

LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION: AN INVESTIGATION OF SERVANT
LEADERSHIP AS A PREDICTOR OF COLLEGE PERFORMANCE

by

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Abstract

Resulting from the Assembly Bill 1725 mandate, California community colleges and districts created participatory organizational structures to ensure that all employee and student constituency groups would participate effectively in the governance of a college and/or district. The literature suggests that while these structures are in place, participatory values have not transcended from these structures. The purpose of this exploratory study was to gain a deeper understanding of the level of servant leadership in five California community colleges and to identify if any relationship exists between the level of servant leadership and college performance. This study used the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) (Laub, 1999) to measure servant leadership at the organizational level and a normalized performance index score that was based on seven performance measures. While the response rate did not meet statistically significant levels, the results from the respondents showed that servant leadership did not exist at the organizational level in the five colleges, adding support to the literature that perhaps participatory values have not transcended from the established participatory structures. The null hypothesis correlating the performance index and servant leadership could not be rejected. However, a Spearman's rho correlation revealed an inverse relationship between servant leadership and the two performance scores that focused on student earned awards and certificates.

Dedication

To my Savior
The Paragon of a Servant Leader - Jesus Christ.

For from Him and through Him and to Him are all things.
To Him be the glory forever! Amen.

Romans 11:36 (New American Standard)

In loving Memory:

Bernard Anthony Galeskas

Joan Griffith Trouard

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Study

Warren Bennis (1997) always felt that "presiding over faculty was like herding cats," he also said, regarding faculty members, "If you meet one, you meet one" (p. 7). With the tenure system fully entrenched in the California Community College system, instructors can be like consultants or individual contributors who choose how much effort they wish to contribute to the organization after meeting their required student face time. Faculty leaders lead peer groups without authority over the led, while other organizational constituent groups, such as managers, classified staff and administrators tend to have more clearly defined organizational authority and power hierarchy levels. Additionally, administrative and classified constituency groups tend to have more objective individual performance measures, while faculty, who function under a tenure system, tend to have more ambiguous performance goals. In an environment where potential for significantly differing power structures, is there a leadership approach that bridges these seemingly paradoxical structures under one organization? The California Community College (CCC) system, with 109 campuses and almost 2.5 million learners, is the largest educational system in the world (California Community College Chancellors Office, 2006). The size alone of this organization presents many challenges, the least of which is the management of staff and resources necessary to accomplish the mission of the CCC system.

Background of the Study

Assembly Bill 1725

In 1989, the California legislation enacted Assembly Bill (AB) 1725 to address the many educational obstacles of an ever-increasing diversity of the California population. These obstacles included the need for an equally diverse and empowered faculty, staff and student body. As such, AB 1725 strives to ensure that the Board of Governors establishes the means to ensure that all employee and student constituents participate effectively in the governance of a college or district.

Through Title V of the California Education Code, the Board of Governors created participatory governance structures, such as academic senates, college councils and various cross-functional committees to increase participation between constituent groups as mandated by AB 1725. While community college administrators and faculty have worked to forge a new tradition of participatory governance structures, this has not necessarily translated into collaborative or "shared" leadership practices (Kezar, 2001; Myers, 2005). It is possible that community college administration in general has continued to be hierarchical in nature, relying on superordinate and subordinate organizational power structures within the nonacademic structures, while only adopting the AB 1725 requirements to the participatory constructs of faculty structures. Faculty power structures tend to be peer-based, allowing faculty to have little threat to job loss or decrease in enumeration due to performance.

Within the AB 1725 mandated collaborative organizational structures, there was an expectation that the various constituency groups would begin to participate effectively. However, these changes were limited to student and academic related organizational

structures, while administrative and classified organizational structures did not receive the same mandate. Parker (1998) states that, "although we have institutionalized *some* forms of collaborative infrastructure, we are not regarded as successful leaders by the general public, the business community, legislatures, and perhaps even ourselves" (p. 12). While effectively mandating collaborative structures, collaborative core principles such as shared power, nonpositional relationships, interdependency and service to others has not been mandated and may not have materialized as hoped.

Illustrating this tension, in the spring of 2005, one California community college district's Academic Senate suspended all of its collaborative sub-committee work because of its belief that the Board of Trustees (BOT) did not share power and inspire trust in the faculty, nor did the BOT negotiate fairly with the bargaining units. The faculty shut down their own collaborative shared power making ability due to a perceived lack of collaboration. A report published by the state technical committee stated that indeed *both* sides needed to be more collaborative.

Unfortunately, many faculty unions in the CCC system maintain adversarial negotiation methods in order to obtain better pay and benefits. In the fall of 2006, a California community college went on strike in order to negotiate higher pay increases (Redden, 2006). As such, there appears to be a leadership dilemma in academic institutions caused by both faculty and administrator leaders. While on the one hand academic scholars and intellectuals not only embrace the values of a McGregor style collaborative leadership but even proselytize them in the classroom, collaborative leadership values seem to be missing when applied in the same institutional governance systems (Kezar, 2001; Parker, 1998).

Decision Making

Adding to the dilemma mentioned above, when it comes to the power of wielding a budget and making decisions, faculty and staff constituents are virtually powerless. The structures established by AB 1725 create opportunities for constituents to participate in the discussion regarding college and district budgets such as hiring and issues of curriculum; however, final decisions belong to the BOT. Publicly elected officials (who may or may not have any experience in higher education) make up the BOT, and by majority vote, they are the final decision makers related to budget allocations, hiring, dismissal, bargaining agreements, etc. While AB 1725 establishes participation in such matters with constituency groups, the BOT is the only constituency that has final decision-making power.

While AB 1725 establishes an expectation for participatory or collaborative leadership, there is no shared power in budgetary decisions. It therefore seems that community college administration and faculty leaders have struggled to establish true collaborative values within the construction of collaborative structures. If both faculty and administrative college leaders practiced collaborative principles, perhaps these leaders could better manage a partial participatory and partial unilateral decision-making educational system. One potential solution might be to incorporate servant leadership as an institutional leadership culture.

Statement of the Problem

While the CCC system has acted to create participatory structures, the problem is that the literature suggests that perhaps these structures may have failed to produce the core values or principles associated with collaborative environments (Kezar, 2001;

Myers, 2005; Parker, 1998). As a result, colleges may not be as productive as perhaps they could be if these core values were fully present in the California community college organizational culture.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this exploratory study was to gain a deeper understanding of the level of servant leadership in five California community colleges and to identify if any relationship exists between the level of servant leadership and college performance.

Theoretical Framework

The 1996 Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language defines participation as "3. A sharing, as in benefits or profits: participation in a pension plan. 4. of or pertaining to a venture characterized by more than one person, bank or company participating in risk or profit: participation loan" (p. 57). Locke & Schweiger (1979) suggest that participation is more than merely working together; it is a collaboration of team or group unity who share equally in the joy of success and potential consequences of failure. This concept is foundational to the ideological framework of collaborative leadership. For the purposes of this study, participatory and collaboration were considered synonymous.

An Ideological Framework

Organizational Behavior (OB) scholars are constantly working to determine not only what behavior is taking place in an organization, but also to understand why it happens. Ideology is one key component behind the motivation of many theoretical paradigms (Kuhn, 1970). Ideology, therefore, has a considerable effect on the theoretical framework of collaborative leadership. As hinted in the definition above, collaborative

leadership assumes an ideological axiom that humanity is inherently good and organizations pollute, in such a way as to hinder human ethical excellence from prevailing (Nehrbass, 1979). Therefore, the natural state of collaborative management research, according to Nehrbass, is that, "in the face of this dehumanizing organization environment, it is the role of theorists to design new organizational forms and new management techniques that will recapture the natural worth of workers" (p. 427).

Guided by this aphorism, early socialists created systems to protect labor from the contriving forces of mercantilism. Moving to an extreme position, Karl Marx wanted labor to have full and equal power and ownership with management. Western style democracies, however, found this position absurd and chose rather to use freely elected representatives to control the potential for corruption of capitalism (Bhabatosh, 1983). Thus, socialism is a foundational moralistic motivation for the use of collaborative management structures and values.

As such, collaborative leadership takes on a moralistic imperative to improve the lives of workers. Locke and Schweiger (1979) argue that such an "altruism implies the sacrifice of individuality and freedom. One way to sacrifice individuality is to make everyone equal" (p. 271). Locke and Schweiger further stated that, "a common element in many definitions is the concept of equalization of influence or power sharing" (p. 273). Collaborative leadership, as developed here, requires the acceptance of participating members as equal in joint decision making, taking on equal risks and receiving equal benefits.

Individual Behavior or Organizing Behavior

There has been a well-documented and ongoing debate whether to evaluate Organizational Behavior (OB) effect at an organizational level or at an individual level. Researchers (McGregor, 1966a; Miller & Monge, 1986; Vroom & Yetton, 1973) have argued in favor of the individual level effect, while others (Brief, 1998; Covey, 1998; Laub, 1999; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Ostroff, 1992; Russell, 2001a) have argued for research measurement focus at the organizational level. Ostroff maintains that a key reason why researchers have struggled to find a direct relationship between satisfaction and productivity is that the majority of research has been at the individual behavioral level. When researchers are focused on the individual level, their analysis misses the impact of environmental and synergistic forces at play within an organization. To this point, Ostroff states that the literature has "consistently shown little relationship between satisfaction/attitudes and performance for the individuals in organizations" (p. 995).

Ostroff (1992), who engaged in organizational level research involving 298 schools across about 14,000 workers, argued that "organizations with more satisfied employees tended to be more effective than organizations with less satisfied employees" (, p. 969). Brief (1998) makes the argument for an organizational context view using the constructs of job satisfaction and performance. While he agrees that there is a relationship to be found "out there," he posits that "the view required is from the organizational level of analysis" (p. 43). Finally, in the words of Covey (1998), "If you really want to get servant-leadership, then you've got to have institutionalization of the principles at the organizational level" (p. xvii). Therefore, the methodology for this study focused on

servant leadership and performance at the organizational level through the use of Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) (1999).

Linking Collaborative and Servant leadership

It was McGregor's introduction of Theory Y (an early participatory model) in juxtaposition to Theory X (a conventional carrot and stick management model) that further established participatory leadership assumptions. Several of these assumptions are, first, that workers are not lazy, inert or inherently against the organization; and secondly, that workers are motivated for personal growth, development, and greater responsibility. Thirdly, it is management's responsibility to ensure an environment where workers can succeed (McGregor, 1966b). Further, McGregor states that, "this is a process primarily of creating opportunities, releasing potential, removing obstacles, encouraging growth, providing guidance" (p. 15). No longer is labor simply a predictable tool to be manipulated, rather the worker is self-motivated to engage, grow and pursue personal and organizational goals. McGregor simplifies this by stating, "It is worth noting that this difference is the difference between treating people as children and treating them as mature adults" (p. 17).

McGregor's Theory Y is a foundational path toward participatory leadership management. McGregor stated,

One of the most important conditions of the subordinate's growth and development centers around his [sic] opportunities to express his ideas and to contribute his suggestions before his superiors take action on matters that involve him. Through participation of this kind, he becomes more and more aware of his superiors' problems, and he obtains a genuine satisfaction in knowing that his opinions and ideas are given consideration in the search for solutions (1966a, p. 60).

For this study, it was important to make a link between participatory leadership and servant leadership. As seen above, McGregor (1966a) has outlined the basic assumptions of collaborative management. These assumptions include (a) having a high regard for the led, (b) focusing on the needs of the led for increased productivity, (c) demonstrating a trusting environment by sharing power and discretion, and (d) providing for growth of the led. As will be developed in the next chapter, these values are highly similar to the characteristics of servant leaders. Laub (1999) identifies that servant leaders exhibit the following characteristics: (a) valuing people, (b) developing people, (c) building community, (d) displaying authenticity, (e) providing leadership and (f) sharing leadership. Finally, values are a significant core aspect to servant leadership (Russell, 2001b). Additionally, Russell identifies three core values of servant leadership as trust, appreciation for others and empowerment. The similarities between assumptions of collaborative leadership and the characteristics and core values of servant leadership allow for the assumption that by measuring servant leadership at the organization level, the organization's collaborative values are being measured as well.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

Is there a significant level of servant leadership in five of the California community colleges?

Is there a relationship between servant leadership and performance in five of the California community colleges?

Nature of the Study

This quantitative exploratory study was post-positivistic in nature and designed to measure the level of servant leadership at the organizational level in five California community colleges, and whether there was a relationship between the overall level of servant leadership and performance. Kerlinger and Lee (2000) affirm the use of exploratory studies. This study was correlative in nature, and by definition, it did not demonstrate causality; however, the findings of this study may provide support and rationale for further experimental research using the OLA to correlate servant leadership and objective performance measures.

Research Design

This study collected two types of data survey response and performance. First, the Organizational Leadership Assessment (see Appendix) was used. All participants were invited to take the same survey instrument. The instrument used was both valid and reliable. The study used servant leadership as the dependent variable and performance as the single independent variable.

In order to arrive at the stated purpose of this study, college performance data was collected in order to determine if any correlation exists between servant leadership and the independent variable of college performance.

Sampling

For this study, the population consisted of five California community colleges taken from the 109 community colleges that make up the CCC system. All employees of the population were sent a survey invitation and asked to voluntarily participate by completing the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) survey (Laub, 1999).

Those who participated comprised the sample population. The names of the colleges that participated were not included to protect the anonymity of those colleges.

