

**SERVANT LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION: AN ANALYSIS OF THE
PERCEPTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION EMPLOYEES REGARDING SERVANT
LEADERSHIP PRACTICES AT VARYING TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS**

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated in memory of my father, William Randolph “Randy” Rich and my stepfather, John Francis Munsterman, extraordinary men who exemplified the true meaning of a servant leader with their family, friends, church and community.

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The University of Texas at San Antonio, 2009

Supervising Professor: Bruce Barnett, Ph.D.

The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a significant difference in the perceptions of higher education employees regarding servant leadership practices at their respective institutions. This study was conducted at two different institutions and with all employment levels including workforce, management and top administration. Research participants were asked to complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument as developed by Laub (1999) in order to answer two research questions:

1. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees in various role groups regarding servant leadership practices within their own institutions?
2. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees at different types of institutions (public 2-year and public 4-year) regarding servant leadership practices?

The results of the data showed a significant difference in the perceptions of administrators regarding servant leadership practices as compared to the workforce group. This was true at both institutions. Additionally, when comparing employee groups across institutions, a significant difference was found between the administrators at the two-year institution and the workforce group of the four-year institution.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Concerns with Traditional Leadership

Traditional, hierarchical structures with a formal leader at the top have been used in business settings for centuries, yet Schuyler and Branagan (2003), claim that the use of these types of leadership structures can have a negative impact on the psychological health of employees. Autocratic leadership, where the organization serves the needs of the leader, often oppresses the worker and leads to poor or toxic organizational health. Paternalistic leadership, a style in which the leader sees him or herself in a parent role, forces workers into the role of children (Laub, 2003).

Various publications (Bhindi & Duignan, 1997; Feeney, 1998) talk about the dissatisfaction of current leaders and the forces within society leading to the need for a new leadership model. Bhindi & Duignan (1997) state:

The current emphasis on corporate managerialism, the excesses of leadership expediency and obsession with self-interest and narcissistic behaviour, personal advantage and lust for power and privilege have contributed to a persistent feeling among followers of being used, cheated and even demeaned. (p. 118)

Examples of such behavior in the corporate and political world bring to mind various names such as Kenneth Lay with Enron; Martha Stewart; Bill Clinton; Eliot Spitzer and Rod Blagojevich, former governors of New York and Illinois, respectively. Lay's and Stewart's fall from grace were the result of financial scandals (Crawford, 2004; Johnson, 2006) while Clinton and Spitzer were accused of sexual improprieties (Grynbaum, 2008; King, 1998). Blagojevich was accused of trying to sell Barack Obama's vacant senate seat to the highest bidder (Davey & Healy, 2008). At the minimum, these leaders lost the trust of their followers. In Enron's case,

however, the effects of such poor leadership were more far reaching. Enron's stock plummeted overnight bringing financial hardship to stockholders. The company went bankrupt and at least two dozen top executives were found guilty of felony charges (Johnson, 2006).

Jeffries (1993) in her book *The Heart of Leadership* mentions the global market and technological changes as well as social changes that lead to the need for a different type of leadership, one where leaders and followers work as a team. Leadership expert Warren Bennis (as cited in McKenzie & Swords, 2000) echoes Jeffries' thoughts by making the following observation:

A shrinking world in which technological and political complexity increase at an accelerating rate offers fewer and fewer arenas in which individual action suffices. In a global society, in which timely information is the most important commodity, collaboration is not simply desirable, it is inevitable. In all but the rarest cases, one is too small a number to produce greatness. (p. 275)

If one leader is too small a number that means that others will need to become leaders within various levels of an organization. But how will these individuals prepare for these new leadership roles? A study conducted by the Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations (Connaughton, Lawrence, & Ruben, 2003) showed that corporations spend between \$5.6 and \$16.8 billion each year on ineffective leadership training. Participating in leadership courses may be an option but often "teaching" leadership is a complex process. "This situation resembles attempting to teach about the game of football and its history to a group of eager athletes without having them participate in scrimmages with coaching and performance analyses" (Lepard, 2003, p. 11).

Changing demographics within the United States also plays a role in the need for a different style of leadership. Using data from the U.S. Census Bureau, Gutierrez, Castañeda, and Katsinas (2002) reported that in 1980 Hispanics numbered 14.6 million (6.4% of the total population), a number that grew to 35.3 million by 2000 (12.5% of the total population). Leaders from various types of organizations will be expected to step up to this challenge by creating an environment that embraces various cultures and builds trust among them.

Covey (as cited in Spears, 2002), in a foreword written for the 25th anniversary edition of *Servant Leadership*, provides insight into what should be considered as this new environment is created. He states that there is a great movement taking place in the world today that is fueled by “timeless, universal principles that have, and always will govern all enduring success, especially those principles that give ‘air’ and ‘life’ and creative power to the human spirit that *produces* value in markets, organizations, families, and most significantly, individual’s lives” (p. 1).

Spears (1998) in an introduction to *Insights on Leadership* notes:

As we near the end of the twentieth century, we are beginning to see that traditional, autocratic, and hierarchical modes of leadership are yielding to a newer model – one based on teamwork and community, one that seeks to involve others in decision making, one strongly based in ethical and caring behavior, and one that is attempting to enhance the personal growth of workers while improving the caring and quality of our many institutions. (p. 1)

The model of leadership that these experts are referring to is servant leadership, an approach that calls for leadership to be shared throughout the organization. There is a shared set of values and community members show a sense of conviction in carrying out these values (Greenleaf, 1991). The

highlight on ethics is also a distinguishing factor of servant leadership as compared to other, more traditional styles of leadership (Laub, 1999). Leadership experts argue that servant leadership should be strongly considered as a model of leadership for a variety of institutions.

Servant Leadership in Higher Education

Is higher education one of those institutions? Many colleges and universities, perhaps as high as 95%, have followed the path of their business counterparts by using traditional, hierarchical organizational structures (Hoyle, 2002; Outcalt, Faris, McMahon, Tahtakran, & Noll, 2001). But higher education institutions are not organized like business organizations. Businesses are usually hierarchical and tightly coupled whereas colleges and universities are loosely coupled systems (Birnbaum, 2000; Weick, 1976). In other words, employees in corporate settings are usually more closely connected and dependent upon each other whereas in higher education, the work of faculty occurs independently from the work of staff with just a loose structure to connect them.

Mintzberg (1980) describes this type of system as a Professional Bureaucracy shown in Figure 1 below.

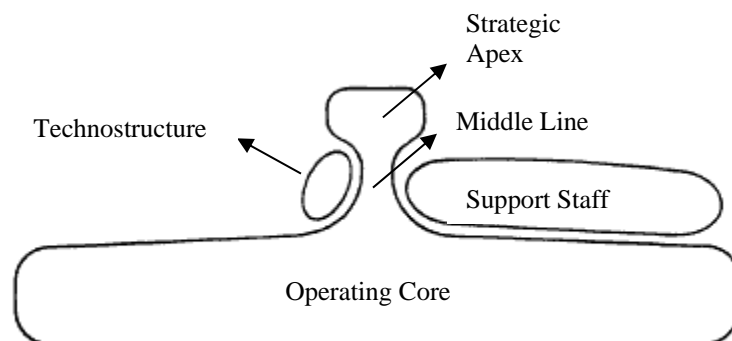


Figure 1: Mintzberg's Professional Bureaucracy Model

In a professional bureaucracy, the operating core is often large and includes highly trained specialists, or professionals. These individuals often control their own work and have a great deal

of autonomy. In a university setting, the operating core would include faculty. Administrators within the strategic apex and managers within the middle line are generally professionals as well. These two areas would include president and vice presidents at the strategic apex level and deans or directors at the middle line level. The technostructure section often includes individuals such as accountants and strategic planners. In the university setting, this group is small because the work of the operating core is not highly controlled by the technostructure area of the organization. The support staff is generally larger because of the sheer number of people needed to support the work of the operating core. In a university setting, this would include admissions counselors, student services employees, clerical staff, facilities and housekeeping staff, and others.

Bowen (as cited in Birnbaum, 2000) states “Production in higher education, then, is not the transformation of resources into tangible products; rather it is the transformation of resources into desired intangible qualities of human beings” (p. 228). When university or college presidents try to use traditional business leadership methods, they can often be seen as running the university from the “ivory tower” with little knowledge or understanding of what is really happening around them.

One example of this disconnect are the actions leading to the resignation of Benjamin Ladner, former president of American University (Janofsky, 2005). Accused of lavish spending for himself and his wife, using university money, Ladner eventually stepped down. In the meantime, the controversy split the board of trustees and angered faculty and students. Four board members resigned in protest stating “Because of Ladner’s behavior, an ethical cloud hangs over the university” (Bains, Collins, Jaskol, & Wolff, as cited in Janofsky, 2005). Student body

president, Kyle Taylor, in a letter to the student body questioned whether or not the board represented the values of the university (Janofsky, 2005).

A similar example includes a call for the resignation of Priscilla Slade, president of Texas Southern University. In a federal lawsuit, Slade was accused of retaliating against three students that publicly criticized the administration. Additionally, she was accused of “financial mismanagement, negligence in the storage of sensitive documents and responsibility for a high failure rate among freshmen” (Rice, 2005). Slade was eventually fired by the university in unrelated charges (Tresaugue, 2006). These examples present leadership styles that were more autocratic in nature, were clearly ineffective, and brought negative publicity to their institutions.

By using the model of servant leadership, all members of the university community have a voice in creating an environment that is based on shared values. This means bringing together a multitude of ideas and concepts about what that ideal community should look like.

Problem Statement

As higher education embraces the 21st century certain issues will or already have come to the forefront. Chief among these are access to college, changing demographics, lack of science and technology graduates, and global concerns (Blumenstyk, 2005; Diament, 2005; Greenberg, 2006; Hoff, 1999; Yankelovich, 2005). These are huge issues that are better tackled with input from a variety of individuals within the university setting rather than just a few top leaders. Servant leadership with its collaborative nature and concept of shared leadership is a viable means for addressing these and other issues.

Spears (1996) states that one of the special strengths of servant leadership is that

both individuals and institutions have the ability to serve and lead others which in turn raises the quality of life throughout society. In the context of servant leadership as a viable option for higher education institutions, it would be helpful to know if certain types of higher education employees are more likely to perceive and therefore practice servant leadership practices within their respective institutions.

Key Concepts of Servant Leadership

No study of servant leadership would be complete without a reference to Robert Greenleaf, the person who first developed the concept of servant leadership. Greenleaf (1991) defines the servant leader as “servant first. . . . It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead” (p. 7). He further states that this person is different from the one who is leader first as this person is often in a drive for power or material possessions. Greenleaf (as cited in Bethel, 1990) adds, “There is something subtle communicated to one who is being served and led if, implicit in the contract between servant leader and led, is the understanding that the search for wholeness is something they share” (p. 201). Further, Greenleaf (1977) emphasizes service to others, holistic community building in the work environment, and shared decision making as a foundation for servant leadership.

In a review of Greenleaf’s essay *The Servant as Leader*, Jensen (n.d.) elaborates on the servant part of this leadership style. “He or she is servant in the sense that more is given to others than is taken away. The leader serves others’ needs as opposed to being self-serving” (p. 1). He describes the leader part of the model as someone who is willing “to take the risks to initiate, to provide the ideology and the structure and, in so doing, go out ahead to show the way” (p. 1).

Greenleaf (1991) cites Herman Hesse's *Journey to the East*, as his inspiration for the idea of servant as leader. In Hesse's novel, he shares the story of Leo, a servant to a band of men on a mythical journey. When Leo disappears, the group falls apart. Years later, Leo is discovered to be the leader of the order that originally sponsored the men's journey. Greenleaf elaborates on this story by indicating that the leader was seen as a servant first and that was the key to his greatness.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a significant difference in the perceptions of various levels of higher education employees regarding servant leadership practices at their respective institutions. This study was conducted at two different institutions and with all levels of employment including entry level, mid-management, and top administration.

Research participants were asked to complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument as developed by Laub (1999). This instrument determines whether or not an institution meets the criteria of a servant organization and measures the perception of servant leadership practices from individuals. The data gathered from the study was analyzed to answer the following research questions:

1. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees in various role groups regarding servant leadership practices within their own institutions?
2. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees at different types of institutions (public 2-year and public 4-year) regarding servant leadership practices?

Significance of Study

Why would it be helpful to engage in a study of servant leadership in higher education? In response to Bennis' claim that today's global society calls for collaboration and shared leadership responsibilities, McKenzie and Swords (2000) assert that educators will face the same challenges as other organizations. They suggest that servant leadership is an appropriate model of leadership for educational settings because of its attributes of empowering others and recognizing that one person does not have all the answers. Bowen (as cited in Birnbaum, 2000) reminds us that "accountability [in higher education] cannot be satisfied if all the results of higher education must be reduced to neat qualitative terms, preferably with dollar signs" (p. 228).

