interpretation? Supply comments to explain discrepancies in the interpretation.

1	2	3	4
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly

   Comments:

2. Participant 1 - List your follow-up question or questions here. There may be more than one.

3. Participant 1 - Describe the physical characteristics of your debate partner during the debate. Consider facial characteristics, body language, and other noticeable features.

4. Participant 1 - Describe the emotions of your debate partner interpreted during the debate. What role do these emotions play in forming Participant 2's perspective?

Participant 2 Response

Rate the accuracy of the interpretation of your emotions. Are the emotions identified correct?   Supply comments to explain discrepancies in the interpretation.

1	2	3	4
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly

Comments:

5. Describe the understood message and intention of your debate partner as interpreted during the debate.

Participant 2 Response

Rate the accuracy of the interpretation of your intended message. Is your intended message interpreted correctly? Supply comments to explain discrepancies.

1	2	3	4
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly

Comments:

APPENDIX C

Volunteer Experience Journal Form

Date:

Location:

Objective of the Day:

1. In your own words, describe your volunteer experience.

2. With whom did you interact? Consider and describe how their experience might shape their perspective?

3. Describe the physical characteristics and emotions of those you served.

4. Describe specific encounters that shaped your perspective and stood out to you as impactful.

5. Describe your own feelings and emotions that you encountered while serving.

6. How has this experience impacted your perspective? How has it impacted your attitude toward life and your place in this world?

Athletic Director Questionnaire Items

Political Skill

1. I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others. (NA)

2. I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me. (II)

3. I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others. (II)

4. It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people. (II)

5. I understand people very well. (SA)

6. I have developed a large network of colleagues and associates at work who I can call on for support when I really need to get things done.

7. I am good at building relationships with influential people at work. (NA)

8. I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.(SA)

9. When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do. (AS)

10. At work, I know a lot of important people and am well connected. (NA)

11. I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others. (NA)

12. I am good at getting people to like me. (II)

13. It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do. (AS)

14. I try to show a genuine interest in other people. (AS)

15. I am good at using my connections and network to make things happen at work.(NA)

16. I have good intuition or savvy about how to present myself to others. (SA)

17. I always seem to instinctively know the right things to say or do to influence others. (SA)

18. I pay close attention to people's facial expressions. (SA)

Head Coach Questionnaire Items

Servant Leadership

1. My supervisor spends the time to form quality relationships with department employees.
2. My supervisor creates a sense of community among department employees.
3. My supervisor's decisions are influenced by department employee's input.
4. My department manager tries to reach consensus among department employees on important decisions.
5. My supervisor is sensitive to department employee's responsibilities outside the work place.
6. My supervisor makes the personal development of department employees a priority.
7. My supervisor holds department employees to high ethical standards.
8. My supervisor does what she or he promises to do.
9. My supervisor balances concern for day-to-day details with projections for the future.
10. My supervisor displays a wide-ranging knowledge and interests in finding solutions to work problems.
11. My supervisor makes me feel like I work with him/her, not for him/her.
12. My supervisor works hard at finding ways to help others be the best they can be.
13. My supervisor encourages department employees to be involved in community service and volunteer activities outside of work.
14. My supervisor emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community.

Leader Effectiveness

15. Our athletic program meets or exceeds expectations.
16. Our athletic program does excellent work.
17. Our athletic program's performance is improving.
18. My athletic director is effective in representing our athletic program.
19. My athletic director is effective in meeting the job-related needs of team members.
20. My athletic director is effective in meeting the needs of the athletic program.

Affective Organizational Commitment

21. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
22. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
23. (R) I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.

24. (R) I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
25. (R) I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
26. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Overall Job Satisfaction

27. If a good friend of mine told me that he/she was interested in working in a job like mine I would strongly recommend it.
28. All in all, I am very satisfied with my current job.
29. In general, my job measures up to the sort of job I wanted when I took it.
30. Knowing what I know now, if I had to decide all over again whether to take my job, I would.

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