While this was an exploratory study, the researcher endeavored to achieve a P value of $\leq .05$. The sample college population ranged from lowest 437 to highest 1175. Therefore, the minimum respondent rate needed to be between 201 and 285 responses, respectively, from each college relative to its population. The internet, via the World Wide Web, was used as the survey instrument delivery system. Participants were invited by a college proxy to participate via an invitation letter sent to their campus e-mail addresses.

Data Collection

The OLA instrument was converted from a master copy survey to an online survey using surveymonkey.com as the commercial server from which data was collected. In accordance with a preliminary agreement with its author Dr. James Laub, no changes were made in the conversion of the OLA from paper to online survey without Dr. Laub's consent.

Letters requesting permissions to conduct research at each college were sent to each Chancellor and/or President of 38 California community colleges. These letters specified the research, and emphasized that all participation would be voluntary and that all individual responses would be anonymous and confidential.

Participants received invitations to their work e-mail addresses requesting their voluntary participation. Usable responses included only those that signified in the demographics section that they understood that their individual participation is strictly voluntary and confidential. As participants completed the survey, data was collected on

an online commercial server (surveymonkey.com). Upon completion of the data collection window, data was collect from the server maintained on a private system with a back-up placed into long term storage.

The performance data was collected from the California Community College Chancellor's office (CCCCO) using publicly available data located in a data mart at www.cccco.edu website. Some data was provided by the data mart manager. Both the survey and performance data was imported to Microsoft Excel and SPSS for data analysis.

Data Analysis

As discussed above, the dependent variable was servant leadership at the organizational level as measured by the OLA. Because the OLA instrument in this study used a Likert-type model, the resulting data was interval. Interval data has the additional quality of "equality of interval" (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Because of this, interval data tests can "handle reasonable violations of the assumptions, that is they are robust" (Norusis, 2003, p 386). Data analysis techniques included the use of descriptive and correlation analysis hypothesis test statistics.

Significance of the Study

This study was important for three primary reasons. First, since the mandate from AB 1725 is to "participate effectively," there was a question in the literature as to whether the principles associated with collaborative leadership have been institutionalized along with the well-defined collaborative structures. Second, there seems to be a lack of sufficient understanding about the relationship between servant leadership and objective organizational performance in the CCC system. Third, due to the emerging status of

servant leadership, there is little quantitative empirical research in the literature on servant leadership in the area of objective organizational performance.

Hypotheses

The literature suggests that collaborative values have not transcended the collaborative structures of the California community college system (Kezar, 2001; Parker, 1998). This study suggests that servant leadership inherently models the values associated with collaborative leadership. The literature was silent on the relationship between servant leadership and organizationally perceived, objective performance measures in the CCC system. Therefore, it was reasonable to hypothesize that if servant leadership existed in the California's community colleges, what relationship existed? Therefore, the following hypotheses were offered:

H1: There is a statistically significant level of servant leadership at the organizational level in five California community colleges.

H2: There is a statistically significant and positive correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and each college's performance index.

Definition of Terms

Specific terms are used for this study. The terms and their definitions are provided for clarity:

AB 1725. California Assembly Bill 1725 is a law passed by the legislature in 1989 that mandates the responsibility and authority granted to college presidents, publicly elected board of trustees and faculty for the governance of colleges within the California Community College system

Collaborative Leadership. Collaborative leadership as defined by Straus (2002) is the "process people employ when working together in a group, organization or community to plan, create, solve problems and make decisions" (p. 5). The late Latin root etymology of this term is *collaboratus*, which means, "labor together" ("Merriam-webster online dictionary," 2006).

Five community colleges in California. While 37 California community colleges were asked to participate, most did not. The five colleges included in this study were ones that responded with signed institutional consent form. The numbers 1-5 were used to label each college.

Leader. A leader is a person who influences followers through collaborative means for the creation, advancement and/or completion of a shared vision. Often, leaders are perceived as one with formal and authoritative power. However, leaders may also be informal influencers who help direct the lives of others.

Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA). Created in 1999 by Dr. James Laub, the OLA is a survey instrument that measures an organization's servant leadership level.

Performance Data. This is defined as published performance data for each California Community College. This data is accessible from the California Community College's Chancellors Office (CCCCO) website (www.cccco.edu). This is objective performance as perceived by the CCCCCO.

Population. For this study, all employees at each of the five colleges in California had the opportunity to voluntarily participate in this study

Servant Leadership.

Servant leadership is an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader. Servant leadership promotes the valuing and development of people, the building of community, the practice of authenticity, the providing of leadership for the good of those led and the sharing of power and status for the common good of each individual, the total organization and those served by the organization (Laub, 1999, p 83).

Assumptions and Limitations

Assumptions

It was assumed that the terms *collaborative* and *participatory* as they related to leadership style and methodology, could be used synonymously, as supported in the literature (Kezar, 2001; Raelin, 2006).

It was assumed that servant leadership embodies both the core functions of collaborative leadership (such as shared power, shared vision and non-positional authority) and the core values. Referring to Theory Y, McGregor (1966b) states that "this is a process primarily of creating opportunities, releasing potential, removing obstacles, encouraging growth, providing guidance" (p. 15). As such, it seemed self-evident that the core values of servant leadership-trust, appreciation of others and empowerment (Russell 2001b) encapsulate both the functions and values of collaborative leadership. Therefore, measuring servant leadership at the organizational level in the community colleges would result in determining if the collaborative core values had transcended from collaborative structures.

It was assumed and understood that measuring performance in educational organizations has been, traditionally, a difficult task. It was not the purpose of this study to qualify the best means for measuring performance. It was further assumed that the

published performance data by the California State Chancellor's office was a reasonable means to measure objective community college performance as perceived by the organization.

It was assumed that higher OLA scores would show a college's ability to demonstrate the six servant leader characteristics, and consequently, be more servant-oriented than those colleges with lower OLA scores.

Limitations

This study was limited by the lack of statistically significant response rates from each of the five colleges. This study was limited to six servant leadership characteristics as defined by the OLA. This study was limited to five community colleges in California and would not generalize to the 109 California community colleges.

At the time of the study, the researcher was employed as a faculty member at one of the community colleges that participated in the research. The researcher removed himself from all leadership roles and responsibilities in the college and maintained a low profile during the research stage and did not engage in significant discussion about the research to potential participants before or during the data collection stage of the research. However, the researcher was known on the campus and this could have had impact the response rate.

There was a distinct possibility that the answer to the first research question would be "no", that there was no significant measurement of servant leadership in the colleges represented. As such, there was a possibility that this study would not be able to show any relationship between servant leadership and performance.

While this study's focus was on servant leadership as a single variable, it is important to note that there are many leadership styles with reliable instruments that might be found useful in similar studies. As suggested by Fairholm (2002), leadership is perhaps, in the eye of the beholder.

The researcher understood that there is a synergistic relationship between college level leadership and district level leadership. This study did not specifically study that relationship; however, the study may generate some questions for future study.

The reporting of performance data was not real time. There was a six to nine month delay in CCCCO reporting of data and when the survey was taken. For example, college employee head count for the spring of 2007 (typically reported in January) was not publically available until September of 2007.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The following chapter contains a review of the relevant literature. Topics covered include (a) a summary overview of leadership theories, (b) a review of the historical foundation for Jesus Christ as the first to teach and model servant leadership, (c) a discussion of building a servant leadership theoretical model, (d) an additional refinement of the servant leader model; (e) a discussion differentiating servant and transformational leadership, (f) a review of empirical research, and (g) a discussion about the link between leadership and performance. Chapter 3 discusses the study's methodological approach that includes the development of Laub's (1999) Organizational Leadership Assessment survey and how the survey and performance data were to be collected. Chapter 4 presents the data results and the statistical analysis used for interpretation. Chapter 5 delivers concluding comments and further research opportunities based on the analysis.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This review of the literature discusses the historical and theoretical framework pertaining to the purpose of this study. Other significant concepts include (a) a summary overview of leadership theories, (b) a review of the historical foundation for Jesus Christ as the first to teach and model servant leadership, (c) a discussion of building a servant leadership theoretical model, (d) an additional refinement of the servant leader model, (e) a discussion differentiating servant and transformational leadership, (f) a review of empirical research, and (g) a discussion about the link between leadership and performance.

Historical Leadership Models

The current field of leadership research has progressed to where it is because of the evolution of thought based on the research of past scholars. In his book *Leadership: Theory and Practice*, Northouse (2007) delineates several of the more important leadership approaches which have been developed over the past century. This section will review several of them.

Trait Approach

Trait approach suggests that leaders are born with certain qualities and attributes that make them "natural born leaders." This approach further suggests that some people are more predisposed to attain and excel in leadership positions. Trait researchers were working to figure out which attributes illustrated the ideal leader. It was not until 1948 when Ralph Stogdill published a meta-review of 124 studies in which he investigated

both physical and psychological factors that appeared in the research. Stogdill identified that there were many inconsistencies in the body of research. Leaders were both tall and small, young and old, stout and thin, outgoing and reserved. Further, any relationship between a particular trait and leadership ability varied greatly (Hackman & Johnson, 2004). Citing Stogdill, Hackman and Johnson state that, "a leader does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of followers" (p. 65).

Northouse (2007) contends that the trait approach started with a focus on a search for the ideal traits of a leader and then, resulting from Stogdill's work, shifted to a focus on a relationship between the leader's traits and the situation. Northouse also notes that the trait approach is not dead. He refers to a 1991 study by Kirkpatrick and Locke by stating that, "effective leaders are actually distinct types of people in several key respects" (p. 16). Additionally, Northouse suggests that researchers supporting visionary and charismatic aspects of leaders are giving new life to the trait approach. Summarizing the literature's lists of effective leadership traits, Northouse identifies: (a) intelligence, (b) self-confidence, (c) determination, (d) integrity, and (e) sociability as the more primary traits of this approach.

Style Approach

The style approach considers behavior, specifically two primary behaviors dealing with how leaders accomplish tasks and how they maintain relationships as developed by the Ohio State Studies (Hackman & Johnson, 2004; Northouse, 2007). In referring to what leaders do in the style approach, Northouse states that, "leaders provide structure for

subordinates, and they nurture them. The Ohio State studies viewed these two behaviors as distinct and independent" (p. 71).

Further developing the trait approach, but still maintaining focus on the two primary factors of relationship and task, Blake and Mouton (1964) created the managerial grid which later became known as the Leadership Grid®, and has become one of the most popular tools used in management schools to explain this approach (Northouse, 2007). As noted by Northouse, the leadership grid brings together both concerns for the led and for the production need of the organization by identifying five significant leadership styles: (a) Authority-compliance, (b) country club management, (c) impoverished management, (d) middle-of-the-road management, and (e) team management. The more a leader could adapt his or her leadership style to the situation, the more effective leader was.

Situational Approach

As a leadership theory, situational approach broke new ground by clarifying that leadership is often relative to the follower, in that, as the follower's need for attention and direction changed, so must the leader change the style of leadership. Blanchard, Zigarmi and Zigarmi (1985) identified four leadership styles that a leader might need to adapt to as the follower's situational development changed. These leadership styles included (a) directing low developing followers, (b) coaching low to moderate developing followers, (c) supporting moderately developed followers, and (d) delegating highly developed followers.

In situational leadership, it is critical that the leader quickly assess the level of follower development and adapt to that situation. As discussed by Kouzes and Posner

(2002), in order to maintain the emotional stress, a leader must ensure that there is a balanced level of ability to expectation. If a follower has too much responsibility but lacks the job skill, or has too low responsibility and too high of job skill, followers become highly stressed and job satisfaction and productivity may suffer.

Leader Member Exchange

Leader Member Exchange (LMX) theory introduces a leadership style that focuses on the communication transaction or exchange between leader and member. LMX theory challenged the axiom at the time that leaders needed to respond and react to followers in a consistent pattern. In fact, LMX theory directs the evaluation of leadership theory toward the leader's exchange with each specific member (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Phillips and Bedeian (1994) explain that "leaders may develop different types of relationships with different types of members of the same work group" (p. 990). In turn, these exchanges between the leader and the member can range from high to low quality. Some members of the same work team enjoy closer relationships with the leader than other members (Phillips & Bedeian). As such, "the quality of the relationship that develops between a leader and a follower is predictive of the outcomes at the individual, group and organizational levels of analysis" (Gerstner & Day, 1997 p. 827).

The LMX model further suggests that a member who enjoys a high-quality LMX relationship is one whom the leader likes or trusts more. These individuals fill the more significant positions in the organization, have more emotional support, and enjoy informal rewards (Kaemar, Zinuska, Witt, & Gully, 2003). Those members with lower quality LMX relationships do not receive these benefits. Finally, Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) suggest that the LMX model is both transactional and transformational

in nature. When a leader-member relationship begins, it starts out as a social exchange, and then the relationship can develop into a transforming role where high and low quality is determined.

It was not the objective of this review to provide an exhaustive list of leadership theory, but to identify some of the early groundbreaking work of the 20th century. However, any such review would be remiss not to include the study of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is conceptually associated to servant leadership and is developed in detail below. Fairholm (2002) suggested that leadership is not defined merely by the mechanics, behaviors, styles, or qualities of leaders. Rather, he advocated that leadership is more holistic and philosophical by focusing synergistically on broader conceptual elements such as values, motives, power, aspirations, needs, etc. In this review and study, an emphasis is on servant leadership as emerging leadership philosophy that strives to incorporate such broader notions.