In conducting a search of existing literature on the topic of servant leadership, this researcher found that the majority of research conducted in educational settings was at the primary and secondary levels. Higher education has received little attention and most of that attention has been anecdotal in nature. Therefore, a study of the perceptions of servant leadership practices from higher education leaders would inform practice and future research by providing an insight into whether or not different levels of leaders or those at a certain types of institutions have varying perceptions regarding leadership practices at their institutions.

This study would have significance to practicing higher education administrators who desire to create a strong community of shared leadership throughout their own organization. For example, if the research shows that one level of employees have a significantly different perception of servant leadership practices than other employee groups, they can then begin to address possible reasons for the differences. Additionally, faculty in higher education

administration or similar disciplines can use the research findings when working with graduate students interested in the higher education field. Because servant leadership can be used by both individuals and organizations, professionals in entry- and mid-level positions interested in practicing servant leadership can apply the results of this study when making career decisions of their own.

Glossary of Key Terms

Below are some key terms that are referred to in this study.

Administrative leadership – for the purposes of this study, this term refers to the president of a college or university, his or her direct reports, and deans or directors of divisional units that are charged with the highest levels of administrative responsibilities for the institution.

College access – The opportunity to pursue a college education without penalty due to one’s financial status or academic preparation.

Four-year college or university – Institutions that primarily award a bachelor’s degree.

Governance – The group or individual charged with the governing authority of a political unit or organization (Mish, 1996). In the case of higher education, this usually refers to an external board, a president, and in some cases, faculty members.

Global competence – Brustein (2007) defines global competence as the ability to understand and analyze knowledge in the context of a global world as well as the ability to contribute to that knowledge.

Higher education institution – an institution in any state that is legally authorized by that

state to provide an education beyond secondary education; that awards a bachelor's degree or above or provides a two-year program of study that is acceptable for full credit toward such a degree; that is public or nonprofit; and that is accredited by a nationally recognized accrediting agency or association (Cornell, n.d.).

Private institution – A college or university whose governance and primary financial support come from an organization other than local, state or federal government.

Public institution – A college or university whose governance and primary financial support come from local, state, or federal government.

Religious institution – A private college or university directly governed by a religious organization.

Secular institution – A private college or university governed by an organized group that is not of a religious nature.

Servant leadership – 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)

Servant organization – “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 (Laub, 1999, p. 83).

Two-year college – Institutions that award an associate's degree or provide a two-year program of study designed to be applied towards the completion of a higher degree.

Summary

Chapter one has provided an introduction to the concept of servant leadership and the purpose for this study. Chapter two shares information on higher education and leadership models as presented in existing literature. Additional emphasis is given to the concept of servant leadership. Chapter three reviews the methodology utilized in this study while Chapters four and five present the findings and conclusions drawn from the research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Before delving into the concept of servant leadership as a topic of research within higher education, it is important to understand how higher education in the United States has developed over time as well as what issues and concerns it will face in the future. These institutions have changed from small, primarily self-contained organizations serving prosperous white males to organizations that vary in size, many of which have multiple campuses across the nation and world serving both men and women from varying ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds. In addition, the issues faced by higher education, discussed later in this chapter, have become more complex. Because of these changes, leaders must consider whether or not existing leadership styles are still effective or whether a new style of leadership should be considered. This literature review will first explore the formation of higher education over time, followed by an overview of leadership theories, including servant leadership. Finally, a review of studies on servant leadership will conclude this chapter.

History of Higher Education in the United States

Formation and Early Influences

Religious Influences

Since its inception as a group of colonial colleges in the 1600s, higher education in the United States has tailored itself to meet the needs of its community and to provide a desired service. Early on this service took the form of training ministers for the colonies and teaching Christianity to the Native Americans. That is not surprising considering that clergy were considered at the top of the intellectual class during that time period and in many cases served as

faculty at these institutions (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968). In preparing these ministers, the colonial colleges, also known as Ivy League Schools for the ivy growing on their buildings, based their curriculum on a study of the classics (Iannone, 2004). Smith (1990) refers to this time period as the Classical Christian Consciousness era. As he describes it, the Classical Christian Consciousness was the belief that heaven and earth were governed by natural laws and that “government was, in short, a divine ordinance founded ‘on the necessities of our nature’” (Smith, 1990, p. 29).

Harvard University, established in 1636, was the first of these colonial colleges. Although Harvard University was never formally managed by any particular religious group, it had influences from the Puritans and many of its early graduates became Puritan ministers (Harvard Guide, n.d.). Brubacher and Rudy (1968) discuss the importance of organized Christianity with the founding of the nine pre-Revolutionary colleges. All but the College of Philadelphia were under church control. Later even the College of Philadelphia came under the control of the Anglicans. Religious groups were also concerned about training students for the ministry which was an important aspect of the college charters.

Table 1 shows a list of these nine colleges and the religious groups with whom they are associated.

One reason for the numerous colleges within the various colonies being managed or supported by a variety of religious groups during the 17th and 18th centuries is that “. . . there was no love lost and little tolerance extended between competing denominations” (Thelin, 2004, p. 15). In other words, no one religious group wanted its members being indoctrinated by the philosophy of a competing religious group.

Table 1: Colonial Colleges and their Influencing Religious Groups (Jencks & Riesman, 2001)

Institution (Present name, where different)	Colony	Founded/Chartered	Religious Group of Influence
Harvard College (Harvard University)	Province of Massachusetts Bay	1636/1650	Puritan
The College of William and Mary	Colony and Dominion of Virginia	1693/1693	Anglican
Collegiate School (Yale University)	Connecticut Colony	1701/1701	Puritan (Congregational)
Academy of Philadelphia (University of Pennsylvania)	Province of Pennsylvania	1740/1755	Nonsectarian
College of New Jersey (Princeton University)	Province of New Jersey	1746/1746	Presbyterian
King's College (Columbia University in the City of New York)	Province of New York	1754/1754	Anglican
College of Rhode Island (Brown University)	Colony of Rhode Island & Providence Plantations	1764/1764	Baptist
Queen's College (Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey)	Province of New Jersey	1766/1766	Dutch Reformed
Dartmouth College	Province of New Hampshire	1770/1769	Puritan (Congregational)

Western European Influences

European colleges and universities also provided structure for the fledgling American schools. Harvard University and Yale University were both influenced by English institutions such as Oxford and Cambridge while the College of William and Mary found inspiration early on from such Scottish schools as Marischal College and the University of Edinburgh. Scottish universities provided a model for control by an external board, as opposed to faculty control, that appealed to the colonists (Thelin, 2004). The class structure followed by most American

universities today, namely, freshmen, sophomore, junior and senior, came from England (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968). Rudolph (1962) describes the actions of the early settlers as follows:

Their purposes were complex, but among other things, they intended to re-create a little bit of old England in America. They did what people a long way from home often do, and certainly what Englishmen have often done.

If it was the most natural thing in the world for an officer of the colonial service in the nineteenth century to dress for dinner in the jungle as if he were dining at his club in London, it was no less natural for the Englishmen of early Massachusetts to found themselves a college, an English college such as those they had known at Oxford but particularly at Cambridge where Puritan theology and Puritan aspiration had been especially nurtured. (p. 4)

As the early colleges determined how they wanted to be structured and the missions they would fulfill, one concern they faced was remaining financially viable. Once more, the colonial colleges looked to English tradition in the form of individual benevolence. John Harvard and Elihu Yale, both Englishmen, were the first private benefactors of higher education in the colonies (Rudolph, 1962). This was an important precedent to set as American higher education continued to be dependent upon philanthropy throughout its history (Veysey, 1965).

Independent Structure

Although there were similarities between the colonial colleges and their European counterparts in some of the subjects taught or the structure of the colleges, there were differences as well. In Europe, many of the colleges were linked into a university federation. It was the

colleges that provided instruction but the “university” that conferred degrees. This differed in America where colleges granted themselves the right to confer degrees. Colonial colleges also vested their president with administrative authority (Thelin, 2004).

Another important difference was that the early colonial colleges structured themselves according to their new land and the communities they served. Perhaps due to a lack of funding, these colleges steered away from the self-indulgent ways of their counterparts. Thelin (2004) states, “Furthermore, the various colonial colleges also embodied indigenous efforts at innovation and reform. In fact, the American colleges of the colonial era were remarkable and complex, a hybrid of legacies, transplants, deliberate plans, and unintended adaptations” (p. 10).

With the onset of the Revolutionary War, American colleges began to suffer. Not only did they no longer have England’s financial support, but many of their students and faculty were called into military service (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968). Thelin (2004) explains that campus buildings played an important role in America’s quest for independence. Classrooms were used for patriotic speeches, whereas other buildings were used for hospitals and barracks. “As one alumni society’s bumper sticker proclaimed in 1981, they were the ‘Alma Mater of a nation’” (Thelin, 2004, p. 1).

American Higher Education in the 19th Century

This public interest in the founding of a nation led to an important change for colleges and universities in the 19th century. Clergy began to decline in importance as public leaders; lawyers and statesmen began to take their place (Thelin, 2004). As mentioned previously, the early beginnings of American higher education were known as the Classical Christian Consciousness era. Smith (1990) calls this new era of higher education the Secular Democratic

Consciousness. This particular “consciousness” was suspicious of authority and believed in unrestrained democracy and majority rule. He clarifies “With the skillful encouragement of Jefferson, the Secular Democratic Consciousness became the predominant consciousness, leaving the avatars of the old order to grumble about the pretensions of the great unwashed, or the only slightly washed” (Smith, 1990, p. 31).

The 1800s saw many changes. Not only were there a number of new colleges and universities established during this time, but they began to become more distinct as public versus private institutions. This distinction came, in part, as a result of the growth that was occurring. Rudolph (1962) states:

. . .with the unleashing of hundreds of little colleges, the state governments were financially and emotionally in no position to support them all. Sectarianism, even before the end of the colonial period, had cut off some state support.

In the years after 1820 the sectarian spawning of colleges and the tendency of many institutions to draw students from beyond state boundaries had the effect of diminishing the partnership of state and college, thus emphasizing the private rather than the public nature of the colleges. (p. 187)

Technical Institutions

Other distinctions took place in the 19th century as well. As the country became more industrialized, so did higher education. There was criticism in the early part of the century regarding the lack of practical training in a variety of employment fields, including technology (Veysey, 1965). New colleges and universities opened up in response to this need. In 1802, the United States Congress established the Military Academy thus creating the first technical

institution in the United States (Rudolph, 1962). A couple of decades later, the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute was founded to instruct students “in the art of applying science to husbandry, manufactures, and domestic economy” (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968, p. 63).

Perhaps no other institution has done more to promote technical education than the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (M.I.T.) which opened in 1865. M.I.T. combined original research in applied science with “the diffusion of popular knowledge” thus setting the stage for and the design of numerous technological schools that opened later in the 19th century. In total, there were 42 technological institutes in the United States by the turn of the century (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968).

Land Grant Colleges

Even though individuals were pushing for more practical education than the liberal arts colleges provided, most states did not have enough financial resources to fund these types of colleges. Thus, there was a push for federal support resulting in the land grant colleges. To resolve this issue, Congressman Justin Morrill introduced a bill in 1857 requesting federal aid in support of agricultural and mechanical colleges. Due to differences between the states the bill was not signed until 1862 when most of the southern delegates were off fighting in the Civil War (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968).

With the passage of the Morrill Act of 1862, each state received thirty thousand acres of land for every senator and congressman from the state. The gift of land was not actually from the federal government. Instead states received incentives from the federal government to sell land in the western part of the country. Proceeds from these sales were then used to fund colleges with programs in agriculture, mechanics, mining, and military instruction thus leading to the familiar

“A&M” in many state institutions (Thelin, 2004). The states had five years within which to establish at least one college. The Morrill Act received more funding in 1890, discussed later in this chapter, assisting the state colleges in taking a more dominant role in higher education in the United States (Smith, 1990). The Morrill Act of 1862 is often touted as a piece of legislation that opened up access to public higher education making it more affordable and practical (Thelin, 2004).

Women’s Colleges

Just as the land grant colleges made higher education more accessible to the general public, the establishment of a different type of college in the 19th century opened up this opportunity for women. During the colonial period, women were excluded from attending colleges and universities. During the early to mid-1800s however, there is evidence to indicate that women were enrolled in at least 14 different institutions. The earliest women’s colleges opened in the 1840s and 1850s including Knox University, Wesleyan Female Seminary, and Masonic University (Thelin, 2004). One of the earliest supporters of education for women was Matthew Vassar, a Poughkeepsie brewer. In 1860, he announced his plans to establish a woman’s college that offered similar courses as traditional men’s colleges. He argued that as long as women were taught the more gentle subjects such as homemaking and needlework, society would miss out on what women had to offer (Rudolph, 1962).