Servant leadership was chosen for this study over other leadership approaches because servant leadership appears to move beyond some of the characteristic skills of a leader toward conceptual principles that leaders can be motivated to adopt as they grow in their leadership.

Servant Leadership

Certainly, servant leadership in the modern literature is synonymous with the late Robert Greenleaf. His work is seminal to the academic understanding of servant leadership; however, the concept of servant leadership did not begin with Greenleaf. The construct of Jesus Christ as a servant leader has wide support in the literature (Blanchard, 1998; Briner & Pritchard, 2001; Rinehart, 1998; Russell, 2001a; Sendjaya & Sarros,

2002; Todd, 2004; Wilkes, 1998; Williams, 2002). It is therefore critical to review briefly how Jesus both conceptually taught and modeled servant leadership. Blanchard and Hodge (2005) assert that throughout the New Testament Jesus instructed and modeled servant leadership.

Jesus Taught Servant Leadership

Russell (2001) noted that there are several passages of Scriptures, which clearly illustrate Jesus' servant leadership teachings. The context surrounding the biblical text below is a leadership power play made by two of Jesus' disciples. Using their mother as a proxy, two of the disciples (James & John) vie for seats of leadership at the right and left hands of Jesus in his kingdom reign. Jesus' reply is that these positions are chosen for whom the Father has prepared and not for Jesus to grant. Hearing of this power play by James and John, the other disciples become resentful. Noting the unrest, Jesus teaches them about servant leadership by saying,

You know that the rulers of the Gentiles lord it over them, and their high officials exercise authority over them. Not so with you. Instead, whoever wants to become great among you must be your servant, and whoever wants to be first must be your slave – just as the Son of Man did not come to be served, but to serve, and to give His life as a ransom for many (Matthew 20: 25-28, The Holy Bible, New International Version).

In this passage, Jesus is clearly promoting a new leadership principle as compared to the conventional wisdom of the 1st century. This new leadership principle is that leaders must become servants. While this may appear to be paradoxical, it is a practical and cogent means of leadership (Williams, 2002). Jesus did not diminish the disciples for wanting to be great, rather he redefined greatness (Rinehart, 1998; Wilkes, 1998). Rinehart suggests that leaders can strive toward greatness, but the path is through service and perhaps involves personal loss. As a servant, Jesus never stopped leading. Servant

leaders do direct and delegate resources and power, but with altogether different motives (Williams).

The conventional wisdom is identified here with the idea that the rulers would "lord it over" their followers. Russell (2003) brings clarity to this by stating that "Jesus' statement implies that worldly leaders ordinarily hold their followers in subjection and master them by wielding power, often through fear, coercion, or manipulation" (p. 4). Jesus' instruction is very clear: "not so with you."

Jesus Modeled Servant Leadership

Servant leadership, as defined above, embodies the unconditional commitment against all cases of ethnic, cultural and gender bigotry. There is a selfless commitment toward helping others. Additionally, Northouse (2007), attributes to a servant leader the "social responsibility to be concerned with the 'have-nots' and to recognize them as equal stakeholders in the life of the organization" (p. 309). The passage below illustrates this aspect of Jesus' ministry. The context for this passage is that Jesus' disciples have left him alone at a well while they are in the town shopping for the evening meal.

There came a woman of Samaria to draw water. Jesus said to her, 'Give me a drink.' For His disciples had gone away into the city to buy food. The Samaritan woman therefore said to Him, 'How is it that you, being a Jew, ask me for a drink since I am a Samaritan woman?' (For Jews have no dealings with Samaritans). Jesus answered and said to her, 'If you knew the gift of God, and who it is that asks you for a drink, you would have asked him, and he would have given you living water'" (John 4:7-10).

Jesus violated significant social norms by not only talking with a woman, but a Samaritan woman at that. Contextually, he knew that she had a number of adulterous relationships, but did not condemn her. He focused on her needs. He had the gift of "living water" that would meet her true and deepest needs. In this way, Jesus modeled to

his disciples that all people are of great value, and He rejected cultural norms that would prevent leaders from meeting the needs of anyone and helping them grow.

Citing Graham (1991), Northouse (2007) states that "where inequalities and social injustices exist, a servant leader tries to remove them" (p. 83). While it has been said that Jesus was meek, this should in no way be construed as weakness. As a servant leader, Jesus worked to expose the injustice and hypocrisy of the day. This is illustrated in the following passage.

The teachers of the law and the Pharisees brought in a woman caught in adultery. They made her stand before the group and said to Jesus, "Teacher, this woman was caught in the act of adultery. In the Law of Moses commanded us to stone such women. Now what do you say?" When they kept on questioning him, he straightened up and said to them "if anyone of you is without sin, let him be the first to throw a stone at her." At this, those who heard began to go away one at a time, the older ones first, until only Jesus was left, with the woman still standing there. Jesus straightened up and asked her, "woman, where are they? Has no one condemned you?" "No one, sir," she said. "Then neither do I condemn you," Jesus declared. "Go now and leave your life of sin." (John 8:3-5, 7, 9-11).

While the Pharisees were motivated by their lust for trapping Jesus. (Todd, 2004)

He stood up against the injustice and hypocrisy of the rulers, while at the same time meeting the woman's need of forgiveness and admonition for her to change her behavior. Blanchard and Hodges (2005) posited that "forgiveness is how servant leaders respond to mistakes and errors" (p. 76). Blanchard and Hodges also note that Jesus established forgiveness as a fundamental aspect to his leadership style, as Jesus even forgave those who crucified him.

In terms of modeling humility, Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) note that Jesus' washing of the disciples feet recorded in the Gospel of John clearly illustrates Jesus' modeling of servant leadership. Discussing the cultural norms of Palestine at the time, Sendjaya and Sarros, referring to Ford (1991), suggest that washing the feet of others was

one of the lowest and most insulting tasks and suitable only for servants. The authors state, "In the absence of the host's servant, it was common for the lowest-ranking guest to wash the feet of the others" (p. 59).

John Maxwell (2004) characterized Jesus as the greatest leader of all time and summarized Jesus' leadership stating, "You don't give to get. You give because it is the right thing to do. Want to be the greatest? Then become the servant of others" (p. ix). These are a few of the many examples which clearly demonstrate that Jesus both taught and modeled the principles of servant leadership to his disciples, thus establishing a 2000 year historical record of Jesus as a servant leader.

Building a Servant Leadership Theoretical Model

Philosophical Grounding

It is important to note that Greenleaf was significantly influenced by his religious roots as a Quaker, as well as by his Judeo-Christian culture (Greenleaf, 1998a). Greenleaf wrote, "The idea of 'servant' is deep in our Judeo-Christian heritage... Yet, after all these millennia, there is ample evidence that ours is a low-caring society when judged by what is reasonable and possible with the resources at hand" (p. 22).

Robert Greenleaf's initial idea for the servant leader stemmed from a short non-fictional story by Hermann Hesse entitled, *Journey to the East*. In this journey, a band of men traveled for personal growth as commissioned by The League, and they relied significantly on their servant Leo. Leo not only attended to the menial tasks as a servant, but he also provided strength of spirit through songs and inspiration for the men on their quest. After a while, Leo disappeared, and as a result, the men quarreled and lost unity. Hesse (Narrator and main character) neglected his duties and eventually deserted the

journey and The League. As the story concludes, many years later Hesse discovered that Leo was actually the great and noble leader of The League, who, eventually pardons Hesse for his desertion. Hannigan (2005) argued that there is a silence in the literature regarding a necessary critique of the Leo character. While the literature hails Leo as a servant leader, Hannigan suggested that because Leo abandoned his fellow travelers, which caused a disruption and the eventual demise of the mission, Leo abdicated his role as leader and therefore is a poor example of a servant leader.

Serve first through leadership. Through the Hesse story, Greenleaf (1977) initiates a "new" moral principle in which he states that followers "will freely respond only to individuals who are chosen as leaders because they are proven and trusted as servants" (p.5). Greenleaf further develops the premise that a servant leader is one who is a servant first and a leader second. The notion of being a servant first reveals that the servant leader's motivation is working to meet the needs of followers. Developing Greenleaf's writing further, Vaill (1998) states, "As I understand him, he is not asking, what service can you render as a leader? But rather, what leadership can you exercise as a servant?" (1998, p. xii). Service first is an overarching theme of servant leadership and is the backdrop for the critical principles of servant leaders. Rinehart (1998) states that

We don't naturally gravitate to this type of leadership, but it happens when we give up our own interests to genuinely look out for the well being of those we are called to serve. An entirely different set of assumptions undergirds this model. (1998, p. 37)

Russell and Stone (2002) state that "servant leadership takes place when leaders assume the position of servant in their relationship with fellow workers" (p. 145). Peter Block (1993), however, places a caveat on the notion of service. He cautions that when leaders attempt to take care of the led, there is a tendency to take on too much of the

burden for their personal responsibilities. This communicates that those on the lowest levels of an organization are not able to care for themselves.

Sharing power. Another philosophical axiom of servant leadership is the idea of sharing power (Block, 1993; Braye, 2000; Covey, 1990; De Pree, 1987; Greenleaf, 1998b; Irving, 2005; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Rinehart, 1998; Russell & Stone, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Spears, 2002; Vaill, 1998). Peter Block (1993) states that "strong leadership does not have within itself the capability to create the fundamental changes our organizations require" (p. 13). Block believes this is due to the misconception that accountability and control must go hand in hand. He further states that, "we can be accountable and give control to those closer to the work, operating from the belief that in this way the work is better served" (, p. 18).

Ken Blanchard (1998) addressed this issue of power sharing by proffering that the common hierarchy in an organization is similar to that of a pyramid. The power and control rests at the top of the organization (CEO, Presidents and V.Ps.) while the bottom of the organization are the employees who provide the goods and services. He illustrated the nature of the problem as being one where workers tend to believe that they work for their boss, thus spending their time and resources channeling up the pyramid. However, Blanchard suggests flipping the pyramid upside down so that those resources flow up to the workers who are most able to respond to the needs of customers, who are now at the top of the pyramid.

Kouzes and Posner (2003) dealt with power sharing by stating that "[effective] leaders accept and act on the paradox of power: *we become most powerful when we give our own power away*" (p. 284). With such power transactions, leaders demonstrate

confidence in the led believing that the led will use their influence toward attaining the organizational vision. The led, now empowered, have a sense of greater purpose and, hopefully, greater job satisfaction. While power does come with position within organizational hierarchy, the perception of the led's power to influence cannot be understated; "When leaders and constituents are willing to be mutually influenced by one another, everyone's level of influence increases" (p.288).

Characteristics of Servant Leadership

To build a servant leader model, it is important to have a clear understanding of the philosophy that gives foundation for establishing characteristics that typify servant leadership. The following are the most common servant leader characteristics identified in the literature.

Ten characteristics of the servant leader. Based on a compilation of Greenleaf's work, Larry Spears (1998), CEO of Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership, identified ten characteristics of servant leadership. The ten characteristics are (a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community.

Because of their significance, these ten characteristics are defined and developed below by Spears (p. 4-6):

1. Listening: The servant-leader seeks to identify the will of a group and helps clarify that will. He or she seeks to listen receptively to what is being said (and not said!). Listening also encompasses getting in touch with one's inner voice.
2. Empathy: People need to be accepted and recognized for their special and unique spirits. One assumes the good intentions of co-workers and does not reject them as people, even while refusing to accept their behavior or performance.
3. Healing: One of the greatest strengths of servant-leadership is the potential for healing oneself and others. Many people have broken spirits and have suffered from a variety of emotional hurts. Although this is a part of being human, servant-leaders recognized that they have an opportunity to "help make whole" those with whom they come in contact with.
4. Awareness: General awareness, and especially self-awareness, strengthens the servant-leader. Making a commitment to foster awareness can be scary-- You never know what you may discover. Awareness also aids one in understanding issues involving ethics and values.
5. Persuasion: The servant-leader seeks to convince others, rather than coerce compliance. This particular element offers one of the clearest distinctions between the traditional authoritarian model and that of servant-leadership.
6. Conceptualization: Servant-leaders seek to nurture their abilities to "dream great dreams." The ability to look at a problem (or an organization) from a conceptualizing perspective mean that one must think beyond day-to-day realities.
7. Foresight: Closely related to conceptualization, the ability to foresee the likely outcome of a situation is hard to define, but easy to identify. One knows it when one sees it.
8. Stewardship: Robert Greenleaf's view of all institutions was one in which CEOs, staff, and trustees all played significant roles in holding their institutions in trust for the greater good of society.
9. Commitment to the growth of people: Servant-leaders believe that people have an intrinsic value beyond their tangible contributions as workers. As such, the servant-leader is deeply committed to the growth of every individual within his or her institution.
10. Building community: Servant leadership suggests that true community can be created among those who work in businesses and other institutions.

Spears (1998) conceded that this framework is only a start and by no means an exhaustive list of servant leadership characteristics. The literature demonstrates many theorists who have further developed and defined Spears' ten characteristics.

Laub's six characteristics of servant leadership. James Laub (1999), using the Delphi method, developed a list of characteristics that would define servant leadership. Laub's list of characteristics is: (a) Values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. Based on the six characteristics, Laub developed the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment, and this assessment is discussed in greater detail in the next chapter.

The five practices of exemplary leadership. In their seminal work of identifying the best practices of leadership based on research of personal best narratives, Kouzes and Posner (2002) identified the five practices and ten commitments (see Table 1) of exemplary leadership. The five practices are included because of their similarity with the characteristics of servant leadership (Russell, 2001a). Russell also argued that because there was not an adequate means to measure servant leadership at the individual level, he used the LPI as a proxy to measure servant leadership. Maxwell (2004) writes that "each one of these five practices finds a parallel in the life of Jesus" (p. x). Finally, Barry Posner agreed that servant leadership is a philosophical aspect for the five practices of exemplary leadership (personal communication, May 12, 2006).

Table 1.
The Five Practices

<i>Five Practices</i>	<i>Ten Commitments</i>
1. Model the Way	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Find your voice by clarifying your personal values. . Set the example by aligning actions with shared values.
2. Inspire a Shared Vision	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities. . Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations.
3. Challenge the Process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Search for opportunities by seeking innovative way to change, grow, and improve. . Experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes.
4. Enable Others to Act	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust. . Strengthen others by sharing power and discretion.
5. Encourage the Heart	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence. . Celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community.

From *The Leadership Challenge* (p. 22), by J.M. Kouzes and B.Z. Posner 2002, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Copyright 2002 by John Wiley & Sons. Adapted with permission.

Functional and accompanying attributes. Using an exhaustive literature review, Russell and Stone (2002) compiled a list (see Table 2) of functional attributes and accompanying attributes. The functional attributes represent those attributes that are most commonly featured in the literature and that operationalize leadership actions. The accompanying attributes are characteristics, that when used, facilitate the use of the functional attributes. Accompanying attributes are not second to functional attributes, but

provide a supporting context for applying the functional attributes (2001a). Finally, Russell and Stone (2002) note that their twenty attributes, in one way or another, reflect or refine the list developed by Spears (1999).

Table 2:
Servant leadership attributes

Functional attributes	Accompanying attributes
1. Vision	1. Communication
2. Honesty	2. Credibility
3. Integrity	3. Competence
4. Trust	4. Stewardship
5. Service	5. Visibility
6. Modeling	6. Influence
7. Pioneering	7. Persuasion
8. Appreciation of others	8. Listening
9. Empowerment	9. Encouragement
	10. Teaching
	11. Delegation

From "A review of servant leadership attributes: developing a practical model," by R.F. Russell and G.S. Stone, 2002, *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 23(3) p. 147. Copyright 2002 by MCB UP Limited. Adapted with permission.

Patterson's servant leadership model. Patterson (2003) noted that servant leadership is a natural continuation of transformational theory. In reference to Kuhn (1996), Patterson noted that when a theory fails to explain phenomena for which it was expected to illuminate, it is time for a new theory. Patterson identified servant leadership as that new theory. Her theoretical model identified that servant leaders are directed by

their virtues. Patterson states that "the servant leader (a) demonstrates agapao love, (b) acts with humility, (c) is altruistic, (d) is visionary for the followers, (e) is trusting, (f) empowers followers, and (g) is serving" (p. 8).

Differentiating Servant and Transformational Leadership

In order for servant leadership to gain in broad application, it is helpful to understand it as a separate and distinct leadership approach. Transformational leadership is arguably the most popular leadership style in the current literature. Northouse (2007) cites Lowe and Gardner's (2001) content analysis research of *Leadership Quarterly* during the 1990s and found that 34% of the articles were about transformational or charismatic leadership. Additionally, Northouse identifies servant leadership as a sub-heading under ethical leadership along with Burn's transformational leadership. Northouse devotes thirty pages to transformational leadership; by contrast, he devotes seven paragraphs to servant leadership. Citing Avolio (1999), Northouse states, "Transformational leadership is morally uplifting" and that "this emphasis sets the transformational approach apart from all other approaches to leadership because it suggests that leadership has a moral dimension" (p. 192). Beazley and Beggs (2002) suggest that servant leadership is really a sub-component of transformational leadership. Because of this confusion in the literature, it is important to differentiate transformational leadership from servant leadership.

Transformational Leadership Defined

As mentioned above, transformational leadership theory has received a tremendous amount of research and theory adaptation in the past 20 years. Northouse (2007) identifies that transformational leadership was first labeled by Downton (1973),

but was brought to significance by Burns (1978). In this seminal work, Burns defines leadership as "the reciprocal process of mobilizing, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers" (p. 425).

As identified by Smith, Montagno, and Kuzmenko (2004) "transformational leadership occurs when a leader inspires followers to share a vision, empowering them to achieve the vision, and provides resources necessary for developing their personal potential" (p. 80). Transformational leadership moves beyond a transaction or exchange and toward a set of behaviors. These behaviors are Idealized (or charismatic) Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration or commonly known as the four I's (Bass, 1997, 1998, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass & Avolio, 1994) .

Idealized influence. This behavior is also known as charismatic leadership. These types of leaders are role models for the followers. The "leaders are admired, respected and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3). This type of rapport develops not based on manipulation, but by considering the needs of the led. Bass (1998) develops this by saying that "leaders are endowed by their followers as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination" (p.5). Additionally, Bass asserts that the transformational leader is selective in using power and never out of selfish ambition or personal gain.

Inspirational motivation. This behavior facilitates the notion of shared vision. The leader is enthusiastic toward the work and challenges followers toward meeting clearly

communicated tasks that drive toward the organizational vision. Bass (1998) states that the leader helps the member to see or "envision attractive future states" (p.5). The leader provides the shared expectations that the followers can be committed to and excited about.

Intellectual stimulation. The banner of intellectual stimulation is creativity. The free flow of ideas without judgment or critique is highly encouraged. Followers enjoy an environment where assumptions are challenged, but where mistakes are not cause for immediate dismissal. The problem solving process enjoys the input of ideas from all followers. Bass (1998) states that "followers are encouraged to try new approaches, and their ideas are not criticized simply because they differ from the leaders' ideas" (p.5). The transformational leader seeks to motivate the led to perform beyond their expectations (Yukl, 2002).

Individualized consideration. In this final behavior to Bass' model, the leader's attention is on the individual. Bass (1998) states that "transformational leaders pay special attention to each individual's needs for achievement and growth by acting as coach or mentor" (p. 6). The leader understands the challenges of each individual follower and removes obstacles to their success. Through communication, the leader and member create a shared development plan for the member.

Pseudotransformational Leadership

While the four I's have had significant exposure in the literature, transformational leadership theory has come into some criticism because of the significant influence of narcissistic charismatic leaders. Two types of transformational leaders were emerging: socialized and personalized. Socialized leaders worked to serve the interest of the

collective. Personalized leaders, however, severed their own personal interests (Bass, 1998). In reference to Howell and House (1992) and McClelland (1975), Bass wrote, "Personalized leaders rely heavily on manipulation, threat, and punishment, and show disregard for the established institutional procedures and for the rights and feelings of others" (p. 15). Such leaders have been described as "dark leaders" or on the "Dark Side" (Babiak & Hare, 2006; Clements & Washbush, 1999; Conger, 1990; Rinehart, 1998) and use their charisma as narcissistic means to accomplish their personal goals and agendas through abusing power. Any perceived notion toward meeting the needs of the led are fundamentally motivated by narcissistic behavior (Maccoby, 2004, January; McIntosh & Rima, 2004). In response to such concerns, Bass (1998) conceded to Burns's (1978) view that transformational leaders needed to be morally uplifting. As such, Bass stated, "I have come to agree with Burns. Personalized transformational leaders are *pseudotransformational*" (Bass, p. 15). In essence, Bass has removed the opportunity for critique of the idealized influence of dark leaders from the transformational model by stating that true transformational leaders have motives that transcend self for the greater benefit of the greater society and/or the goals and mission of the organization. In other words, Bass reasons that the pseudotransformational leader is really a non-leader and a non-leader cannot be a transformational leader.

Servant and Transformational Leadership Compared and Contrasted

Comparisons. In their comparative analysis of transformational and servant leadership, Stone, Russell and Paterson (2003) identified the many similar attributes between the two leadership styles (see figure 1). Using a comparison of functional and accompanying attributes from both leadership styles, they proffered that the similarities

might be explained in that both styles had relationship-centered frameworks, such as influence, vision, trust, respect, credibility, risk-sharing, delegation, integrity, and modeling (Stone et al., 2003). Additionally, they stated, "Both transformational leadership and servant leadership emphasized the importance of appreciating and valuing people, listening, mentoring, or teaching and empowering followers. In fact, the theories are probably most similar in their emphasis upon individualized consideration and appreciation of followers" (p. 354).

In another study (Smith et al., 2004) using the functional and accompanying attributes of servant leadership reported by Laub (1999) and the same transformational attributes above, the findings showed even greater similarities. This analysis concluded that many of the transformational and servant leader attributes overlapped.

Transformational leadership attributes	Servant leadership attributes
<i>Idealized (charismatic) influence</i>	Influence
Vision	<i>Vision</i>
Trust	<i>Trust</i>
Respect	Credibility and competence
Risk-sharing	Delegation
Integrity	<i>Honesty and integrity</i>
Modeling	<i>Modeling</i> and visibility
	<i>Service</i>
<i>Inspirational motivation</i>	
Commitment to goals	Stewardship
Communication	Communication
Enthusiasm	
<i>Intellectual stimulation</i>	
Rationality	Persuasion
Problem solving	<i>Pioneering</i>
<i>Individualized consideration</i>	<i>Appreciation of others</i>
Personal attention	Encouragement
Mentoring	Teaching
Listening	Listening
Empowerment	<i>Empowerment</i>

Note: Functional attributes in italic print – accompanying attributes in regular print

Figure 1. Comparison of attributes. From "Transformational versus servant leadership: a difference in leader focus," by G.S. Stone, R.F. Russell and K Paterson, 2003, *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 25(4) p. 353. Copyright 2004 by Emerald Group Publishing. Reprinted with permission.

Contrasts. The literature is clear that the two styles have overlapping similarities; however, Stone, et al (2003) found that the most significant contrast is found in the focus of each leader. Noting that both of the leadership constructs demonstrate concerted interest toward the led, "The overriding focus of the servant leader is upon service to their followers. The transformational leader has a greater concern for getting followers to engage in and support organizational objectives" (p. 354). Stone, et al concluded that "the extent to which the leader is able to shift the primary focus of leadership from the organization to the follower is the distinguishing factor in classifying leaders as either transformational or servant leaders" (p.354). The focus of the servant leader is on service to the followers. The organizational goals are secondary. However, the underlying assumption is that these goals will be accomplished more effectively, by a better-served follower set.

Smith et al, (2004) came to somewhat similar conclusions and affirmed that despite the similarities, servant leadership is a unique leadership style. Their analysis confirmed that transformational leaders are more focused on tasks and goals for accomplishing the organizational vision. Smith et al. also found that the most significant difference is that servant leadership, as defined by Laub (1999) "does not substantially account for the behaviors of the intellectual stimulation dimension" (p. 84). Specifically, the authors claim that risk-taking is not explicit in servant leader behavior. Considering contextual factors, Smith et al. prescribe servant leadership to those organizations that are more mature and stable, while prescribing transformational leadership to those organizations whose culture is more entrepreneurial and aggressive.

In summary, transformational and servant leadership have a number of overlapping functional and accompanying attributes. This means that they are both visionaries, role models, empowering of others, etc. The difference turns on where the focus of the leader is. Servant leaders focus on service to the led, while transformational leaders inspire the led toward the organizational goals. As stated above, Patterson (2003) posited that it is time for a paradigm shift from transformational leadership toward servant leadership.

Leadership and Performance

Job Satisfaction and Performance

Objective results have become the Holy Grail for participatory researchers. The pursuit for results has been primarily focused on two significant effects: job satisfaction and productivity (McGregor, 1966c; Miller & Monge, 1986; Nehrbass, 1979; Ostroff, 1992; Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

In his seminal work linking labor morale and job satisfaction to job performance, McGregor (1966c) suggests that if all financial concerns and rewards are equal, workers are most motivated by their personal volition, desire for growth and improved status. Essentially, productivity increases indirectly as employee satisfaction is increased. Dissenting from this assumption, others (Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Ostroff, 1992) believe that there is little empirical evidence to support the direct correlation between satisfaction and productivity.

Bennis (1997) stated that, "Great leaders are concerned with people, dollars, and ideas" (p. 130). Bennis further suggested that the synergy of great people and the use of

financial resources administered in ways that allow efficient systems to release the shackles of bureaucratic constraints would result in successful organizations.

Organizational Leadership and Performance

As previously mentioned, performance has typically been a measurement of job satisfaction and productivity. Pritzker (2001) identified that the literature points to these two primary concepts in terms of subjective and objective measurements. A subjective performance measurement might involve followers' perception of their organizational leaders' performance. Objective performance measures might involve the organization's overall sales volume. Other researchers (McGregor, 1966c; Miller & Monge, 1986; Nehrbass, 1979; Ostroff, 1992; Vroom & Yetton, 1973) include job satisfaction as a performance measure. Noting that the majority of research linking leadership to performance is measured subjectively, Pritzker stated, "Criteria based on the *organization's perspective* [italics added] are also necessary to assess leader effectiveness. These organizational performance measures are typically objective, financially based data such as profitability, rate of return on investment, stock price...etc" (p. 10).