The Civil War also aided in bringing women into the intellectual arena. Women were placed in situations normally handled by men and allowed society to see how women could perform. Women themselves were inspired by their ability to handle these challenges and they desired more opportunities to do so (Rudolph, 1962). Rudolph posits, “The intellectual stimulus

and excitement in the women's colleges were in large measure generated by the conviction on the part of the students that they were engaged in a great new venture" (Smith, 1990, p. 93).

Higher education for women was not always welcomed with open arms. However, the movement did receive support in a round about way from conservative groups. Thelin (2004) states that groups in the South who opposed higher education for women often felt it was better to open their own women's colleges closer to home rather than to send their young women to northern colleges. Across the country, Catholic families had similar feelings in that they preferred to send their daughters to Catholic women's colleges rather than to Methodist institutions. As a result of these mixed motives, women's colleges became an important part of the American higher education landscape after 1850.

Historically Black Colleges and Universities

In the early history of American higher education, there is some evidence that blacks attended college, but on a very limited scale. In many southern states during slavery years, it was a crime to teach blacks to read or write (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968). The first two blacks graduated in 1828 from Bowdoin and Ohio University; however, by 1860 there were only 28 black graduates (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968; Rudolph, 1962).

Even so, there were institutes that supported education of blacks including the Avery College for Negroes and the Miner Academy for Negro girls. These were, however, on the level of elementary and secondary schools, not colleges (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968). Oberlin Institute, a new college, opened its doors to men, women and blacks in 1834. Many of its students became leaders in the anti-slavery cause (Smith, 1990). And in the mid-1800s, Frederick Augustus Porter Barnard, president of Columbia College, expressed a desire for coeducation including the

education of former Negro slaves (Veysey, 1965).

It was, however, the refunding of the Morrill Act in 1890 that really provided access to blacks, albeit not necessarily in the most desirable way. One stipulation of the act was that states would not receive funding if they denied admission to the colleges based on race. The exception to this was that they could provide separate but equal facilities. Seventeen states did just that (Rudolph, 1962). These institutions were, unfortunately, underfunded in disproportionate ways as their counterparts including facilities, salaries and staffing. Thelin (2004) describes this as the “gains and limits of higher education in the Progressive era” (p. 135).

Religiously Affiliated Colleges

The 19th century also saw an increase in the number of liberal arts colleges founded by religious denominations. Many of these colleges sprang up in the west as a means of removing the “moral darkness” in the western wilderness. Brubacher and Rudy (1968) state “. . . organized evangelical groups from Yankeedom were fighting hard to win the soul of the West from the clutches of ‘atheism, infidelity, the slaveholder, and the Pope’” (p. 73). One impetus behind this interest in denominational colleges was a revivalism of the Christian missionary spirit (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968).

This Christian revivalism was apparent in James McCosh’s inaugural address as president of Princeton in 1868, (as cited in Veysey, 1965), in which he stated:

I do hold it to be the highest end of a University to educate; that is, draw out and improve the faculties which God has given. Our Creator, no doubt, means all things in our world to be perfect in the end; but he has not made them perfect; he has left room for growth and progress; and it is a task laid on his intelligent creatures to be

fellow-workers with him in finishing that work which he has left incomplete. (p. 23)

Religious denominations were responsible for the founding of 45 colleges in Kentucky, Illinois and Iowa in the 1860s. In Ohio alone, 17 colleges were opened by various religious groups (Rudolph, 1962). Unfortunately, many of these colleges, especially those started by Protestant groups did not survive. Just over a hundred college out of five hundred founded before the Civil War survived to become permanent institutions (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968).

In contrast, the Roman Catholics were quite successful in their efforts to open up new colleges. The first Catholic institution, Georgetown College was founded in 1789 and by the end of the 19th century there were 63 Roman Catholic colleges (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968). The success of the Roman Catholic colleges was due in part to an increase in the immigration of diverse ethnic groups. These colleges tended to enroll students whose families came from Ireland, Italy and Eastern Europe thus creating a more diverse picture within higher education by the turn of the century (Thelin, 2004).

Graduate Schools

Finally, another type of institution that grew in numbers during the 19th century was the graduate school offering advanced degrees. In the early part of the century many Americans were flocking to Germany in the pursuit of advanced degrees because there were few opportunities back home in America. At first, American universities had no desire to follow in the footsteps of the German universities. It was not until America's technological needs expanded that a need for advanced studies was felt. A higher skill level was now demanded in the professional and scientific fields (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968). This need coincided with many Americans amassing large fortunes through the railroad, mining, steel and lumber industries

which provided funding for graduate study (Smith, 1990). John Hopkins used his fortune in railway stock to open his prestigious graduate school in 1867, an institution that became “the first substantial American effort to support pure scholarship” (Rudolph, 1962, p. 244). The founding of John Hopkins was also instrumental in creating standards for doctorates. It was at this institution that doctoral dissertations were required to be printed (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968).

The first Ph.D. was conferred upon Josiah Willard Gibbs in 1863 by Yale University (Thelin, 2004). By 1876, twenty-five other institutions were awarding Ph.D. degrees. The awarding of these degrees indicated that more advanced study was desired. With the founding of John Hopkins, graduate study began to be offered in separate schools from undergraduate study (Rudolph, 1962, p. 335).

The seminar style of instruction became the preferred way to present graduate studies in American institutions. It was described as, “an assemblage of teachers with a number of selected advanced students, where methods of original research are expounded, where the creative faculty is trained and where the spirit of scientific independence is inculcated” (Veysey, 1965, p. 154).

In summary, the 19th century saw many changes for American higher education. Rudolph (1962) concludes:

College-founding in the nineteenth century was undertaken in the same spirit as canal-building, cotton-ginning, farming, and gold-mining. In none of these activities did completely rational procedures prevail. All were touched by the American faith in tomorrow, in the unquestionable capacity of Americans to achieve a better world. (p. 48)

American Higher Education in the 20th Century

Accreditation of Colleges and Universities

At the turn of the century, colleges and universities began to focus on the quality of higher education particularly as it related to advanced degrees. This was due, in part, to the large number of students choosing to pursue advanced degrees at German institutions instead of American institutions. A movement began to “accredit” all institutions and to bring the standards of American education up to a level comparable to its European counterparts (Veysey, 1965). It was at this time that 14 institutions formed the Association of American Universities. This association created minimum standards regarding academic residence, examinations, and the dissertation process. All accredited institutions were expected to conform to these standards (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968). Other associations were forming at the same time including the National Association of State Universities and the Association of Land-Grant Colleges. By 1906 these groups, along with others, came together to discuss common interests of standardization. It was from this meeting that the effort to develop university accreditation began (Rudolph, 1962).

Coinciding with the creation of the associations was the publication of the book, *Great American Universities*, the result of two years of research at various colleges and universities by author Edwin Slosson. Slosson also coined the term S.A.U. which stood for Standard American University. This label was meant to provide structure when identifying great institutions of higher learning (Thelin, 2004).

Thelin (2004) notes “philosophical arguments and extravagant designs were the order of the day, but it was an open forum that had no expert jury to impose standards” (p. 112). Even members of the Association of American Universities did not want to take on the responsibility of evaluating other campuses, but external pressures forced the group to assume this responsibility. Together, the Association and the United States Bureau of Education drew up a

list of colleges whose graduates were prepared for graduate study, however the list was never published and the federal government eventually pulled out of the standardization process. Several years passed, then in 1914 the Association of American Universities finally published its own list. Higher education professionals finally came to realize that as a profession they had reached a point where they could regulation themselves without policing from government agencies (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968, p. 358). The federal government was happy to be relieved of this responsibility and put its stamp of approval on voluntary accrediting agencies, thus regional associations such as: the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, the Western Association of Schools and Colleges, and the North Central Association were born (Thelin, 2004).

College Admission Requirements

Another area of concern for colleges and universities at the turn of the century was the lack of standard admissions practices. Prior to that time, colleges relied on very basic examinations of college readiness or upon agreements with a particular high school (Thelin, 2004). As late as 1892, one university, in an attempt to increase enrollment, even offered “to pay \$25 to the agricultural student who made the best five pounds of butter” (Rudolph, 1962, p. 260). Private universities, in particular, relied upon tuition dollars in order to survive financially and thus tended to relax whatever admissions standards they had in order to increase class enrollments. But, it was becoming apparent that lowering standards too much discredited the worth of a college or university’s degree (Veysey, 1965).

Over time, and with the success of American public high schools, college and university campuses, actually became saturated with students thus providing another reason to be more selective with admissions. College admissions offices began to consider more closely the

academic records of its applicants. Methods to assess this varied by institutions but often included having applicants take the College Entrance Examination in June or a series of entrance examinations particular to the college itself. Those were usually offered in September just before the start of classes (Thelin, 2004).

Junior and Community Colleges

During the early part of the 20th century, William R. Harper, first president of the University of Chicago, and David Starr Jordan, first president of Stanford University, advocated the idea of junior colleges. It was their idea that higher education should be divided into two parts. It was thought that the lower division might serve to attract those students who had never considered a college education before (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968; Veysey, 1965). In describing this system, Rudolph (1962) states:

. . . the first to be known as the junior college or academic college, where the spirit would be collegiate and preparatory, and the second to be known as the senior college or the university college, where the spirit would be advanced and scholarly; a university where a system of major and minor studies permitted a student to pursue one subject in depth while devoting less time to another. (p. 351)

At this time, industry continued to expand its role in American society and there was a need to educate workers for this purpose. Junior colleges filled this need quite well by offering continuing education and certification for a variety of business and professional fields. They also offered advanced courses that served to retrain those individual already possessing bachelor's or master's degrees (Cohen & Brawer, 2003; Rudolph, 1962; Thelin, 2004).

Another attraction of these types of institutions were their affordability and close

proximity to small communities, hence the term “community college.” By mid-century, there were 456 junior or community colleges serving 168,043 students. Within the next two decades, enrollment reached about 2.1 million. And, in 1980, more than half of first time freshmen were enrolled in a two-year institution (Thelin, 2004). Smith (1990) describes the community colleges as follows:

These institutions, with close ties to their parent communities, free for the most part of the snobbish pursuit of the latest academic fads that so warp their university counterparts, and free also of the unremitting pressure to publish or perish, are, I believe, the hope of higher education in America. (p. 19)

Trends in Leadership and Governance Model

Near the end of the 19th century, the American university began to take on the structure and form represented in most universities today. Prior to that time, ideas about what a university should encompass came mostly from university presidents or from founding benefactors. Thelin (2004) comments that it was difficult to determine whether great universities were the result of grand philosophies or eccentric whims.

As institutions grew in size and scope, it was necessary to develop a governance structure that could effectively handle the many concerns and issues faced by higher education. The governance structure that eventually evolved included three different entities: the president, the faculty, and an oversight group. Oversight groups were typically either a board of trustees or regents or a state governing body (Veysey, 1965). This is a model that prevails at most American universities today. Veysey explains:

The shift of emphasis which occurred after 1890 marked no about-face in academic circles; rather it saw the maturing of an organization too powerful and complex to be explained by the several ideas which had sought to preside over its founding. (Veysey, 1965, p. 259)

The President's Role

The president's role has changed somewhat as colleges and universities have developed over time. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, one role that has not changed is that college presidents at American universities were vested with administrative authority during the formative years of these institutions, a situation radically different from their European counterparts (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968; Thelin, 2004). Another similarity between the early years and modern times are that presidents were and still are expected to engage in fundraising and politics (Thelin, 2004).

One change that took place however was that around the end of the 19th century university presidents began to pull away from classroom teaching as administrative responsibilities, such as managing growing college endowments, became greater and greater. In fact, it was noted that colleges and universities began to be conducted in a manner more closely resembling modern business (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968; Veysey, 1965).

Oversight Groups

The influence of business affected the makeup of oversight groups as well as the president's role. Although some form of oversight group was usually the norm with colleges and universities from the very beginning of their existence, these groups were usually made up of

clergymen or representatives of private benefactors (Rudolph, 1962; Thelin, 2004). With the growth of industry in the early 1900s, the nation's population had a larger number of professionals such as bankers, lawyers and merchants. Businessmen made up about one-third of the membership on educational governing boards (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968; Thelin, 2004).

Members of these boards, or trustees as they are often called, serve as volunteers who represent the interests of the greater community. Because they share power with the university president, they serve as a check and balance to the authority held by that individual (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968).

Today, state governments usually play a role with oversight groups both for public and private universities. Trustees for public universities are often appointed by the governor of a state. And, although private universities usually have more leeway in selecting their own trustees, state governments still hold some authority since private universities receive their charter to exist from the state. If deemed necessary by the state, the charter may be revoked or the trustees removed. Thelin (2004) states:

All colleges and universities are – and always have been – “public” institutions in that they are obliged to adhere to their charter and abide by laws, rules, and codes ranging from safety requirements in the workplace to the larger issues of mission and malfeasance. (p. 73)

Faculty

Perhaps the group that has seen the most change over time with regard to its role in university governance is the faculty. Whereas English universities gave faculty a great deal of authority, just the opposite occurred at American institutions (Thelin, 2004). One example of this

lack of authority occurred at Harvard University at the end of the seventeenth century. Although a few faculty members did hold positions as fellows of the corporation of Harvard University, when the faculty overall tried to gain more control of the university, the overseers retaliated by filling vacancies on the corporation with non-faculty members. No more faculty members were chosen after 1806 (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968).

Faculty were more successful in their attempts to gain power between 1890 to 1920. It was during this time that several faculty members came close to losing their jobs because they were viewed as “socially radical” (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968, p. 368). Presidents and boards of trustees began to realize that the faculty was not going to take such abuses lying down. In commenting on the view of a prominent Harvard professor, Brubacher and Rudy (1968) stated, “Louis Agassiz, contended that the United States would never understand the nature of a university as long as its intellectual interests were determined, not by professors inside the university, but by a board of outside lay governors” (p. 371).

At the end of World War I, the American Association of University Professors came into existence. One of their top priorities was helping faculty to gain more authority in university governance. As a result, faculty began to hold seats on boards of trustees; be consulted in matters relating to appointments, promotions and dismissals; and to be included in policy matters (Brubacher & Rudy, 1968).

Flynn (as cited in Simplicio, 2006) defines this shared governance between the president, trustees and faculty as a shared responsibility that would serve to advance the overall educational policy of the institution.

Future Issues for Higher Education

Just as American universities saw great changes in the past, they are expected to see great changes in the future as well. Depending on whose information one believes, higher education in the United States is either doomed to fail or is posed to make great strides as the nation enters into the 21st century. Yankelovich (2006) believes that higher education may fail in its responsibility to society. “It has too many constituencies to satisfy, too many traditions, too many constraints on it to lend it the flexibility – or political will – to adapt rapidly to the outside world” (Yankelovich, 2006, p. 43). Castagnera (2002) disagrees, stating that American higher education is respected around the world and enters this century with certain advantages.

Regardless of which end of the spectrum one may fall, both sides agree that there are several issues facing higher education institutions in the United States. Higher education’s success or failure depends, in part, to its response to these many issues. Chief among these are access to college, changing demographics, lack of science and technology graduates, and global concerns (Blumenstyk, 2005; Diament, 2005; Greenberg, 2006; Hoff, 1999; Yankelovich, 2005).

Access to College

In speaking of the importance of access to college as it relates to societal values, Yankelovich (2006) asserts:

Our nation’s core values of equality and freedom pull us in opposite directions. The more equal we become, the less freedom people have to break out of the pack. The freer people are to pursue their own path, the less equality there is. In our culture we accept large inequalities as long as genuine equality of opportunity prevails. That is why access to higher education is a passionate concern of our political life – it is the principal mechanism for making America’s unwritten social compact work. (p. 50)

Two things sit in the way of that access however: affordability of and preparation for college.

Affordability

Ewell (2005) cites studies by the Congressional Advisory Committee on Student Financial Assistance and the Pell Institute that indicate that 22 percent of low socio-economic high school graduates who are otherwise qualified for college will not go to college because of their financial situation. Since the last decade of the 20th century, the unmet financial need of students from the lowest socio-economic group has increased by 80 percent. Overall, college tuition costs have risen more sharply than inflation, per-capita income, and cost of health care (Rhodes, 2006). “The Commission on National Investment in Higher Education (1996) projects that if tuition in postsecondary institutions continues to increase at its current rate, it will nearly double by 2015,” leading to a situation where nearly half of all students seeking a higher education degree will be unable to attend (Anderson, Alfonso, & Sun, 2006, p. 438).

The Commission on the Future of Higher Education, established by Secretary of Education Margaret Spellings, has considered financial funding for needy students as a top priority (Dillon, 2006). Finding this funding will not be easy since state support for higher education has dropped over the past several years (Field, 2006; Hebel, 2005; Rhodes, 2006; Yankelovich, 2006).

Hebel (2005) states that the financial future for students and colleges isn't completely bleak however, since alternative sources are being tapped for financial support. One of these alternative sources is “fee-for-service contracts that give money to public colleges for producing specific results, such as graduating more students in engineering and other high-demand fields”

(Hebel, 2005, p. A15). Another area of financial support is from employers who pay for their employees to develop new skills by attending college (Yankelovich, 2005).

Community colleges are also providing access to colleges for those students who normally would be unable to afford a higher education degree. They are able to do this with a larger number of students at a lower cost per student (Anderson, Alfonso and Sun, 2006) This, coupled with the fact that more statewide articulation agreements exist between community colleges and four-year institutions, is also bringing more disadvantaged students closer to attaining bachelors and graduate degrees.

Preparation for College

Another area of concern, however, as it relates to access to higher education is the preparation, or lack thereof, that students are receiving as they prepare for college. In two companion national studies conducted by the Chronicle of Higher Education, 84 percent of college faculty members and 65 percent of high school teachers indicated that “high school graduates are either unprepared or are only somewhat prepared to pursue a college degree” (Sanoff, 2006, p. B9). A similar report issued by ACT stated that less than 25 percent of high school graduates taking the ACT exam met the college-readiness benchmarks tested (Rosenfeld, 2005).

College preparation is of even greater concern for minority and low socio-economic groups. Darling-Hammond (as cited in Chapa, 2005) argues that minority students have continued to be denied the same quality and quantity of educational resources as their white counterparts. Allen (2005) discusses how minority groups, especially African Americans have historically been denied access to education, first as slaves and later through segregation.

Although segregation was outlawed with the Supreme Court's decision in *Brown v. the Board of Education* in 1954, Carriuolo (2004) argues that it still exists. She states:

America's public schools are still unequal; the most under-resourced are still located in tax-poor urban areas. As long as educational opportunity continues to be denied to students due to inferior facilities, low-quality materials, and inexperienced teachers in such K-12 schools, developmental educators will continue to have a steady stream of underprepared students crossing the thresholds of their college classrooms. (Carriuolo, 2004, p.20)

In a 2005 report issued by the National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, it was shown that degree attainment for college-age Latinos and African Americans was less than half of that of whites and Asians. Factors leading to this outcome include failure to complete college preparatory courses, delayed college attendance, and sporadic or part-time attendance (Green, 2006).

Furthermore, the Spellings Report, prepared by the Commission on the Future of Higher Education, calls for more cooperation between primary and secondary educational institutions with post-secondary institutions to create a simpler and more straight-forward process of gaining access to higher education (Spellings, 2006). States are beginning to pay attention to this directive. A Washington non-profit organization, Achieve Inc., noted that 12 states developed high school requirements that meet college and universities' admissions requirements with an additional 32 states working toward this goal (Vance, 2007). The "Closing the Gaps by 2015" plan in Texas calls for all high school students to be enrolled in the college-preparatory curriculum. Students can opt out of this program only with the permission of their parents and

school officials (“Recent Developments,” 2001). It is imperative that states work towards better access to higher education for all citizens since failure to do so will lead to a decrease in the number of college graduates overall and a drop in per capita personal income of Americans, an economic situation states can hardly afford (Field, 2006).

Changing Demographics

Minority/Majority Groups

Diversity in higher education settings is of even greater concern when one considers that minorities, specifically the Hispanic population, are increasing rapidly within the United States. This particular group grew by 57% between 1990 and 2000 as compared to 13% for the total population. The Hispanic population is expected to see continued growth at rates much larger than the U.S. population for several more decades (Chapa & De La Rosa, 2006). In California, Hispanics now represent the majority population within the state (Anderson, Alfonso, & Sun, 2006). Over half of the nation’s Hispanics live in California and Texas alone (Chapa, 2005; Chapa & De La Rosa, 2006).

In an attempt to create a more diversified student body, Texas has implemented the Top 10% plan which requires all Texas public universities to admit any student who graduates in the top 10% of his or her high school class. Chapa (2005) states, “The Top 10% plan apparently has the potential to revolutionize access to higher education in Texas and wherever else such an approach is adopted” (p. 189).

Aging Population

Another area of changing demographics relates to the aging of the U.S. population. In the early 1900s life expectancy was 47 years whereas today it is 90 years. This means that the 18- to

30-year-old students are extending their college years and older individuals are coming back to school in their retirement years (Yankelovich, 2006). A 2002 study by the American Council on Education found that 3 percent of part-time and full-time undergraduate students were 50 or older (Andom, 2007). Another study by the National Center for Education Statistics indicates that over one-third of college students are 25 or older (Justice & Dornan, 2001).

In adapting to the needs of an older population, higher education institutions must understand how the educational experience of older students differs from that of younger students. Often older students attend for different reasons such as personal interest than younger students who may be attending because of parental or peer expectations (Justice & Dornan, 2001). Older students also tend to study differently than their younger counterparts, focusing on a deeper comprehension of the material (Justice & Dorana, 2001). Colleges and universities must also be aware of some of the barriers standing in the way of older students pursuing a college education including negative attitudes of older students, lack of money or transportation, and complicated adult responsibilities (Andom, 2007). It will be contingent upon colleges and universities to adopt strategies that insure that the older generation of students have positive educational experiences.

Science and Technology

Another challenge facing American colleges and universities today is their role in relation to science and technology. Yankelovich (2006) believes that our nation's fate and superpower status, our competitiveness and standard of living, all depend on how well our nation can keep up with demands in this area. And, he believes that higher education plays a role in meeting those demands.

Today's college students, the millennials, are quite comfortable with technology as it relates to their overall learning environment (Selingo & Carlson, 2006) however, few of these students are actually entering the science and technology fields as a course of study (Yankelovich, 2006). According to the National Science Foundation, the number of science and engineering majors earning a doctorate in those fields has fallen from 12 to 6 percent during the last quarter of the 20th century (Reynolds, 1989). Reynolds (1989) states:

Without world-class scientists and engineers to draw the blueprints for American industry and unlock the secrets of our natural world, America is destined not to lead, but to wallow in the wake of a world that is passing it by. (p.1)

Recent practices in higher education may actually have contributed to this lack of science and engineering graduates. Experts in these fields pride themselves on only selecting the best and brightest. Many programs have been designed to force weak students out, not help them succeed (Yankelovich, 2006). In an effort to reverse these practices, Texas has established the Texas Engineering and Technical Consortium designed to attract more students into the computer science and engineering fields ("Recent Developments," 2001).

Global Concerns

A final challenge mentioned previously is that of preparing college graduates for a more global society. Marginson and van der Wende (2007) state:

Now the growing impact of the global environment in and through higher education systems and institutions is inescapable. Cross-border flows, relations, cooperation, and competition have become essential dimensions of national policy making and of the strategic apparatus of executive and disciplinary leaders in individual higher education

institutions. (p. 306)

Brustein (2007) agrees with Marginson and van der Wende that higher education institutions must prepare graduates who are globally competent. He defines global competence as the ability to understand and analyze knowledge in the context of a global world as well as the ability to contribute to that knowledge. Skills necessary to achieve this competence include the capacity to “work effectively in international settings; awareness of and adaptability to diverse cultures, perceptions, and approaches; familiarity with the major currents of global change and the issues they raise; and the capacity for effective communication across cultural and linguistic boundaries” (Brustein, 2007, p. 383).

Both Dillon (2006) and Greenberg (2006) believe that America’s colleges and universities must make significant changes if they are to be competitive on the international level. A few of the reasons cited as deficiencies in international competitiveness include a lack of geographic knowledge, low participation in study abroad programs, and a decline in the study of foreign languages (Brustein, 2007). However, some universities are making strides in the area of global competence through integrating international studies with general education curriculum, utilizing the expertise of international students, making funding more readily available for study abroad and exchange programs (Burn, 2002) and creating alliances with international universities (Chan, 2004).

In emphasizing the need to prepare graduates to work in a global society, Burn (2002) quotes Martin Luther King, Jr. as saying “Men hate each other because they fear each other, and they fear each other because they don’t know each other, and they don’t know each other because they are often separated from each other” (p. 259).

Leadership Theories

Early Concepts of Leadership

There are perhaps as many definitions of leadership as there are leadership experts. Burns (1979) defines leadership as “leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations—the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations—of both leaders and followers” (p. 381). Hesburgh (as cited in Johns & Moser, 2001) describes leadership as more of a thing of mystery, something that defies description. Instead, he talks more about the results of good leadership which include: strong morale, maintained order, and people working toward common goals.

Early on, as individuals attempted to put labels on leadership theories, one philosophy presented was that leadership was about the traits that leaders possessed. Tead (1935) of Columbia University developed his own list of traits that varied from nervous energy to technical mastery. Other studies, including those conducted through the University of Michigan and The Ohio State University, challenged the views that leadership was tied to a leader’s traits. Their studies suggested that leadership was more of a process that changed depending on the individuals involved and their respective situation.

During the 1960s and 1970s, the term participative leadership began being used to describe a leadership movement that encouraged organizations to reduce or eliminate the power differences between leaders and followers (Johns & Moser, 2001). It is interesting to note that it was about this time that Robert Greenleaf began developing the concept of servant leadership, a concept that shares some of the same philosophical ideas of participative leadership. Other, more commonly known leadership theories are described below.