Servant Leadership and Performance

There is little research in the literature correlating servant leadership to the above standard of objective performance. Russell and Stone (2002) state that "worthwhile research might determine if the values of servant leaders correlate with excellent organizational performance" (p. 153). As is common in the servant leadership literature, the Russell and Stone Servant Leader model (see figure 2) links servant leadership subjectively via organizational culture and employee attitudes and behavior toward

improved performance. While the literature is lacking direct correlation between leadership and objective performance measurement, there are several bright indicators in the literature that support a hypothesis for positive correlation.

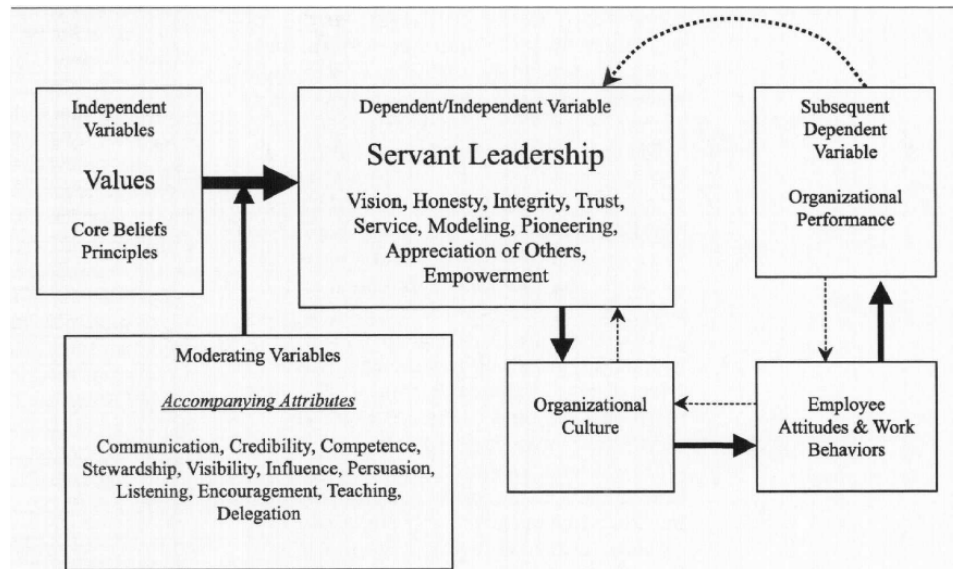


Figure 2. *Servant leader model 2*. From "A review of servant leadership attributes: developing a practical model," by R.F. Russell and G.S. Stone, 2002, *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 23(3) p. 147. Copyright 2002 by MCB UP. Reprinted with permission.

The Fortune 100 Best Companies. Fortune Magazine produces the *100 Best Companies to Work For in America* list. This prestigious list contains some of the highest performing companies. In reference to companies on the list, Ruschman (2002) quotes Levering (one of the author's of the "100 Best") by stating that the companies on the list "are companies that simultaneously deliver outstanding service and financial returns while being a great place to work" (p. 125).

Ruschman (2002) points to three companies on the list in particular, because they have formally embraced servant leadership within their organizational culture: Southwest Airlines (#4, \$5-billion airline firm), TDIndustries (#6, \$170-million construction firm) and Synovus Financial Corporation (#8, \$13.7 billion-financial services firm).

Another servant lead organization, W. L. Gore and Associates has ranked on the same list for 10 consecutive years. In 2005, the firm ranked second overall and in 2005 and 2006 the company ranked 5th for medium-sized companies, and ranked 10th overall. W. L. Gore and Associate is a polymer polytetrafluoroethylene technology and manufacturing firm with \$1.84 billion in sales. It has 7,500 associates with 45 plants worldwide (W. L. Gore & Associates, n.d.). These firms are dedicated to the servant leadership model and they are established, successful and competitive firms in their industries.

Level 5 leaders. In his research titled *Good to Great: Why some companies make the leap and others don't*, Jim Collins (2001) wrote about six significant factors that separated good companies from truly great companies. Great companies are defined as those publicly held firms which had at or below average stock market returns for 15 years and then demonstrated a transition that culminated in stock market returns three times the market sustained for 15 years. This criterion netted 11 companies that included Abbott, Circuit City, Gillette, and Walgreens among others. One of the six factors in the success of these firms included what Collins refers to as "Level 5 Leadership."

The Level 5 leaders had many characteristics, but what stood out to Collins (2001) and the research team was the paradoxical style in which these leaders led. Specifically, Collins states, "Level 5 leaders are a study in duality: modest and willful, humble and fearless" (p. 21). One might argue that this is a perfect description of how Jesus led.

Patterson, Redmer and Stone (2003, October) argued that due to the many overlapping characteristics, level 5 leaders resembled servant leaders. They proffered that

the level 5 leaders focused on the "who" rather than the "what," which resembles the key differentiation between transformational and servant leaders. Patterson et al. also identified another key overlapping indicator of setting up others for even greater success. They stated, "The Level 5 leader desires success of the company and others after his tenure as chief executive officer is over. Also, while being in the leadership position, the Level 5 leader is quick to give others credit for success" (p. 9).

Finally, Patterson et al. (2003) identified what some presume to be the Achilles heel of servant leadership, by stating, "An issue that needs to be considered is if servant leadership displays qualities similar to the professional resolve qualities of the Level 5 leader" (p. 10). The "professional resolve" issue might be what keeps authors like Northouse (2007) limiting servant leadership to seven paragraphs in his 395-page textbook on leadership theory. Collins (2001) confirmed that the research team debated what label to use for such good to great leaders. He states that they wrestled with terms such as "servant leader" and "selfless executive," but the team was concerned that such a label communicates weakness (p. 30). In referring to Braham (1999), Patterson et al. stated, "when followers recognize that their leaders truly follow the ideals of servant leadership and the principles of Level 5 leadership, they are apparently more likely to move in the direction of servants and Level 5 leaders themselves, which decreases customer churn and increases long-term profitability and success" (p. 19).

Community College Performance Measures. In this study, performance was measured from the California community college's objective performance perspective. Because of the diverse nature of the community college charter, there are many ways to objectively measure performance. While the literature focuses greatly on merit-based

measures at the individual level of faculty and student performance, this study focused on organizational level measurements that reflected the various options below.

In California, community colleges provide education, vocational programs and transfer programs. Assembly Bill 1471 (passed in 2004) recommended four areas for performance measurement as presented on the California state chancellor's website:

Student progress and achievement in terms of degrees/certificates earned and transfer to four-year institutions; Student progress and achievement in vocational and workforce development courses and programs; Pre-collegiate improvement (Basic Skills and ESL); Participation rates in community college systems as compared to the state's adult population (ARCC, n.d.).

As of the writing of this work, the final report regarding college recommendations regarding the above framework and performance data has not been supplied by the colleges.

Matula (2001) reported that the state of Texas identified nine performance measure for community colleges that include (p. 10):

1. Percentage of course completers
2. Number of degrees or certificates awarded
3. Percentage of students who pass a licensure exam
4. Number of students who transfer to a public university
5. Percentage of remedial students who pass the Texas Academic Skills Program (TASP)
6. Percentage of students enrolled who are academically disadvantaged
7. Percentage of minority students enrolled
8. Percentage of contact hours taught by full-time faculty
9. Percentage of administrative costs as a percentage of total expenditures

Myers (2005) examined the relationship between individual transformational leadership styles of community college presidents as well as the individual leadership styles of the same colleges shared governance teams using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X). Additionally, Myers was interested in finding any correlation between the similarity of leadership styles and the performance of each community college. Myers chose the seven performance measures (detailed in the next chapter) because the performance data selected “represented areas in which the California legislature has given members of the governance team at each college authority and involvement, thus making performance in each of these areas directly related to the effectiveness of administration and shared governance team” (2005, p. 53).

The shared governance teams included organizational representatives from most organizational constituents of the community college, including students. As such, this study adopted Myers (2005) standard for measuring organizational performance.

Myers (2005) found that the college president's scores were more transformational than the shared governance team leaders, and that the shared governance teams' were more transactional. Additionally, Myers states that "multiple regression revealed only a slight, non-significant statistical relationship between transformational, transactional and the combination of styles and the effect on college performance (p. 81-82).

Because Myers' study has many similarities with this study, it was important to note the differences. First, this study focused on leadership at the organizational level, whereas Myers measured individuals. Second, this study invited all employees of the individual colleges to participate rather than individual executives and shared governance

teams. Thirdly, Myers used the MLQ 5X to measure transformational leadership where as this study used the OLA to measure servant leadership, which, as stated above, might be more conducive to mature and stable organizations.

Servant Leadership Empirical Research

With the advancement of servant leadership theory and models, researchers (Braye, 2000; Collins, 2001; Dennis, 2004; Drury, 2004; Herbert, 2003; Irving, 2005; Laub, 1999; Page & Wong, 2000; Russell, 2001a) have responded to the call for further empirical study.

Laub (1999) worked to define servant leadership by identifying behavioral characteristics of servant leaders and developing an instrument that would accurately measure those characteristics as servant organizations. Using a Delphi-panel, Laub produced a 66-item survey, Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), which measures both organizational level servant leadership and individual job satisfaction. Laub found high correlation between the subscales of (a) valuing people, (b) developing people, (c) building community, (d) displaying authenticity, (e) providing leadership and (f) sharing leadership. The instrument's reliability estimate is .98. Laub's research is significant because it provided researchers a tool to begin moving from philosophical and anecdotal research to empirical and quantitative.

With a clear understanding of what a servant organization was, Laub (2003) set out to understand "what servant leadership is not" (p.2). Laub concluded that leadership paradigms could be identified in organizations based on OLA scores. Using the A-P-S Model, organizations are either (a) Autocratic, (b) Paternalistic or (c) Servant. Laub posited that Autocratic organizations would demonstrate little, if any, servant leadership

characteristics, while Paternalistic organizations would demonstrate a various mix of servant leader characteristics. Finally, the Servant Organization would exhibit servant leader characteristics both “present within the leadership and throughout the organization” (p.6). In addition to this A-P-S hierarchy, Laub further suggested that higher OLA scores indicated both healthier organizations increased presence of the six servant leader characteristics.

Braye (2000) used the OLA (Laub, 1999) to compare belief and practice of servant leadership between top leaders in women–led organizations to that of successful male servant leaders as a benchmark. Braye's findings demonstrated that there was no significant difference between top female leaders and that of the male servant leader benchmark. Braye concluded that top women leaders have a natural tendency toward a strong belief and practice of servant leadership, which might give women an edge in male dominated work and market places.

Herbert (2003) conducted research using the OLA (Laub, 1999) to understand employee perception of servant leaders in organizations and to understand any relationship between perception and job satisfaction both intrinsically and extrinsically. Herbert used the OLA to measure both servant leadership and intrinsic job satisfaction. Herbert used the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale to determine extrinsic job satisfaction. Using a convenience sample with 136 usable responses from 12 different profit and non-profit organizations, the study found that there is a positive and linear relationship between both intrinsic and extrinsic perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction ($r = .75, p. <001$). Dr. Herbert summarizes by stating that “the greater the perception of servant leadership in organizations the greater the intrinsic job

satisfaction of the employees" (p. 102). Whereas Herbert strived to understand the relationship between employee perception of servant leaders and job satisfaction, this study endeavored to understand the relationship between servant leadership and organizational performance.

Drury (2004) was concerned with the relationship between servant leadership, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Using the OLA (Laub, 1999) to measure organizational servant leadership, the results showed that again, there is a statistically significant linear relationship between employee perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction. However, contrary to the literature, Drury found that there was a statistically significant inverse relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment. Drury's research highlighted that it was the hourly workers from a non-traditional education who differed significantly from faculty on organizational commitment.

Dennis (2004) developed the first valid and reliable servant leadership assessment to measure at the individual level. Embracing Patterson's (2003) servant leadership theoretical model (see above), Dennis created the Servant Leadership Assessment Survey (SALI) using Patterson's seven servant leadership components. Additionally, Dennis used a partial Delphi panel to develop survey items. After field testing with 300 participants and several factor analysis runs, the results showed that the SALI was able to measure five of Patterson's seven servant leadership constructs, which included Love, Empowerment, Vision, Humility and Trust.

Irving (2005) focused on the relationship between team effectiveness at both the organizational and individual level with the variables of servant leadership and job

satisfaction. Irving used three instruments as a means for collecting data: (a) Organizational Leadership Assessment (Laub, 1999) was used to measure servant leadership at the organizational level and job satisfaction at the individual level; (b) The Servant Leadership Assessment (Dennis, 2004) was used to measure servant leadership at the individual level; (c) The Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (Larson & LaFasto, 2001) was used to measure team effectiveness at the team level. Irving sampled a U.S. division from an international nonprofit organization. The study had a sample of 729 participants, and found that, indeed, there is a statistically significant and linear relationship between team effectiveness and the variables of servant leadership and job satisfaction at both individual and organizational levels. Most significantly, Irving's study showed that there is a correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and team effectiveness at the team level ($p = .000$, and $r = .522$).

Summary

The research literature on leadership supports a wide variety of leadership theories and models. Some are paradigm shifting, while others have been supplanted by more dominant paradigms. This literature has identified some of the more significant leadership theories and models of the 20th century as valuable pillars of leadership theory.

Not nearly as dominant as many of the other models listed in this review, servant leadership is an emerging leadership paradigm. This review showed that historically, Jesus Christ was the first to teach and model servant leadership. Based on Greenleaf's religious Quaker background, it is not surprising that he found the "servant as leader" concept from reading Herman Hesse's *Journey to the East*. In the years since, servant

leader theory has moved from a philosophical and primarily anecdotal movement to a theoretical model. Resulting from Greenleaf's work, Larry Spear's (1996) identified ten preliminary characteristics, which provided a foundation for further research in defining a servant leader model. The servant leadership characteristics allowed researchers to refine and differentiate between servant and other leadership styles, such as transformational leadership, thus allowing for the development of assessment instruments.

Assessment instruments such as the OLA (Laub, 1999) and SLAI (Dennis, 2004) have added greatly toward answering the Northouse (2004) call for more empirical research. However, the empirical research to date only measures self and follower perceptions (subjective) of servant leader effectiveness. While this level of research is necessary for an emerging theory, there seems to be a need for more quantitative and qualitative empirical research to find out if there is a correlation linking servant leadership with improved (organizationally perceived) objective performance. This exploratory research endeavored to identify what, if any, relation exists between organizational servant leadership and organizationally perceived performance.

There are many significant leadership approaches that could be used for this study; however, servant leadership is chosen for several reasons. First, servant leadership seemed to more closely associate with the principles of collaborative leadership. Second, there is a call for more empirical research on servant leadership. Finally, there seems to be a void in the literature correlating servant leadership with objective results in the CCC system.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology that was used to determine if there is a relationship between servant leadership and performance in five community colleges in the state of California. The structure of this chapter begins with the design of the study, and then discusses the study's population and sample, the instrumentation, the survey administration, the variables, the data collection procedures, and finally, the data analysis procedures. The research questions and associated hypotheses are used to form the foundation for the methodology chosen in this section. Research questions help drive a study to ensure that the answers fulfill the purpose of the study.

Design of the Study

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this exploratory study was to determine if collaborative values, in the form of servant leadership, exist in five California community colleges. If so, is there any relationship between organizational servant leadership and college performance? The independent variable was organizational servant leadership as measured by the OLA and the dependent variable was performance as measured by seven performance values, described below.

Study Population and Sample

Description of Population

The population for this study was approximately 3,418 employees of five California community colleges. The number of employees for each college was derived

from the CCCCO data mart database. The employees are sorted by college and number of employees at each college as shown in Table 3.

Table 3.
Community College Employee Population

Community Colleges	No. of Employees
1	537
2	1,125
3	791
4	512
5	453
Total =	3,418

Employees of the CCC system can be categorized into several grouping. For analysis convenience, these employee groups (administrators, faculty and classified) were combined and coded into the OLA instrument. Administrators include two employee groups: educational administrators and classified administrators. These are employees with general administrative and non-curriculum related responsibilities. Faculty includes two employee groups: tenured/tenured-track faculty and temporary faculty. Classified employees include two groups: classified professional and classified support. These employees are individual contributors who provide administrative, maintenance, and facilities support. Classified positions are not managers, faculty, student hires or temporary positions as defined by Title V of the California Education Code.

Description of Sample

In this study, the sample was taken from the entire population of all employees from each of the colleges in Table 3. To achieve a P value of $\leq .05$ in this study, each of the colleges needed to have an acceptable response rate. The minimum respondent requirement was different for each college. The college N range was from 453 to 1,125. Therefore, the minimum respondent rate needed to be between 205 and 285 from each college relative to each college's total employee count (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970, p. 609). Additionally, each employee population group needed to have a "fair distribution" among the four employee population groups (Laub, 2006).

Instrumentation

Organizational Leadership Assessment Instrument

Relying on the Delphi panel, Laub (1999) established a definition for servant led organization and six characteristics that would model the definition. The Delphi is a technique used to gain consensus from group experts in a given field by providing facilitated, but individual, responses to questions (Robson, 2002). Laub chose a 14 member Delphi panel of leadership experts, some of whom included Larry Spears, The Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership; Jim Kouzes, Co-author of the Leadership Challenge; and Tom Peters, Tom Peters Company. Using several iterations, the Delphi panel produced six characteristics and eighteen accompanying attributes of a servant leader (see figure 3).

Servant Leadership is ...	
an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader. Servant leadership promotes the valuing and development of people, the building of community, the practice of authenticity, the providing of leadership for the good of those led and the sharing of power and status for the common good of each individual, the total organization and those served by the organization.	
The Servant Leader ...	
Values People	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By believing in people • By serving other's needs before his or her own • By receptive, non-judgmental listening
Develops People	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By providing opportunities for learning and growth • By modeling appropriate behavior • By building up others through encouragement and affirmation
Builds Community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By building strong personal relationships • By working collaboratively with others • By valuing the differences of others
Displays Authenticity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By being open and accountable to others • By a willingness to learn from others • By maintaining integrity and trust
Provides Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By envisioning the future • By taking initiative • By clarifying goals
Shares Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By facilitating a shared vision • By sharing power and releasing control • By sharing status and promoting others
The Servant Organization is ...	
... an organization in which the characteristics of servant leadership are displayed through the organizational culture and are valued and practiced by the leadership and workforce.	

Figure 3. The six characteristics of a servant leader as developed from Laub's (1999) Delphi method. From "Assessing the servant organization: development of the servant organizational leadership assessment (SOLA) instrument," by J. Laub, 1999, doctoral dissertation Florida Atlantic University, UMI 9921922. p. 83. Reprinted with permission.

Laub (1999) used the Delphi panel to create the survey instrument by providing input on items, layout and structure. The word "servant" was removed from the survey so as to not to bias the results. Laub conducted a field test collecting 828 usable responses from 41 unique organizations representing various industries. Item-to-item and between scales correlations were run on the following six variable subscales: (a) Values people,

(b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. The results "revealed high reliability scores along with high correlation between the subscales" (p.67). Specifically, reliability estimates were .90 or higher. Correlation between subscales was .736 or greater.

Because of a high Cronbach-alpha score of .98 and its use in multiple research projects (Braye, 2000; Drury, 2004; Herbert, 2003; Irving, 2005), the OLA is considered to have very strong reliability (Laub, 2003). Laub states that "though the sub-scores had high reliability as well, the high correlations between scales rules out the possibility of using these sub-scores individually for research purposes" (Laub, 1999, p. 81). Therefore, this study used a single-scale measure (the overall score) of servant leadership. However, Laub (1999) and Braye do affirm the use of sub-scores for individual leadership as a means of diagnosis only.

Field Testing

A field test was conducted to ensure that the instrument and data collection procedures were aligned with both organizational management theory and the target population culture. Three of the four participants in the field test held a Ph.D in organizational management or related fields. All participants were members of or were functionally aware of the various constituency groups in a community college.

The field test results revealed that the instrument tool created confusion in two areas. First, the instrument itself is divided into three sections. Each section instructs participants to focus responses on the entire organization; however, the instrument added a parenthetical phrase "or organizational unit." Field test participants felt that this created

confusion. Discussion with Dr. Laub resolved the problem with added wording to focus on the college organization, as well as removing the parenthetical phrases.

The second issue of concern was with the leadership hierarchy in the instrument introduction. It is listed as Top leader = 1, Management = 2, and Workforce = 3. After further consultation, Dr. Laub agreed to allow for additional contextual examples after each hierarchy such as CEO, VP, Dean, Faculty, Division Chair etc.

Pilot Test

Cooper and Schindler (2003) state that "a pilot test is conducted to detect weaknesses in design and instrumentation and to provide proxy data for a probability sample" (p. 86). A pilot test was conducted to ensure that the instrument would be both valid and reliable for the test population. Six participants were selected from the test population to participate. All participants completed the survey and provided feedback. The feedback yielded mostly comments that supported the use of the instrument in community college contextual environment. However, the two concerns were raised. First, that faculty would not appreciate the label of "Work Force." The Pilot group believed faculty would find it a diminishing term. Secondly, it was difficult to assign overall leadership ratings across an entire organization. The instrument demographic question was modified from label "Work Force" to "Primary Contributor." To attend to the second issue of rating the overall organization, the researcher again contacted Dr. Laub. Dr. Laub stated that "for some it is an uncomfortable choice, but one that can be made and it is still a very useful insight into the total organization assessment" (personal communication, August 18, 2007). Therefore, no further amendments were made to address that issue.

Administration of Survey

Using the OLA master copy, the survey was duplicated onto an online survey system (surveymonkey.com). The population, as defined above, received an e-mail invitation to voluntarily participate in the survey via institutional e-mail accounts such as all_users@ABCcollege.edu. The participants were asked to complete a demographic section and the OLA survey. The survey was expected to take about 15 minutes to complete (Laub, 2003). The survey remained on the online server for two weeks. Upon completion, the survey and data were removed from the server and stored locally.

Research Questions, Hypotheses and Variables

Research Question and Hypotheses Associated with Servant Leadership Score

The first research question asked if there is a statistically significant level of servant leadership in each of the five California community colleges. The literature suggests that the values of collaborative leadership have not transcended the mandated collaborative structures. To answer the first research question, the overall score from the OLA for each college was collected to identify the level of servant leadership in each college. According to Laub (2003), "The average score on the OLA is 3.64...The score of 4.0 indicates the level of 'Agreement' and is the breakpoint score for identifying an organization as a Servant Organization" (p. 4). As such, if a college had an overall score ≥ 4.0 , it would have been considered a servant organization. However, because none of the community colleges in the study scored ≥ 4.0 , colleges with higher OLA scores were analyzed as being more servant-oriented than colleges with lower OLA scores. The results from the OLA instrument were expected to answer the hypothesis:

H1: There is a statistically significant measurement of servant leadership at the organizational level in five California community colleges.

Servant Leader Variables

Table 4 represents those sub-scale variable and survey item question numbers that comprise the overall score of a servant organization in Table 4.

Table 4.
OLA Survey Item Variables

Research Question #1	Variable	Survey Questions
Level of servant leadership in the 5 community colleges	1. Values people	1, 4, 9, 15, 19, 52, 54, 55, 57, 63
	2. Develops people	20, 31, 37, 40, 42, 44, 46, 50, 59
	3. Builds community	7, 8, 12, 13, 16, 18, 21, 25
	4. Displays authenticity	3, 6, 10, 11, 23, 28, 32, 33, 35, 38, 51, 61
	5. Provides leadership	2, 5, 14, 22, 27, 30, 36, 45, 49
	6. Shares leadership	17, 24, 26, 29, 34, 39, 41, 48, 53, 65

Research Question and Hypotheses Associated with Performance

The second research question in this study asked if there is any relationship between the overall servant leadership score and college performance. In his research, Meyers (2005) confirmed that each of the seven performance criteria (see table 5) "relates directly to a student outcome, course offering, faculty responsibility or learning outcome that is clearly the responsibility of the shared governance team and administration at each college" (p.53). While Meyers does not specifically mention the classified employee

grouping because of their critical administrative and supporting task roles from student enrollment and course scheduling to clean and functioning facilities, it is assumed that that these functions are vital for college performance.

Table 5.
College Performance Criteria

<i>Performance Measure</i>	<i>Performance Criteria</i>
Measure 1	Percentage of all course offerings which are credit courses
Measure 2	Percentage of all courses which are basic skills courses
Measure 3	Percentage of all course units completed by students (FTEs) which are transferable to a four year college
Measure 4	Percentage of all students who successfully completed their enrolled courses
Measure 5	The number of academic degrees and certificates awarded to students per number of students enrolled.
Measure 6	The number of academic degrees and certificates awarded to students per total number of all college employees
Measure 7	The number of student enrolled units per all college employees

From, "Leadership style congruence in California community colleges," K, Myers, 2005, doctoral dissertation, San Francisco University, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses- full text database. (Publication No. AAT 319754), Adapted with permission from the author.

Because of the size and the ethnic and socio-economic diversity in each college's student enrollment and college employment, the performance numbers were standardized as a percentage or ratios of state performance measures that were common to all of the community colleges. This allowed for an equal comparison from college to college. At the point of data collection, the most currently available data for the criteria was collected from the CCCCO publicly published website and data support.

The data collected from table 5 will provide data to analyze the following hypothesis:

H2: There is a statistically significant and positive correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and that college's performance index.

Data Analysis Procedures

Question Associated Servant Leadership Score

Because the OLA survey instrument in this study used a Likert-type model, the resulting data is interval. Using descriptive statistics such as mean, confidence, standard deviation and the like, the study was able to determine if organizational servant leadership (independent variable) had transcended the mandated collaborative structures in the colleges. This study determined if the college was a servant organization by using the benchmark score of ≥ 4.0 to answer the first research question.

Question Associated with Correlation between Servant Leadership and Performance

The second research question asked what, if any, relationship exists between each college's overall leadership score and performance. Because the independent variable (OLA score) did not meet the parametric correlation assumption of normal sample distribution, this study used the nonparametric Spearman's rho correlation technique to test the second hypothesis of correlation between the independent and dependent variable (Norusis, 2005). The Spearman rank correlation effectively handles outliers in data (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Also, the Spearman, like the Pearson correlation, measures the strength and direction of a relationship between two variables. The Spearman result ranges between -1 to +1, where a 0 indicates no relationship. Additionally, the Spearman result includes a significance level to allow for a probability value (p value) evaluation of

the test. Cooper and Schindler state that “the p value is compared to the significance level (α), and on this basis the null hypothesis is either rejected or not rejected” (p. 530). If the p value is less than the α level, then the null hypothesis can be rejected, and if the p value is greater than the α value, then the null hypothesis cannot be rejected (Cooper and Schindler).