Situational Leadership

Going back to the concept introduced by the University of Michigan and The Ohio State University studies that leadership is based on the situations that leaders and followers are in ties in nicely with the theory of situational leadership. This theory was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1979). It indicates that leaders are usually more hands-on in situations where followers are in the early learning stages of a particular task or responsibility. As the follower(s) develop more skill and understanding concerning that task, the leader can take a step away from such direct supervision.

The effectiveness of situational leadership has been questioned with regard to the ability of leaders to adapt their style to various situations. Hershey and Blanchard (as cited in Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992) countered that argument by stating that, with training, leaders could develop the ability to work under different situations.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership, on the other hand, is based more upon a reward structure. Leaders clarify what is expected from followers and in return offer rewards that are of value to the worker (Barnett & McCormick, 2004; Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). According to some authors (Giampetro-Meyer, Brown, Browne, & Kubasek, 1998; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004), this type of leadership is most effective in bureaucratic organizations that need to maximize short-term financial returns. Giampetro-Meyer et al. (1998) caution, however, that this type of leadership, if not handled carefully, can lead to unethical behavior on the part of either the leader or the follower based on how deeply they desire the outcome or the reward.

Transformational Leadership

In contrast, transformational leadership calls for a leader to develop a vision and then create an environment that inspires followers (Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992; Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). According to Barnett and McCormick (2004), transformational leaders and followers work to motivate each other with an expectation of morality. Bernard Bass, a leading expert on transformational leadership indicates that transformational leadership has shown to be more effective than transactional leadership in generating extra effort and commitment from followers (Wilcox & Rush, 2003). Bass indicated that transformational leaders tend to instill trust, admiration and respect from their followers, motivating them to do more than expected (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002).

However, some of Bass' (1985) early works indicated the possibility of negative impacts of transformational leadership suggesting that followers might behave in unethical ways depending on the level of trust and influence garnered by the leader. Bass and Steidlmeier's (1999) later work, however, reversed Bass' position on the negative image of transformational leaders. They made a distinction between authentic transformational leaders and pseudo-transformational leaders. Pseudo-transformational leaders are those that, on the surface, appear to have the characteristics associated with true transformational leadership, but have a moral foundation that lack integrity.

Transformational leadership has often been compared to servant leadership in that both concepts seem to share some common characteristics. For example, transformational leaders involve followers more fully than the previous styles described above. The leaders provide opportunities for employee development and attend to their needs for growth and advancement (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004).

One difference between transformational leadership and servant leadership is that transformational leaders tend to be charismatic leaders. That is not to say that servant leaders cannot be charismatic. However, in the case of servant leaders, personality is not the primary focus for followers. Such is not always the case in transformational leadership where a charismatic personality is often the draw for follower inspiration (Giampetro-Meyer et al., 1998).

Servant Leadership

As noted, servant leadership has often been compared to transformational leadership. There are some fundamental differences however. One primary difference is the role of the leader. With transformational leadership, the leader takes a central, “in the spotlight” type of role whereas a servant leader takes on the role of servant to his or her followers (Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, 2004).

Another difference is that transformational leaders are more concerned with the goals of the organization. Concern for employees is just a way to a means of reaching organizational goals. With servant leadership, the focus is just the opposite. A servant leader is more concerned with followers than with the organization. But it is assumed that there will be organizational health if the leaders and followers are working together for a shared vision (Johns & Moser, 2001; Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, 2004).

Spears (2004), Greenleaf’s successor at the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, developed a set of ten characteristics of servant leadership that initially served as the basis for early research done on the subject. The ten characteristics are as follows:

1. Foresight – an ability to learn from the lessons of the past and present in determining an appropriate course of action for the future.

2. Committed to the growth of people – a recognition of the intrinsic value of people and an encouragement of their development.
3. Conceptualization – the ability to identify core values and to communicate those to others.
4. Persuasion – the gift of motivating others to implement change through convincing instead of coercing or using positional authority.
5. Listening – a response of listening first to identify the needs of the group or individual coupled with the ability to reflect upon one’s inner voice.
6. Acceptance and empathy – treats others with dignity and respect and recognizes their special gifts.
7. Awareness – has an accurate perception of one’s current strengths and weaknesses as well as surrounding conditions.
8. Community building – nurtures a spirit of cooperation and teamwork.
9. Stewardship – utilizes resources wisely as a means of serving the needs of others first.
10. Healing – sees to the emotional needs of others (Spears, 2004).

Wong and Page (2003) have further defined the characteristics of servant leadership and have organized them into four categories (1) Character-Orientation including integrity, humility, and servanthood; (2) People-Orientation including caring for others; empowering others, and developing others; (3) Task-Orientation including visioning, goal setting, and leading; and (4) Process-Orientation including modeling, team building, and shared decision-making. Passion, courage and integrity are other characteristics used to define servant leaders (Bolman & Deal, 2002).

Laub (1999) conducted a three-part Delphi study designed to determine the characteristics of servant leadership as agreed upon by experts on the subject. As part of this research, he created the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment (later shortened to Organizational Leadership Assessment) as an instrument that assesses whether or not an organization possesses the characteristics of a servant organization. Central to this study are the definitions of servant leadership and servant organization developed by Laub (1999). These are shown in Table 2 below.

Studies of Servant Leadership

Developing the Concept of Servant Leadership

Greenleaf's (1977) original work was not based on research, but on his own experience with, and observations of, a variety of organizations. Research on the subject has attempted to create a working model of this theory along with an agreed upon set of characteristics. After

studying Greenleaf's writings, Spears (2004) developed a list of characteristics that others have used as the basis for continued research on the subject. His characteristics included: foresight, commitment to the growth of people, conceptualization, persuasion, listening, acceptance and empathy, awareness, community building, stewardship, and healing.

Russell and Stone (2002) conducted an extensive review of servant leadership literature which resulted in the Servant Leadership Model shown in Figure 2. Their work revealed nine functional attributes and eleven accompanying attributes of servant leadership.

Table 2: Laub's Servant Leadership and Servant Organization Model (1999, p. 83)

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 • Be 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
<p align="center">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.</p>	

Similar results were found in the research of Page and Wong (2000) and Dennis and Winston (2003), both of which served to develop the concept of servant leadership. The result was a similar set of characteristics that could be used to describe the servant leadership model. Page and Wong's research, conducted with six leaders and 18 students, was small in scope but the results did lead to the creation of a Servant Leadership Profile that included four domains of leadership including: personality, relationship, task, and process orientations (Page & Wong, 2000).

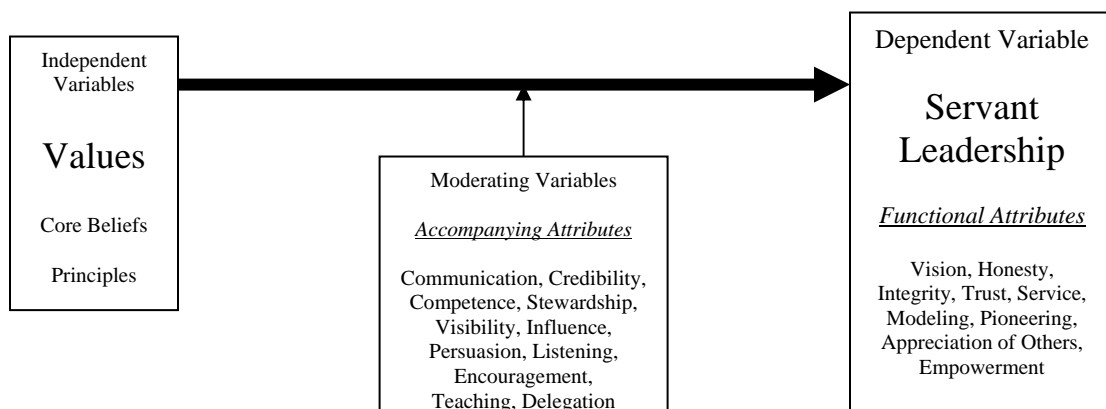


Figure 2: Russell and Stone’s Servant Leadership Model

Dennis and Winston (2003) took Page and Wong’s work one step further by conducting a factor analysis test. Their research was done with two separate samples: 100 participants from a variety of settings and 429 individuals chosen from the StudyResponse Database at the Georgia Institute of Technology. Dennis and Winston’s factor analysis produced three factors which the researchers labeled empowerment, service, and vision. Dennis and Winston’s work supports that of Page and Wong’s but they concluded that more research was needed on the subject (Dennis & Winston, 2003).

Table 3 shows a comparison of common characteristics from the studies noted above. Similar wording is inserted under the particular study for which the characteristic is associated. In the case of Dennis and Winston’s study, the words in the paragraphs refer to the overarching factors developed in their study.

Table 3: Common Characteristics Among Servant Leadership Studies

Spears	Page & Wong	Dennis & Winston	Russell & Stone
Foresight	Visioning	Awareness of Benefit to Society (Vision)	Vision/ Pioneering
Commitment to the Growth of People	Empowering Others/ Developing Others	Bringing Out the Best in Others (Empowerment)	Empowerment/ Teaching
Conceptualization	Goal Setting	Setting Goals (Empowerment)	

Persuasion	Leading/ Modeling	Coming Up with Solutions Accepted by Others/Modeling (Empowerment) Able to Articulate a Clear Sense of Purpose/Able to Inspire Others/ Leading by Example (Vision)	Modeling/ Influence/ Persuasion
Listening			Communication/ Listening
Acceptance and Empathy	Caring for others	Valuing Team Members (Empowerment)	Appreciation of Others
Awareness		Willingness to Have Ideas Challenged (Empowerment) Able to Learn from Subordinates (Service)	Competence
Community Building	Team Building/ Shared Decision Making	Utilizing People's Differences as a Contribution to the Group (Empowerment)	Delegation
Stewardship			Stewardship
Healing		Forgiving (Empowerment)	Encouragement
	Integrity	Driven by a Higher Calling/ Driven by Values that Transcend Self-Interests (Vision)	Honesty/ Integrity/Trust/ Credibility
	Humility	Willing to Share His or Her Power with Others (Empowerment)	
	Servanthood	Not Asking Others to Do What He or She is Unwilling to Do (Empowerment) Not Seeking Recognition or Rewards/ Willing to Make Personal Sacrifices/ Seeking to Serve Rather than Be Served (Service)	Service
		Believing that Leadership is More of a Responsibility Than a Position (Service)	
		Focused and Disciplined (Vision)	
			Visibility

Assessment Instruments

Building upon the research that developed a description of servant leadership, various researchers have been interested in determining whether or not the use of servant leadership in

organizations could be assessed through written instruments. Two examples of this are the work conducted by Dennis (2004) and Laub (1999). Both researchers used a Delphi study to construct and validate an instrument that could then be used to measure servant leadership.

Dennis' research resulted in the Servant Leadership Survey instrument and Laub's research resulted in the Organizational Leadership Assessment (originally known as the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment). Both studies were conducted with the use of expert panels comprised of individuals who either taught, or published, on the subject of servant leadership. After constructing items for the Likert-scale instruments, both were pre-field tested with small groups prior to a larger scale field test. In each situation, the instruments were altered based on the results of the pre-field tests. Dennis' field test was then conducted with 280 participants while Laub's study was conducted with 847 (828 usable responses) participants.

In both cases, the researchers found that servant leadership could be assessed using a written instrument. Dennis' instrument measures five factors of servant leadership including love, empowerment, vision, humility and trust (Dennis, 2004). Laub's instrument measures six factors which are values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership (Laub, 1999). A seventh factor, job satisfaction, was added later (Laub, 2003). Laub's instrument is more fully described in Chapter 3 as it is the instrument used in this study.

Additional Studies

Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction

In the past few years as the concept of servant leadership has garnered more interest, studies about the subject have occurred that have compared the practice of servant leadership to other organizational dynamics. Common among these studies are the comparison of servant leadership practices and job satisfaction (Drury, 2004; Hebert, 2003; Thompson, 2002; and Washington, 2007). These studies were conducted in various industries and organizations including: academic institutions, daycares, community foundations, journalism, public works, health care, government, and high-tech. Results from each of these studies showed a statistically significant positive correlation between the existence of servant leadership practices and job satisfaction.

Servant Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Drury's (2004) and Washington's (2007) studies, along with Joseph and Winston's (2005), also dealt with the correlation between servant leadership and organizational commitment. Drury's study found that servant leadership was inversely correlated to organizational commitment; a result that was unexpected based on information in the literature. One possible explanation for these results, as offered by Drury, are that several employees in the institution studied were within their first year of employment. Another explanation offered was that the institution had gone through significant changes within the previous five year period (Drury, 2004). Conversely, Washington's results and Joseph and Winston's showed a statistically significant positive correlation between servant leadership and organizational commitment (Joseph & Winston, 2005; Washington, 2007).

Higher Education Study

Iken (2005) utilized the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument to conduct a two-part study on the perceptions of higher education leaders as they related to servant leadership practices. In one part of her study, she focused on the perceptions of faculty members and administrators while the second part focused on the perceptions of staff members. In both parts of her study, Iken found that overall both the faculty and administrator group as well as the staff group perceived that servant leadership was practiced at the university.

Iken (2005) also analyzed each of the seven dimensions that are part of the Organizational Leadership Assessment. Table 4 shows a comparison between the perceptions of the faculty and administrator group and the perceptions of the staff group for each dimension of the Organizational Leadership Assessment.

As this table shows, faculty and administrators had higher levels of perception of all the dimensions of the Organizational Leadership Assessment as compared to staff. Job Satisfaction was the area with the highest level of perception as indicated by both groups. Builds Community was another dimension ranking in the top three for both the faculty and administrator group as well as the staff group. Results vary with the remaining dimensions. It is interesting to note that faculty and administrators ranked Displays Authenticity as their lowest perceived behavior with a mean of 3.87 which was still higher than all of the perceived behaviors of the staff group with the exception of Job Satisfaction (Iken, 2005).

While her study is similar in nature to this study, Iken's sample was comprised of employees at one private Christian university in the Midwest. This study will add to Iken's study by including university and college employees at a public four-year university and a public two-year community college from a different regional area of the United States.

Table 4: Comparison of Perceptions of Faculty & Administrators versus Perceptions of Staff in

Iken's (2005) Study

Dimension	Mean (Faculty & Administrators)	Standard Deviation (Faculty & Administrators)	Mean (Staff)	Standard Deviation (Staff)
Values People	4.07	.56	3.42	.73
Develops People	3.91	.70	3.22	.78
Builds Community	3.98	.47	3.47	.67
Displays Authenticity	3.87	.66	3.34	.77
Provides Leadership	3.93	.66	3.49	.74
Shares Leadership	3.93	.68	3.36	.80
Job Satisfaction	4.44	.58	3.89	.74

Summary of Servant Leadership Studies

Research studies conducted on servant leadership give credence to and provide shape for the concept first originated by Greenleaf back in the late 1970s. The research has provided similar, if not identical, characteristics of servant leadership that align themselves with the idea that servant leadership is a model of shared leadership and provides emphasis for the development of people within an organization. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have also been shown to be associated with the practice of servant leadership. Finally, the research indicates that this concept can be measured by the use of assessment instruments. Chapter 3 describes one such instrument as used in this study as well as discussing the overall methodology of the study.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Research Design and Justification

This research focuses on the perceptions of higher education leaders and employees regarding the practice of servant leadership within their respective institutions. Specifically, the research compared the perceptions of three employee groups (later compressed to two groups) regarding servant leadership practices within their institutions to determine if there were any significant differences among the groups. Additionally, institutions were compared to determine if the type of institution influenced individuals' perceptions of leadership practices. Field sites included a two-year public college and a four-year public university. Hostetler (2005) describes good education research as “a matter not only of sound processes but also of beneficial aims and results; our ultimate aim as researchers and educators is to serve people’s well-being” (p. 16). The results of this research can be used to foster more productive work environments within higher education settings.

A quantitative survey research methodology was used for this study. Quantitative research is described as an objective, formal and systematic process that describes, tests and examines related variables (Burns & Grove, 1987). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) concur with Burns and Grove and add that quantitative research results are relatively independent of researcher bias. In particular, a cross-sectional survey was used. Cross-sectional surveys are described as a snapshot in which information is collected at one point in time (Creswell, 1994; Lorenzetti (2007). The use of surveys is supported because they describe current situations, are a consistent observation technique with large populations, and are useful as a means of providing data for organizational improvement (Babbie, 1998; Likert, as cited in Bolman & Deal, 2003;

Lorenzetti, 2007).

Surveys utilize different techniques such as: multiple choice, Likert agree-disagree response scale, and Q-sort (a sorting device). Likert-type scales have respondents indicate how much they agree or disagree with a particular statement. The 5-point scale usually includes the following options: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral or Undecided, Agree, and Strongly Agree. A Q-sort survey asks respondents to sort items/statements from those agreed with most to those agreed with least generally utilizing a card system with one item per card (Westmeyer, 1994). In addition to rating scales, other types of scales include categorical scales (yes/no) and rank-ordered scales (highest to lowest importance) (Creswell, 1994). The instrument used for this research uses a Likert five-point rating scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Research Questions

The data from this study was analyzed to answer the following research questions:

1. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees in various role groups regarding servant leadership practices within their own institutions?
2. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees at public 2-year and public 4-year higher education institutions regarding servant leadership practices?

Instrumentation

The instrumentation used for this research is the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument. It was used to assess whether or not there is a statistically significant difference among the different types of higher education leaders and employees regarding their perceptions of servant leadership practices within their institutions. Laub (2003) indicates that

the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument is designed to be used at all levels within an organization, therefore employees at all levels within the organization who met the criteria established for this study were invited to participate in the study. For purposes of this study employee groups are defined as follows:

Top Leadership – executive-level employees charged with the administrative functions of the college or university (e.g., President, Vice-President, Provost, Cabinet Level);

Management – employees charged with oversight of an organizational unit (e.g., Assistant Vice Presidents, Deans, Department Chairs, Division Chairs, Managers, Directors, Supervisors);

Workforce – employees charged with performing work tasks that support an organizational unit (e.g., Faculty, Associate or Assistant Directors, Coordinators, Clerical Staff, Skilled Staff).

The instrument used is copyrighted, therefore, permission to use the Organizational Leadership Assessment was requested through Dr. James Laub. The correspondence requesting permission is shown in Appendix A. Dr. Laub's permission is shown in Appendix B. A copy of the instrument is located in Appendix C.

Development

Laub (1999) utilized a three-part Delphi survey with fourteen servant leadership authorities to answer two questions: How is servant leadership defined? and What are the characteristics of servant leadership? Laub computed the median and interquartile range of responses for each questionnaire item to determine which items were rated as Necessary or Essential. In rounds two and three of the Delphi survey, a sign test was run on the interquartile

ranges. This was done to determine if the expert panel was moving toward consensus in defining the characteristics of servant leadership. Results from the Delphi process were used to develop the Organizational Leadership Assessment model, shown earlier in Table 2.

A field test of the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument was conducted with 828 participants from 41 organizations to answer a third question: Can the presence of these characteristics within organizations be assessed through a written instrument? The written instrument contained 80 items and took approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Following the field test, the instrument was redesigned to reduce the number of questions to 60. The revised instrument was then analyzed for reliability and validity. Regarding psychometrics, the Organizational Leadership Assessment shows high reliability based on a Chronback-alpha coefficient score of .9802. In addition, item analysis was conducted that showed that all of the items have a strong correlation to the instrument as a whole (Laub, 2008).

The instrument shows strong construct validity based on the Delphi process used to develop it. It also shows strong face validity. Over 100 graduate students were asked to provide feedback on the accuracy of the six organizational descriptions. There was a consistently high agreement with all six descriptions and an indication that the scoring break points for the six organizational levels were placed properly (Laub, 2008). Using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, the instrument includes six dimensions of servant leadership practices corresponding with 60 total items plus six job satisfaction questions, as shown in Table 5. Job satisfaction is considered an outcome, not a practice of servant leadership. In summary, Laub was able to develop a working definition and an agreed-upon set of characteristics to define servant leadership and his research showed that the Organizational

Leadership Assessment instrument was a reliable instrument for measuring servant leadership characteristics within organizations (Laub, 1999).

Table 5: Dimensions of Servant Leadership Assessed by the Items of the OLA (Iken, 2005, p. 23)

Dimensions of Servant Leadership	Organizational Leadership Assessment Item Number
Value People	1, 4, 9, 15, 19, 52, 54, 55, 57, 63
Develops People	20, 31, 37, 40, 42, 44, 46, 50, 59
Builds Community	7, 8, 12, 13, 16, 18, 21, 25, 38, 47
Displays Authenticity	3, 6, 10, 11, 23, 28, 32, 33, 35, 43, 51, 61
Provides Leadership	2, 5, 14, 22, 27, 30, 36, 45, 49
Shares Leadership	17, 24, 26, 29, 34, 39, 41, 48, 53, 65
Job Satisfaction	56, 58, 60, 62, 64, 66

How Has It Been Used?

Since its development in 1999, the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument has been used in over 30 dissertations and theses. Topics and field sites have included churches, family and women-led businesses, health organizations, higher education, law enforcement, non-profit organizations, occupational safety, primary and secondary schools, and social organizations. In addition, the instrument has been used in multiple organizations and businesses to assess organizational health and to assist leaders in making changes to their organization's culture and environment. The instrument has also been translated into multiple languages including Spanish, Dutch, and Japanese (Laub, 2008).

Sample

Two different types of higher education institutions were used as research sites for this study. Higher education institutions are defined as an institution in any state that is legally authorized by that state to provide an education beyond secondary education; that awards a

bachelor's degree or above or provides a two-year program of study that is acceptable for full credit toward such a degree; that is public or nonprofit; and that is accredited by a nationally recognized accrediting agency or association (Cornell, n.d.). To further delineate within the definition above, the institutions chosen for this study included one each of the following:

- A two-year public institution, one that offers a two year program of study and is governed by the state or municipality in which it resides; and
- A four-year public institution, one that offers primarily bachelors degrees and is governed by the state in which it resides.

Within each institution, full-time employees with at least one year of experience, from all levels within the organization, comprised the study sample.

Sample size can be determined using the following formula:

$$s = \frac{X^2 NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)} \text{ where}$$

s = required sample size,

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level of .05 (3.841),

N = the population size,

P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size), and

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05) (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

In order to make the assumption that the sample (s) is representative of the population (N), for purposes of this study, the following criteria needed to be met:

2-year institution: $N = 920$, therefore s should be 271; and 4-year institution: $N = 3,029$,

therefore s should be 341. The sample size for the 4-year institution met this criteria, whereas the sample size for the 2-year institution did not. Data analysis is presented for both institutions.

Data Collection Procedures

Because one goal of this research was to provide information about different types of higher education institutions, it was necessary to find research sites that met this need. An urban city in the southwestern United States was selected that includes two-year public, four-year public, four-year private, and graduate/professional schools. Institutions were then selected based on their ability to provide a sample large enough to study and their willingness to participate in the research.

Following Institutional Review Board approval (see Appendix D), Human Resources departments were contacted and their assistance was requested in identifying potential subjects which were full-time employees of the institutions. An email explaining the research and including instructions for completing the survey was sent to potential research participants. This email is shown in Appendix E. Participants were instructed to access a website with a code that allowed them to complete the survey.

At the first field site, a two-year public institution, 920 employees, meeting the criteria described above, were invited via e-mail to participate in the study. A second e-mail was sent two weeks later to generate additional participation. One top leadership employee (out of 11), 20 management employees (out of 113) and 53 workforce employees (out of 796) responded to the survey for a total of 74 or a return rate of 8%

Invitations to participate in the study were also issued via e-mail to 3,029 employees meeting the research study criteria at the second field site, a four-year public institution.

Additionally, a reminder e-mail was sent to this group. Five top leadership employees (out of 11), 114 management employees (out of 166) and 280 workforce employees (out of 2862) responded to the survey for a total of 399 or a return rate of 13.17%.

One follow-up email requesting participation was sent to encourage additional participation. Once data collection was closed, the raw data was provided to the researcher in an Excel spreadsheet.

Statistical Analysis

Collected data from the Organizational Leadership Assessment was transferred from the Excel spreadsheet into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software program for analysis. First, descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations) were used to analyze the data. Guy, Edgley, Arafat and Allen (1987) indicate that descriptive statistics can be used in determining frequency between associated occurrences. Second, an ANOVA was performed followed by a post hoc test where possible to determine any significant difference in the means for each employee group within and across institutions.

The assumptions of ANOVA are as follows:

1. Observations are independent.
2. The dependent variable variances are equal across groups.
3. The dependent variable is normally distributed for each group.

For purposes of the study the independent variable is the work group designations and the dependent variable is the perceptions of servant leadership practices as recorded on the Organizational Leadership Assessment. Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, and Barrett (2004) indicate that because ANOVA is robust, a researcher may still be able to use it even if “assumption #2 or,

even more so, #3 is not fully met” (p. 148).

Analyses were performed on each of the six dimensions of the Organizational Leadership Assessment and the job satisfaction section. Because very few responses were received from top leadership at both institutions, this leadership group was combined with the management group resulting in two different leadership levels at each institution. The top leadership/management (combined) group was compared to the workforce group at each respective institution (Research Question 1). In addition, the top leadership/management (combined) group and the workforce group at the 2-year institution were compared to the top leadership/management (combined) group and the workforce group at the 4-year institution (Research Question 2).

Limitations of the Study

One limitation of this study is that ANOVA assumptions were not fully met due to differences in the sizes of the groups. In other words, the group comprised of top leadership was much smaller than the other groups. Additionally, the sample size from the 2-year institution was too small to make the assumption that it is an adequate representation of the larger population.