As previously mentioned, the dependent variable was performance. Performance measures were collected as published and provided by the CCCCCO. The specific performance criteria are displayed above in table 5. The data collected was of different scales (percentages and ratios). Therefore, in order to compute the overall performance index, the data needed to be transformed and standardized via the use of a Z score technique. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) “A **standard score** or **Z score**, may be calculated to improve compatibility among variables that come from different scales and require comparison” (2003, p. 496). Additionally, a Z score can “determine the position of a case in the distribution of observed values” (Norusis, 2005, p. 90). To facilitate the use of bench-marking with the 109 college performance data, the Z score was based from raw sample data, and the mean and standard deviation from the 109 colleges.

The next step was to evaluate the overall servant leadership score and the standardized (Z score) performance data for each college using a correlation coefficient statistic. Correlation coefficients statistics not only indicate the strength of a linear relationship, but also give the direction of the relationship as either positive or negative (Norusis, 2003). Because this was an exploratory study of five California community colleges, there was no expectation that the results would extrapolate to all community

colleges in California. Data analyses were computed using SPSS versions 13 and 16 for Windows and MS Excel.

CHAPTER 4. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The purpose of this exploratory study was to gain a deeper understanding of the level of servant leadership in five California Community Colleges and to identify any correlation that exists between the level of servant leadership and college performance.

This study sought to answer the following two research questions:

Is there a significant level of servant leadership in five of the California Community Colleges?

Is there a relationship between servant leadership and performance in five of the California Community Colleges?

This chapter will present the (a) sample characteristics, (b) data collection, and (c) findings regarding the hypotheses of servant leadership as measured at the organizational level and findings regarding the hypotheses of any correlation between college performance and organizational servant leadership.

Sample Characteristics

An open invitation was extended to 38 California Community Colleges to participate in this study. A total of five colleges agreed to participate. The research population, therefore, consisted of all employees from five community colleges in California. The population for these five colleges consisted of over 3,400 employees. The sample was drawn from this population frame through an open invitation to participate delivered via e-mail to all employees using each college email system to all employees. All five colleges requested that a proxy agent be used to send the invitation and follow-up

notice on behalf of the researcher. This method helped ensure the maximum exposure of the invitation to the employee population. The number of participants in the study was 234. Of these participants, 18 did not complete the demographic question identifying which college they worked for, thus leaving an identifiable sample of 216 participants. Another 36 participants chose not to answer all the questions in the survey leaving 180 usable responses for this study.

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), with an N population range between 437 and 1125 (see Table 6), a useful response rate would need to be between 201 to 285, respectively, in order to have a randomly chosen sample that could yield a p confidence value of .05. This study did not reach the necessary response rate to answer the research questions or allow for accepting or rejecting the null hypotheses. As such, all findings can only be attributed to the participants who responded.

Table 6.
Population and Respondents

<i>College</i>	<i>Population N</i>	<i>Sample n</i>	<i>% of Useful Responses</i>
1	537	42	8%
2	1125	70	6%
3	791	8	1%
4	512	27	5%
5	437	33	8%
Total	3,402	180	5%

With respect to demographics collected, the sample represented 69% female, 30% male and 1% preferred not to identify a gender preference. Additionally, 2% identified

themselves as Top Leaders (Chancellor, Superintendent, President etc.), 17% as Management (Dean, Division Chair, Shared Governance Chair etc.), and 80% Work Force (faculty and staff). Participation in this study was both voluntary and anonymous for the respondents.

Data Collection

Survey Data

Survey data was collected by inviting the population of the five community colleges to participate in a URL web-based survey which contained basic demographic questions (such as gender, college, and leadership level), and the OLA (Laub, 1999 servant leadership at the organizational level). The instrument was available to the population for a period of 2 weeks commencing two weeks after the start of the college's fall 2007-2008 academic year. The invitation to participate and a link to the survey website were delivered using each of the colleges "all users" e-mail system. With the exception of one college, the survey invitations and follow up requests were sent from the President's office of each college. One college included the invitation and follow-up request in a weekly announcement e-mail that was sent to all employees. The web server that housed that survey allowed for an electronically-mediated collection of the survey research data.

Performance Data

Performance data was publicly available data and was collected from the California Community College Chancellor's office (CCCCO). A Request for data was made to the CCCCCO for queries specific to performance measures 1-3 (see Table 8), and results were promptly provided by the CCCCCO Data Mart manager. Data were collected

directly from the Data Mart reporting system for performance measures 4-7 (see Table 8) via the Data Mart Website (www.cccco.edu). The performance data was collected for the fall 2006 and spring 2007 semesters, which were the two most recent academic semesters available at the time of this research. The data was imported into Microsoft Excel and SPSS version 16.0 to facilitate further statistical analysis. The data was transformed via a Z score.

Results

In order to determine if these hypotheses would be accepted or rejected, a statistically significant number of responses from each organization were necessary in order to generalize from the sample to the population. As stated above, the research study did not achieve the necessary respondent rate to accept or reject the hypotheses, as generalized to the population. Therefore, the following data analysis answers the hypotheses as it relates to the respondents only.

Results Associated with Servant Leadership at the Organizational Level

The first set of hypotheses examined servant leadership at the organizational level in the five community colleges.

H1: There is a statistically significant level of servant leadership at the organizational level in five California community colleges.

According to Laub (2003), "The average score on the OLA is 3.64... The score of 4.0 indicates the level of 'Agreement' and is the breakpoint score for identifying an organization as a Servant Organization" (p. 4). As such, those colleges that have an overall score of four or above will be considered servant organizations. As seen in table 7, none of the community colleges sampled achieved a score of 4.0 or higher, thus the

null hypotheses cannot be rejected. In other words, according to the respondents in the survey, none of the colleges are servant organizations.

Table 7
OLA Score

<i>College</i>	<i>OLA Score</i>
1	2.84
2	3.04
3	3.53
4	3.44
5	3.10

Results Associated with Organizational Servant Leadership and College Performance

The second set of hypotheses examined any correlation between servant leadership and college performance.

H2: There is a statistically significant and positive correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and that college's performance index.

Because the independent variable of servant leadership was not found in any of the five colleges, it was not possible to test this hypothesis. However, it is assumed that as leadership scores move closer to the servant leadership level, there is an improved leadership score and, therefore, a meaningful value to correlate.

The next step, then was to collect data from all 109 California community colleges so as to establish a benchmark that could be compared with the five colleges in

the research (see table 8). Descriptive statistics for the mean, standard deviation, and variance were determined.

Table 8
Performance Data Collected from 109 Community Colleges

<i>Measure #</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Variance</i>
Measure 1	% of Credit Courses	109	96.88	.039	.002
Measure 2	% of Basic Skill	109	5.67	.027	.001
Measure 3	% of all Transfer Courses	109	86.23	.044	.002
Measure 4	% of Successful Students	109	66.97	.047	.002
Measure 5	Awards per Enrollment	109	4.39	.019	.000
Measure 6	Awards per All Employees	108	1.21	.418	.176
Measure 7	Enrolled Units per all Employees	108	103.85	23.28	542.37

The standard deviation and variance scores for measure 7 appear to be very high. This is due to the volatility of the actual number of enrolled units across the 109 colleges. It is important to note that all the colleges are equally susceptible to this volatility and that these scores become standardized using the Z score, as it will not cause the performance measure to have an unusually high weight as compared to the other performance measures.

Having determined a college baseline of mean scores and standard deviation, the next step was to conduct the same performance data analysis for the five community colleges. The results are shown in Tables 9 and 10. Table 9 provides the detailed results

for each of the five community colleges, while Table 10 provides a summary of the results for the five community colleges.

Table 9
Performance Scores for Each College of the Five Community Colleges

<i>Performance</i>	<i>College 1</i>	<i>College 2</i>	<i>College 3</i>	<i>College 4</i>	<i>College 5</i>
1. % of Credit Courses	98.77	97.24	96.94	98.33	95.62
2. % of Basic Skill	6.61	5.47	4.01	8.66	1.41
. % of all Transfer Courses	84.42	93.54	91.68	82.21	87.31
. % of Successful Students	65.23	77.90	82.12	65.72	67.55
. Awards per Enrollment	4.57	3.95	2.32	4.06	2.97
. Awards per All Employees	1.48	1.41	0.92	1.30	0.60
. Enrolled Units per all Employees	125.23	142.12	103.80	114.24	70.67

Table 10
Summary of College Performance for the Five Colleges

<i>Measure #</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Variance</i>
1	% of Credit Courses	5	97.38	.012	.000
2	% of Basic Skill	5	7.77	.039	.002
3	% of all Transfer Courses	5	87.83	.047	.002
4	% of Successful Students	5	71.70	.077	.006
5	Awards per Enrollment	5	3.57	.009	.000
6	Awards per All Employees	5	1.18	.342	.117
7	Enrolled Units per all Employees	5	111.21	26.73	26.73

The next step was to standardize the scores using the Z score technique. As discussed in chapter 3, a Z score is a technique to transform data using different scales and to measure an individual score's standard deviation above or below the mean. In this study, the mean score and standard deviation scores were based on the 109 colleges. The calculation for the Z score is:

$$Z = (\chi - \mu) \div \sigma$$

The Z score was calculated for each performance measure by taking the raw performance score from each of the five colleges (x) found in table 9, and subtracting the corresponding mean of the performance score (μ) of the 109 colleges found in table 8, and then dividing by the standard deviation (σ) of the 109 colleges from table 8. The results are shown in table 11.

Table 11
Performance Measure Z scores

<i>College</i>	<i>PM1</i>	<i>PM2</i>	<i>PM 3</i>	<i>PM 4</i>	<i>PM 5</i>	<i>PM 6</i>	<i>PM 7</i>	<i>Mean</i>
1	0.47	0.27	0.42	-0.26	0.12	0.66	0.52	0.31
2	0.08	-0.12	0.66	2.42	-0.3	0.48	1.16	0.63
3	0.01	-0.62	0.36	3.32	-1.39	-0.68	-0.28	0.10
4	0.36	0.97	0.41	-0.16	-0.22	0.24	0.11	0.24
5	-0.33	-1.51	-0.44	0.23	-0.95	-1.43	-1.52	-0.85

With both the servant leadership (OLA) data and the performance (Z score) data collected, the next step was to analyze the data to determine if a relationship exists by correlating the scores in table 12.

Table 12
OLA and Performance Z score

<i>College</i>	<i>OLA Score</i>	<i>Performance Z Score Mean</i>
1	2.84	0.31
2	3.04	0.63
3	3.53	0.10
4	3.44	0.24
5	3.10	-0.85

The two most popular correlation tests are the Pearson's r and Spearman's rho. The Pearson r is a parametric test that requires the sample to have a normal distribution. The Spearman rho is a nonparametric alternative correlation test that is not dependent on a normal distribution (Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Creswell, 2003; Norusis, 2005).

A Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test was used on both sets of data to address the normal distribution assumption required by Pearson coefficient. The KS test is suitable for this research because it provides "a comparison of observed sample distribution with a theoretical distribution" (Cooper & Schindler, 2003, p. 811). Cooper and Schindler also contended that because of this comparison, the KS test is ideal for small samples. To evaluate the results, the distance statistic needs to be less than the maximum significance. The results of the KS tests for the servant leadership score are seen in Table 13.

Table 13
Kolmogorov-Smirnov for OLA Score

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
OLA Score	.225	5	.200(*)	.919	5	.522

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.
 a Lilliefors Significance Correction

The results show that the statistic score (.225) is greater than the Sig. value (.200) indicating that the servant leadership data did not have a statistically significant normal distribution. The same analysis was made for the performance variable data (see table 14). Similarly, the KS test statistic (.310) was greater than the Sig. value (.131) indicating that the performance data did not have a statistically significant normal distribution.

Table 14
Kolmogorov-Smirnov for Performance Z Score

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Performance Z score	.310	5	.131(*)	.859	5	.223

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.
 a Lilliefors Significance Correction

Results Associated with OLA Score and Performance Measures

The KS test results for both variables show the statistic scores were greater than the significant value indicating that both variables did not have a statistically significant distribution. This result supported the use of the Spearman's rho correlation. Like the

Pearson r , the rho correlation provides both a significance level of -1 to 1 and p value to test the hypothesis. This was used to establish if any relationship exists between the variables, and if so, how strong that relationship was. The results are shown in Table 15.

Table 15
Spearman's rho Correlation between OLA and Performance Z

			OLA Score	Performance Z score
Spearman's rho	OLA Score	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.800
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.104
		N	5	5
	Performance Z Score	Correlation Coefficient	-.800	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.104	.
		N	5	5

The Spearman's rho correlation of $-.800$ indicates a strong inverse relationship between the two variables (Norusis, 2005). However, the Sig. (2-tailed) level is $.105$ and that is greater than the p value of $.05$. Therefore, there is no reason to accept that there is an inverse relationship between more servant-oriented leadership scores and college performance.

The research question sought to understand what relationship exists (if any) between servant leadership and performance. Because of the lack of significance value between improved leadership scores and performance score as a whole, it still seemed germane to the research question to take an additional step to try to understand if any of the seven performance scores individually had a correlation with the OLA leadership scores at Sig. levels lower than the p value of $.05$. This result revealed that for the

participants, there were two performance measures that met this criterion (see tables 16 and 17).