Another limitation of the study is that it was conducted within a certain geographical region and therefore the results may not be generalizable to other geographical areas. Results from other geographical locations may vary from the results of this research. Finally, while research of this nature can provide valuable information with regard to differences between variables, it is not designed to determine cause and effect with regard to those same variables.

Ethical Considerations

Permission to conduct this research was requested through the Institutional Review Board of each institution used as research sites. Research protocols were used. Research participants

were advised that their participation in this study is voluntary. To ensure anonymity, no names of institutions or individuals are used in the survey results. Additionally, individual data will not be shared with respondents. An executive summary using only generalized survey results was prepared for each participating institution.

CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS OF DATA

Servant leadership has been presented as a practice that ideally involves an entire organization and ...

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)

In the literature review presented earlier, it has been suggested that servant leadership is an appropriate option for higher education. However, there is a limited amount of research regarding the use of this leadership style in higher education settings. In particular, very little research has been done that indicates how all levels of higher education employees view leadership practices within their institutions.

This study sought to add to the body of knowledge on this subject by answering the following research questions:

1. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees in various role groups regarding servant leadership practices within their own institutions?
2. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees at public 2-year and public 4-year higher education institutions regarding servant leadership practices?

Characteristics of Institutions

To provide anonymity for each of the research sites and their respective employees, pseudonyms were given to each of them. The four-year public institution is referred to as Urban City University (UCU) and the two-year public institution is referred to as Southwest

Community College (SCC).

Four-year Public Institution: Urban City University

Since its inception in the 1960s, Urban City University (UCU) has grown from a campus housed in leased office space to a growing institution with three campuses and an enrollment of over 28,000 students. In the mid-1970s, UCU had five colleges which offered graduate degrees in 38 disciplines to just under 700 students. In the mid-1980s, undergraduate degrees were offered and new disciplines were added. A residence hall was added as was the university's second campus. Enrollment grew to over 12,000 during this time. The 1990s saw the addition of a third campus and several new buildings on the main campus. Near the end of the 2000s, UCU has become the second largest campus within its university system (Urban City University, 2009). Today the university offers degrees in humanities, business, and the sciences. It has, as one of its goals, to become a premier research institution (Urban City University, 2008).

Student Demographics

Located in an urban Southwestern city in the United States, UCU is a Hispanic serving institution (HSI). Table 6 shows the ethnic ratio of the UCU student body as reported in 2008.

Table 6: Percentage of Student Body of Urban City University by Ethnic Category

Hispanic	White, Non-Hispanic	Black, Non-Hispanic	Asian/Pacific Islander	International	American Indian/Alaskan Native	Unknown/Unreported
42.6%	39.9%	7.9%	6.4%	3.3%	0.5%	0.3%

Gender ratio is 52.0% female and 48.0% male. Over half (57.2%) of the students fall into the 18-22 age category. Another 22.2% are between 23-27 years old. The remainder of the students are under 18 (1.8%), 28-32 (8.3%), 33-39 (5.3%), 40-50 (3.9%) and over 50 (1.3%) (Urban City University, 2008).

Faculty and Staff Demographics

UCU has approximately 1,300 faculty members with 20% serving as adjunct faculty. Whites represent 65.6% of the faculty with the remaining ethnic groups represented as follows: Hispanic (19.1%), Asian/Pacific Islander (11.1%), Black (3.2%) and American Indian/Alaskan Native (1.1%). The gender ratio is represented at 58.5% male and 41.5% female (Urban City University, 2008). Information on earned degrees of faculty members was not available.

Top leadership is 64% male and 36% female with an ethnic ratio of 73% White and 27% Hispanic. Demographic information on staff employees was not available for Urban City University.

Two-year Public Institution: Southwest Community College

Southwest Community College (SCC) is a one of five community colleges that are part of a larger community college district within the city. Established in the mid-1920s, the college was originally under the control of a university system. One year later control of the college went to a local school district. In the mid-1940s, a community college district was established which took over control of Southwest Community College and another community college in the area. There were approximately 500 students enrolled at that time (Southwest Community College, 2008).

Today the college boasts an average enrollment of 22,000 credit students and an additional 16,000 non-credit students. It offers general education courses, as well as courses in the liberal arts and sciences, career education, developmental education, and continuing education. It is the largest single-campus community college in its state and one of the largest in

the nation (Southwest Community College, 2008).

Student Demographics

Located in the southwestern United States, SCC is considered a Hispanic serving institution (HSI). Table 7 shows the ethnic ratio of the student body as reported in 2008.

Table 7: Percentage of Student Body of Southwest Community College by Ethnic Category

Hispanic	White, Non-Hispanic	Black, Non-Hispanic	Other
48%	43%	5%	4%

Gender ratio is 59% female and 41% male. Approximately one-half of the student population is under 18-21 years old (49%), while the remainder of the students' ages is represented as follows: 22-24 (16%), 25-30 (16%), 31-35 (7%), 36-50 (10%), and 51 and over (2%) (Southwest Community College, 2008).

Faculty and Staff Demographics

SCC has just over 1,000 faculty members with a majority of the faculty working as adjuncts (60%). Most have masters (76%) or doctorate (12%) degrees. Whites represent 69% of the faculty with the remaining ethnic groups represented as follows: Hispanic (21%), Black (5%) and Other (5%). The gender ratio is represented equally at 50% each male and female (Southwest Community College, 2008).

Staff employees number just under 500. Top leadership is 73% male and 27% female with an ethnic ratio of White (64%) and Hispanic (36%). Management is 56% female and 44% male. The largest ethnic group is Hispanic (58%) followed by White (32%), Black (6%) and Other (4%). The workforce group is 61% female and 39% male. This group is comprised of

Hispanic (69%), White (22%), Black (7%) and Other (2%) (Southwest Community College, 2008).

Findings

Research Question One

Research question one asks “Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees in various role groups regarding servant leadership practices within their own institutions?”

As mentioned previously, three levels of employee groups were included in this study: top leadership, management, and workforce. The original intention of this researcher was to compare the responses on the OLA between each of these three groups. However, because of the small number of top leadership responses, this group was combined with the management group which was then compared to the workforce group. This is the case for both Urban City University, the 4-year institution, and Southwest Community College, the 2-year institution.

The Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) is a survey of 66-questions broken down into six dimensions: Values People (VP), Develops People (DP), Builds Community (BC), Displays Authenticity (DA), Provides Leadership (PL), and Shares Leadership (SL). A seventh section on the survey includes questions that measure Job Satisfaction (JS). Descriptive information is provided for each of these six dimensions and the job satisfaction section. Although Job Satisfaction is not a dimension of servant leadership practices, it is an outcome; it will be included as such for ease of discussion.

Urban City University (UCU)

Of the 399 employees from Urban City University responding to this survey, 119 were of the combined top leadership/management employee group and 280 represented the workforce employee group. For each of the seven dimensions of the assessment, the top leadership/management group had a higher mean than the workforce group. This indicates that on average, the top leadership/management group perceived more frequently the occurrence of servant leadership practices at the institution than did the workforce group. Table 8 shows a summary of these results.

Table 8: OLA Results for Urban City University

Dimension	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Average Response 1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neutral 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Disagree
Values People 10 Questions	Top/Mgt 119	33.67	8.561	3.37
	Workforce 280	31.48	9.108	3.15
	Total 399	32.13	8.994	3.21
Develops People 9 Questions	Top/Mgt 119	28.21	8.655	3.13
	Workforce 280	25.96	9.135	2.89
	Total 399	26.63	9.042	2.96
Builds Community 10 Questions	Top/Mgt 119	34.03	8.102	3.40
	Workforce 280	31.31	8.934	3.13
	Total 399	32.12	8.773	3.21
Displays Authenticity 12 Questions	Top/Mgt 119	38.03	10.993	3.17
	Workforce 280	34.89	11.771	2.91
	Total 399	35.83	11.620	2.99
Provides Leadership 9 Questions	Top/Mgt 119	30.03	8.053	3.34
	Workforce 280	28.25	8.307	3.14
	Total 399	28.78	8.262	3.20
Shares Leadership 10 Questions	Top/Mgt 119	31.58	9.447	3.16
	Workforce 280	28.29	10.342	2.83
	Total 399	29.27	10.184	2.93
Job Satisfaction 6 Questions	Top/Mgt 119	23.46	4.704	3.91
	Workforce 280	22.68	5.187	3.78
	Total 399	22.91	5.055	3.82

A closer inspection of the information provided in Table 8 reveals that the top leadership/management group had the highest level of perception of the Job Satisfaction section with a mean of 23.46 (out of a possible 30.00). The dimensions were ranked as follows: Builds Community (mean of 34.03 out of 50.00), Values People (mean of 33.67 out of 50.00), Provides Leadership (mean of 30.03 out of 45.00), Displays Authenticity (mean of 38.03 out of 60.00), Shares Leadership (mean of 31.58 out 50.00), and Develops People (mean of 28.21 out of 45.00). On average, top leadership/management employees of UCU answered in the Neutral to Agrees range for all dimensions of the survey.

Job Satisfaction was also the section of the OLA with the highest level of perception for the workforce of UCU with a mean score of 22.68 (out of 30.00). The workforce had similar rankings of the dimensions with a few variations. They are as follows: Values People (mean score of 31.48 out of 50.00), Provides Leadership (mean score of 28.25 out of 45.00), Builds Community (mean score of 31.31 out of 50.00), Displays Authenticity (mean score of 34.89 out of 60.00), Develops People (mean score of 25.96 out of 45.00), and Shares Leadership (mean score of 28.29 out of 50.00). Workforce answered Neutral to Agrees on five of the seven areas of the assessment. They answered Disagrees to Neutral on the Develops People and Shares Leadership dimensions.

Additional analysis was conducted on the data to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the two employee groups. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. Because only two groups are represented, no post hoc tests were performed. Table 9 shows the results of the ANOVA.

With a critical F value of 3.86 at $p = .05$ with $df_1 = 1$ and $df_2 = 397$, the derived F value for

each of the dimensions below (except Job Satisfaction) exceeds the critical value. This indicates a statistically significant difference in the level of perceptions between the top leadership/management group and the workforce group on all dimensions except Job Satisfaction. The biggest difference in perception between the two groups is in the Shares Leadership dimension.

Table 9: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Sub-group Differences at Urban City University

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Values People	Between Groups	403.180	1	403.180	5.035	.025
	Within Groups	31792.043	397	80.081		
	Total	32195.223	398			
Develops People	Between Groups	421.186	1	421.186	5.206	.023
	Within Groups	32121.391	397	80.910		
	Total	32542.576	398			
Builds Community	Between Groups	619.149	1	619.149	8.190	.004
	Within Groups	30013.833	397	75.602		
	Total	30632.982	398			
Displays Authenticity	Between Groups	823.760	1	823.760	6.180	.013
	Within Groups	52914.651	397	133.286		
	Total	53738.411	398			
Provides Leadership	Between Groups	264.602	1	264.602	3.904	.049
	Within Groups	26904.862	397	67.770		
	Total	27169.464	398			
Shares Leadership	Between Groups	904.207	1	904.207	8.891	.003
	Within Groups	40372.559	397	101.694		
	Total	41276.767	398			
Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	51.279	1	51.279	2.012	.157
	Within Groups	10118.651	397	25.488		
	Total	10169.930	398			

Southwest Community College (SCC)

Southwest Community College had 74 employees respond to the survey including 21 in the

combined top leadership/management employee group and 53 in the workforce employee group.

Although the sample size is too small to serve as an adequate representation of the larger population, the results were still analyzed and are presented here. Table 10 shows the OLA results for the two-year institution including means and standard deviations.

Table 10: OLA Results for Southwest Community College

Dimension	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Average Response 1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neutral 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Disagree
Values People 10 Questions	Top/Mgt 21	35.52	10.018	3.55
	Workforce 53	31.13	9.596	3.11
	Total 74	32.38	9.852	3.24
Develops People 9 Questions	Top/Mgt 21	31.33	9.851	3.48
	Workforce 53	25.23	9.635	2.80
	Total 74	26.96	10.020	3.00
Builds Community 10 Questions	Top/Mgt 21	36.95	8.582	3.70
	Workforce 53	30.58	9.185	3.06
	Total 74	32.39	9.414	3.24
Displays Authenticity 12 Questions	Top/Mgt 21	42.19	13.452	3.52
	Workforce 53	33.81	12.856	2.82
	Total 74	36.19	13.482	3.02
Provides Leadership 9 Questions	Top/Mgt 21	30.48	9.668	3.39
	Workforce 53	26.53	8.853	2.95
	Total 74	27.65	9.200	3.07
Shares Leadership 10 Questions	Top/Mgt 21	35.19	11.957	3.52
	Workforce 53	27.30	11.236	2.73
	Total 74	29.54	11.913	2.95
Job Satisfaction 6 Questions	Top/Mgt 21	25.86	4.199	4.31
	Workforce 53	23.53	5.645	3.92
	Total 74	24.19	5.352	4.03

As was the case for the four-year institution, the top leadership/management group within the two-year institution had a higher mean than the workforce group for each of the seven

dimensions of the assessment. Again, this indicates that on average, the top leadership/management group had a higher (or more positive) level of perception of leadership practices at the institution than did the workforce group.