Table 16
Spearman's rho Correlation between OLA and Performance Measure 5

			OLA Score	Performance Measure 5
Spearman's rho	OLA Score	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.900*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.037
		N	5	5
	Performance Measure 5	Correlation Coefficient	-.900*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.037	.
		N	5	5

*.Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 17
Spearman's rho Correlation between OLA and Performance Measure 6

			OLA Score	Performance Measure 6
Spearman's rho	OLA Score	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.900*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.037
		N	5	5
	Performance Measure 6	Correlation Coefficient	-.900*	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.037	.
		N	5	5

*.Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

It seemed that for the respondents, performance measures 5 and 6, which considered academic Awards and Certificates earned by students (see Table 5), were inversely related to the higher servant-oriented leadership scores at a significance of $p < .05$.

CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter addresses the implications of the research to determine whether the core values of participatory leadership in five California community colleges (as measured by servant leadership) were related to the performance of those five colleges. The chapter includes a summary discussion of results, concluding ideas, and recommendations.

Summary and Discussion of Results

In California legislation, AB 1725, community colleges received a mandate to establish shared governance structures to create a means for various constituency groups to participate effectively in the governance of a college and district. The literature (Kezar, 2001; Myers, 2005; Parker, 1998) suggested that while participatory structures have been constructed, perhaps the core values of participatory leadership have not transcended from these structures. This study contends that because of the similarities between participatory and servant leadership, a servant leadership instrument could be used to measure core participatory values in an organization.

The study did not obtain a statistically significant number of responses from each college to accept or reject the research hypotheses; thus, this study was not able to sufficiently answer its research questions. However, this study does provide some insight into what the participants of the study thought of their respective colleges, which sheds some light on the research questions and, thus, further study in this field and the literature.

Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions about the relationship of servant leadership and California community colleges. The first research question asked if there was significant level of servant leadership in five of the California Community Colleges. The second research question asked if there is a relationship between servant leadership and performance in five California Community Colleges.

The Hypotheses

H1 stated: There is a statistically significant measurement of servant leadership at the organizational level in five California community colleges.

The Organizational Leadership Assessment (Laub, 1999) instrument was used to measure servant leadership at the organizational level. A score of 4.0 or higher was required for an organization to be identified as a servant organization. The results showed that none of the five colleges achieved a score that would demonstrate servant led organization. Therefore, the trend in the data would lean toward not rejecting the null H_1^0 .

H2 stated: There is a correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and each college's performance index.

Because the servant leadership variable was not significantly present in any of the five organizations, this hypothesis could not be tested. However, it was assumed that as an OLA score moved closer to a servant leadership level of 4.0, this was considered an improved score. Therefore, it was interesting to examine the relationship between the leadership assessment score and the performance score for each college. A Spearman's rho correlation analysis revealed that for those who participated in the study, there was an

inverse relationship between improved leadership and college performance. However, because this score had a confidence of $p > .05$, this result was not insightful.

Because the second research question asked if there was a relationship between servant leadership and performance as a whole, it was reasonable to consider what relationship, if any, would exist between the OLA scores (as improved leadership) and each individual performance measure. The results showed that, indeed, there was a strong inverse relationship between the improved leadership scores and performance measures number 5 and 6. Both of these performance measures dealt with the number of Awards and Certificates issued as a ratio of both total enrolled units and the number of all employees.

The fact that, for the respondents of the survey instrument, there is a strong inverse relationship is interesting, but may simply be the result of not having a significant response rate to the survey instrument from each college. It is then reasonable to consider how the study could be improved so as to incorporate a greater response rate. This will be discussed under the recommendations section.

Discussion and Conclusion

This exploratory study was in response to a perceived lack of participatory leadership in the California community colleges as expressed in the literature, even though substantial time, money and human resource was expended to establish participatory or “shared governance” organizational structures. While this study did not yield statistically significant responses to answer the research questions, this study does contribute to participatory leadership in the California community college systems and to servant leadership theory, as it relates to performance in several ways. First, this study

established that participatory leadership principles could, theoretically, be measured by using servant leadership measuring instruments, such as Laub's (1999) Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA). Secondly, this research established a need and possible framework for finding a quantitative relationship between servant leadership and objective performance

First Implication. The first implication from this study is that colleges can use servant leadership measurements to determine an organization's level of participatory leadership principles. The California community college system is mandated via AB 1725 to implement structures that allow college constituency groups to participate effectively. However, the literature suggests that organizational structures alone do not ensure that the core principles of participatory leadership are instituted in the organization culture. As Covey (1998) stated, "If you really want to get servant-leadership, then you've got to have institutionalization of the principles at the organizational level" (p. xvii). This study has shown a means by which a community college can measure to what level it has adopted the core principles of participatory leadership through measuring servant leadership at the organizational level. Measuring the participatory leadership is important because it will allow colleges understand and improve their ability to invite all to participate effectively, as mandated by AB 1725. In the introduction, this study likened faculty as independent contributors to the college organization, suggesting that faculty may not feel a significant burden toward the organizational concerns or health, which might be one reason why this study did not receive a significant response rate. While this research cannot speculate as to the reason for the low response, Laub (1999) identified that servant leaders exhibit the following characteristics: (a) Valuing people, (b)

developing people,(c) building community, (d) displaying authenticity, (e) providing leadership and (f) sharing leadership. If a college environment can move closer toward these principles, then that college might be able to effectively implement the mandate of AB 1725.

To take this implication further, California community colleges are required to maintain their regional accreditation according to the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC). As recently as June 2002, WASC established a new standard for colleges to demonstrate a dialogue toward learning through continuous improvement. Specifically, the new standard states that “an effective institution maintains an ongoing, self-reflective dialogue about its quality and improvement. An institution-wide dialogue must be at the heart of the self-evaluation process for the college community to gain a comprehensive perspective of the institution” (Colleges, June 2002, para 1). Developing and maintaining a dialogue about how to increase a college’s adoption of the core principles of participatory leadership in relation to its performance would create valuable organizational learning that could be demonstrated to WASC in partial support of accreditation renewal.

Second Implication. The second implication from this study is that at the point of this writing there is little research measuring servant leadership (at the organizational level or individual level) and objective performance measures. This research has shown that servant leadership can be measured and correlated to objective organizational outputs. As already noted, great leaders must be concerned with not only the economy of ideas, but also the effective financial performance of organizations (Bennis, 1997). In order for servant leadership theory to rise above the “word of mouth” leadership style and

become embraced by mainstream leadership theorists, academicians and organizational executives, the theory must show beyond the narrative that servant leadership can both improve the quality of the organizational environment and lead to optimized performance.

Recommendations

The researcher was troubled by the lack of significant participation in this research by the employees of the five community colleges. The researcher expected to connect with a perceived intrinsic desire on the part of academicians to provide critical evaluation and feedback regarding their organizations. The research failed to tap into that intrinsic nature of educators. However, there are a number of recommendations for improvements on methodology for this study, as well as suggestions for future research.

Improvements to the methodology of this study

1. It seems that the population of the five community colleges was not interested in participating in this research. An improvement in methodology would be to work very closely with college Presidents and Academic Senates to encourage participation based on the merits of the results. Because the WASC accreditation requires objective evidence of college-wide dialogue toward continuous improvement, the participation, results and discussion could be used to clearly show to an accreditation team the existence of such a dialogue. As such, there would be significantly greater internal support and enthusiasm. Most colleges have a WASC committee that is keenly interested in identifying objective evidence of college-wide dialogue toward improvement. Tapping

into this established committee's college-wide influence, energy, and marketing resource could greatly improve college-wide participation.

2. Part-time faculty typically make up 50% of a community college employee base. There were clues during the data collection process that perhaps some part-time faculty did not receive the invitation to participate because they either did not have an established college e-mail address, or, perhaps rely solely on their private individual e-mail addresses. However, it should be noted that when part-time faculty were not factored into this study, the participation would have still been well below the level necessary for statistical significance.
3. Having a smaller population such as one or two schools would allow a researcher to have more influence by meeting college employees and promoting participation. Because the researcher would not have had the same opportunity to influence the other colleges in the state, he did not promote the research at his college of employment during the data collection phase.
4. It became apparent that perhaps a mixed methods approach would have been an alternative approach. First, including personal interviews or focused groups might have provided a depth of knowledge about the organization that would not otherwise be identified in a survey. Additionally, interview/focus groups would have put the researcher on campus speaking with employees which might have increased promotion of the survey. Second, the researcher received a number of concerns from participants inquiring why there were no opportunities to list qualitative concerns.

Further Research

Servant leader theory is still lacking empirical evidence that there is a linear relationship between servant leadership and organizational performance. This study has identified a theoretical and methodological foundation for future research with both of these variables. As suggested above, it might be helpful to repeat this research on a smaller population of one or two colleges.

Additionally, for the participants of this study there was a strong inverse relationship between improved leadership and performance measures dealing with Awards and Certificates at a confidence of $\leq .05$. Therefore, other studies which focus on community college and performance may want to focus more intently on this performance indicator. It could be effectively argued that a primary indicator of community college performance is the number of awards distributed.

Another future study could use a similar method, but change the population to for-profit organizations. The OLA is a very powerful instrument, which also includes in it the variable of satisfaction at the individual level. For-profit organizations have performance variables such as share holder value, sales revenue, and product quality, which can be more easily objectified and quantified. Thus, a study could research servant leadership as the independent variable and several objective performance variables, but with the inclusion of a satisfaction variable for further correlation.

Finally, another fascinating study could be a longitudinal Action Research methodology where the researcher is engaged in facilitating college leadership dialogue that would include not only staff, faculty and administration, but also the Board of Trustees. This could also translate to the for-profit and non-profit organizations. The

research could measure both servant leadership at the organizational level, satisfaction at the individual level, and objective performance over time with the researcher helping the organization grow into a servant leader led organization.

Closing Comments

Leadership matters. As an instructor, the researcher teaches servant leadership principles to university and community college students, and it is clear that these future leaders still maintain the old paradigm that leaders are born (Trait Theory). While there are many great theorists who still hold to this paradigm, the problem is that because most students believe that leaders are born, they become convinced that they are not “born of the right stuff” to be leaders, and therefore act accordingly. Servant leadership theory, when correctly understood and applied, changes lives, organizations and communities for the better.

Servant leadership is a popular term today in both the business and power-oriented ministry worlds. But often those who speak and write about it focus on the second word: servant *leadership*. Viewed with this emphasis, serving is simply a means to an end: ‘I’ll serve you, so you’ll respect my leadership and follow me. I prime the pump, so you will deliver.’ This is just another subtle form of power leadership. In *servant* leadership, serving is the expression of leadership, regardless of how people follow. Serving is both the end as well as the means. But it’s not easy to lead in this way (Rinehart, 1998, p. 41).

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APPENDIX: ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this research. It is hoped that the results of this survey will lead to a better understanding of leadership and performance in the California Community College system.

The e-mail which invited you to participate informs that, among other rights, that your participation is voluntary, confidential, and anonymous. Additionally, you can choose to not answer any question or withdraw at any time from this survey. The first question simply affirms that you feel informed based on the invitation e-mail and that you consent to participate.

I am 18 years of age or older, and I voluntarily consent to participate in this research. Yes No

Please provide the following demographic information:

Primary Job Classification:

Please check which classification best describes your position:

Faculty (full or PT) Classified (non-administrator) Administrator (district, manager, executive, etc.)

Within your job classification, please indicate your role in the organization:

Top Leadership (Chancellor/Superintendent, President, Vice Chancellor, Vice President etc.)
 Management (Dean, Division/Dept. Chair, Manager/Supervisor, Director)
 Primary Contributor (Faculty, Staff)

Please select the college that best represents your employer:

College 1
 College 2
 College 3
 College 4
 College 5

General Instructions:

The purpose of this instrument is to allow organizations to discover how their leadership practices and beliefs impact the different ways people function within the organization. This instrument is designed to be taken by people at all levels of the organization including workers, managers and top leadership. As you respond to the different statements, please answer as to what you believe is generally true about your college. Please respond with your own personal feelings and beliefs and not those of others, or those that others would want you to have. Respond as to how things are ... not as they could be, or should be.

Feel free to use the full spectrum of answers (from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree). You will find that some of the statements will be easy to respond to while others may require more thought. If you are uncertain, you may want to answer with your first, intuitive response. Please be honest and candid. The response we seek is the one that most closely represents your feelings or beliefs about the statement that is being considered. There are three different sections to this instrument. Carefully read the brief instructions that are given prior to each section.

Remember to consider your answers in view of your college as a whole, rather than just your department, division or district.

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

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

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

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

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

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

SECTION 2 In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to the **leadership** of the organization.

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

44	Use their power and authority to benefit the workers					
45	Take appropriate action when it is needed					

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

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

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization

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

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

In viewing my own role ...	1	2	3	4	5
55	I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute				
56	I am working at a high level of productivity				
57	I am listened to by those <i>above</i> me in the organization				
58	I feel good about my contribution to the organization				
59	I receive encouragement and affirmation from those <i>above</i> me in the organization				
60	My job is important to the success of this organization				
61	I trust the leadership of this organization				
62	I enjoy working in this organization				

63	I am respected by those <i>above</i> me in the organization					
64	I am able to be creative in my job					
65	In this organization, a person's <i>work</i> is valued more than their <i>title</i>					
66	I am able to use my best gifts and abilities in my job					

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