Similar to the employees of Urban City University, both top leadership/management and workforce employees of Southwest Community College showed the highest level of perception for the job satisfaction section of the survey with mean scores of 25.86 out of a possible 30.00 (top leadership/management) and 23.53 out of 30.00 (workforce). This indicates that top leadership/management answered, on average, Agrees or Strongly Agrees to the Job Satisfaction questions while workforce answered, on average, Neutral to Agrees.

Of the six dimensions, top leadership/management had the highest level of perception of Builds Community (mean score of 36.95 out of 50.00) followed by Values People (mean score 35.52 out of 50.00). The remainder of the dimensions are ranked as follows: Shares Leadership (mean score of 35.19 out of 50), Display Authenticity (mean score of 42.19 out of 60.00), Develops People (mean score of 31.33 out of 45.00), and Provides Leadership (mean score of 30.48 out of 45.00).

Workforce also ranked Builds Community and Values People in their top two but in reverse order of the top leadership/management rankings. The mean scores for those dimensions were 31.13 out of 50.00 for Values People and 30.58 out of 50.00 for Builds Community. Workforce ranked the remainder of the dimensions in the following order: Provides Leadership (mean score of 26.53 out of 45.00), Displays Authenticity (mean score of 33.81 out of 60.00), Develops People (mean score of 25.23 out of 45.00), and Shares Leadership (mean score of 27.30 out of 50.00).

Top leadership/management of Southwest Community College on average answered Neutral or Agrees on all sections of the OLA except Job Satisfaction. Workforce of SCC answered between Neutral and Agrees on three of the six dimensions: Values People, Builds Community, and Displays Authenticity. They answered Disagreed or Neutral, on average, to the dimensions of Develops People, Provides Leadership, and Shares Leadership.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also conducted to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the two employee groups. Because only two groups are represented, no post hoc tests were performed. Table 11 shows the results of the ANOVA.

Table 11: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of Sub-group Differences at Southwest Community College

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Values People	Between Groups	290.092	1	290.092	3.074	.084
	Within Groups	6795.314	72	94.379		
	Total	7085.405	73			
Develops People	Between Groups	560.929	1	560.929	5.967	.017
	Within Groups	6767.950	72	93.999		
	Total	7328.878	73			
Builds Community	Between Groups	609.815	1	609.815	7.493	.008
	Within Groups	5859.820	72	81.386		
	Total	6469.635	73			
Displays Authenticity	Between Groups	1056.000	1	1056.000	6.225	.015
	Within Groups	12213.351	72	169.630		
	Total	13269.351	73			
Provides Leadership	Between Groups	234.419	1	234.419	2.839	.096
	Within Groups	5944.446	72	82.562		
	Total	6178.865	73			
Shares Leadership	Between Groups	935.970	1	935.970	7.151	.009
	Within Groups	9424.408	72	130.895		
	Total	10360.378	73			

Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	81.572	1	81.572	2.922	.092
	Within Groups	2009.779	72	27.914		
	Total	2091.351	73			

With a critical F value of 3.98 at $p = .05$ with $df_1 = 1$ and $df_2 = 72$, the derived F value exceeds the critical value on the following dimensions: Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, and Shares Leadership. This indicates a statistically significant difference in the level of perceptions between the top leadership/management group and the workforce group on these dimensions. There was not a statistically significant difference between the two groups on the Values People, Provides Leadership, and Job Satisfaction dimensions. The dimension with the largest difference in perception between the two groups is Builds Community.

The data indicate there were significant differences between the perceptions of employees in various role groups regarding servant leadership practices within their own institutions. For Urban City University, the four-year institution, there is a statistically significant difference in the perceptions of employees regarding servant leadership practices within their own institutions with the exception of job satisfaction. The results from Southwest Community College also show a statistically significant difference in the perceptions of employees in four of the seven areas of servant leadership practices including developing people, building community, displaying authenticity, and sharing leadership.

Research Question Two

Research question two asks “Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees at public 2-year and public 4-year higher education institutions regarding servant leadership practices?”

In order to answer this question, the employee groups from Urban City University, the four-year institution, were compared to the employee groups from Southwest Community College, the two-year institution. The top leadership groups were again combined with the management groups within their respective institutions for this data analysis. Table 12 shows the descriptive statistics for the four employee groups.

Table 12: OLA Results for Combined Data of Urban City University and Southwest Community College

Dimension	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Average Response 1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neutral 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Disagree	
Values People 10 Questions	Top/Mgt (2 year)	21	35.52	10.018	3.55
	Workforce (2-year)	53	31.13	9.596	3.11
	Top/Mgt (4 year)	119	33.67	8.561	3.37
	Workforce (4 year)	280	31.48	9.108	3.15
	Total	473	32.17	9.123	3.22
Develops People 9 Questions	Top/Mgt (2 year)	21	31.33	9.851	3.48
	Workforce (2-year)	53	25.23	9.635	2.80
	Top/Mgt (4 year)	119	28.21	8.655	3.13
	Workforce (4 year)	280	25.96	9.135	2.88
	Total	473	26.68	9.192	2.96
Builds Community 10 Questions	Top/Mgt (2 year)	21	36.95	8.582	3.70
	Workforce (2-year)	53	30.58	9.185	3.06
	Top/Mgt (4 year)	119	34.03	8.102	3.40
	Workforce (4 year)	280	31.31	8.934	3.13
	Total	473	32.16	8.867	3.22
Displays Authenticity 12 Questions	Top/Mgt (2 year)	21	42.19	13.452	3.52
	Workforce (2-year)	53	33.81	12.856	2.82
	Top/Mgt (4 year)	119	38.03	10.993	3.17
	Workforce (4 year)	280	34.89	11.771	2.91
	Total	473	35.89	11.916	2.00
Provides Leadership 9 Questions	Top/Mgt (2 year)	21	30.48	9.668	3.39
	Workforce (2-year)	53	26.53	8.853	2.95
	Top/Mgt (4 year)	119	30.03	8.053	3.34
	Workforce (4 year)	280	28.25	8.307	3.14
	Total	473	28.61	8.416	3.18

Shares Leadership 10 Questions	Top/Mgt (2 year)	21	35.19	11.957	3.52
	Workforce (2-year)	53	27.30	11.236	2.73
	Top/Mgt (4 year)	119	31.58	9.447	3.16
	Workforce (4 year)	280	28.29	10.342	2.83
	Total	473	29.31	10.460	2.93
Job Satisfaction 6 Questions	Top/Mgt (2 year)	21	25.86	4.199	4.31
	Workforce (2-year)	53	23.53	5.645	3.92
	Top/Mgt (4 year)	119	23.46	4.704	3.91
	Workforce (4 year)	280	22.68	5.187	3.78
	Total	473	23.11	5.118	3.85

The top leadership/management group from Southwest Community College had the highest means for each dimension of the Organizational Leadership Assessment. This indicates that this group had a higher level of perception of servant leadership practices than any of the other employee groups. The top leadership/management group from Urban City University had the second highest means for each dimension with the exception of Job Satisfaction. The workforce group at Urban City University had higher means on each dimension of the Organizational Leadership Assessment than their counterparts at Southwest Community College with the exception of Job Satisfaction. Ranking for each dimension of the Organizational Leadership Assessment stays the same for the combined analysis as it did when the institutions were analyzed separately.

In order to determine the statistically significant differences between the servant leadership perceptions of the employee groups across institutions, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed.

Tukey's post hoc test was also performed to determine where specific differences occurred. Table 13 shows the results of the ANOVA and Table 14 the post hoc test. With a critical F value of 2.62 at $p = .05$ with $df_1 = 3$ and $df_2 = 469$, the derived F value exceeds the critical value on all seven dimensions of the Organizational Leadership Assessment. This indicates that there is a

statistically significant difference between at least two of the employee groups for each of the dimensions but a post hoc test is needed to determine between which groups the significance occurs.

Although the ANOVA indicates a statistically significant difference in each of the seven dimensions of the OLA, the post hoc test reveals that in fact for the Values People and the Provides Leadership dimensions, the mean difference between any two groups was non-significant at the 0.05 level. As research question two focuses on significant differences across institutions and not within, only those five dimensions with differences across institutions are discussed.

Table 13: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Comparing Sub-group Responses Between Urban City University and Southwest Community College

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Values People	Between Groups	697.112	3	232.371	2.824	.038
	Within Groups	38587.357	469	82.276		
	Total	39284.469	472			
Develops People	Between Groups	988.723	3	329.574	3.975	.008
	Within Groups	38889.340	469	82.920		
	Total	39878.063	472			
Builds Community	Between Groups	1233.484	3	411.161	5.375	.001
	Within Groups	35873.654	469	76.490		
	Total	37107.137	472			
Displays Authenticity	Between Groups	1887.833	3	629.278	4.532	.004
	Within Groups	65128.003	469	138.866		
	Total	67015.835	472			
Provides Leadership	Between Groups	579.551	3	193.184	2.758	.042
	Within Groups	32849.308	469	70.041		
	Total	33428.858	472			
Shares Leadership	Between Groups	1844.724	3	614.908	5.791	.001
	Within Groups	49796.967	469	106.177		

	Total	51641.691	472			
Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	234.631	3	78.210	3.024	.029
	Within Groups	12128.420	469	25.860		
	Total	12363.061	472			

Table 14: Tukey's Post Hoc Test Comparing Sub-group Differences Between Urban City University and Southwest Community College

* indicates that the mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Dependent Variable	(I) Role	(J) Role	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Values People	Top/Mgt-2year	Work-2year	4.392	2.339	.239
		Top/Mgt-4year	1.852	2.147	.824
		Work-4year	4.049	2.052	.200
	Work-2year	Top/Mgt-2year	-4.392	2.339	.239
		Top/Mgt-4year	-2.540	1.498	.327
		Work-4year	-.343	1.359	.994
	Top/Mgt-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-1.852	2.147	.824
		Work-2year	2.540	1.498	.327
		Work-4year	2.197	.993	.121
	Work-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-4.049	2.052	.200
		Work-2year	.343	1.359	.994
		Top/Mgt-4year	-2.197	.993	.121
Develops People	Top/Mgt-2year	Work-2year	6.107*	2.348	.047
		Top/Mgt-4year	3.123	2.155	.469
		Work-4year	5.369*	2.060	.046
	Work-2year	Top/Mgt-2year	-6.107*	2.348	.047
		Top/Mgt-4year	-2.984	1.504	.195
		Work-4year	-.738	1.364	.949
	Top/Mgt-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-3.123	2.155	.469
		Work-2year	2.984	1.504	.195
		Work-4year	2.246	.996	.111
	Work-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-5.369*	2.060	.046
		Work-2year	.738	1.364	.949
		Top/Mgt-4year	-2.246	.996	.111
Builds Community	Top/Mgt-2year	Work-2year	6.387*	2.255	.025
		Top/Mgt-4year	2.919	2.070	.494
		Work-4year	5.642*	1.979	.023
	Work-2year	Top/Mgt-2year	-6.367*	2.255	.025

		Top/Mgt-4year	-3.449	1.444	.081
		Work-4year	-.726	1.310	.945
	Top/Mgt-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-2.919	2.070	.494
		Work-2year	3.449	1.444	.081
		Work-4year	2.723*	.957	.024
	Work-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-5.642*	1.979	.023
		Work-2year	.726	1.310	.945
		Top/Mgt-4year	-2.723*	.957	.024
Displays Authenticity	Top/Mgt-2year	Work-2year	8.379*	3.039	.031
		Top/Mgt-4year	4.157	2.789	.444
		Work-4year	7.298*	2.666	.033
	Work-2year	Top/Mgt-2year	-8.379*	3.039	.031
		Top/Mgt-4year	-4.222	1.946	.133
		Work-4year	-1.082	1.765	.928
	Top/Mgt-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-4.157	2.789	.444
		Work-2year	4.222	1.946	.133
		Work-4year	3.141	1.290	.072
	Work-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-7.298*	2.666	.033
		Work-2year	1.082	1.765	.928
		Top/Mgt-4year	-3.141	1.290	.072
Provides Leadership	Top/Mgt-2year	Work-2year	3.948	2.158	.261
		Top/Mgt-4year	.443	1.981	.996
		Work-4year	2.223	1.894	.644
	Work-2year	Top/Mgt-2year	-3.948	2.158	.261
		Top/Mgt-4year	-3.505	1.382	.056
		Work-4year	-1.725	1.254	.515
	Top/Mgt-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-.443	1.981	.996
		Work-2year	3.505	1.382	.056
		Work-4year	1.780	.916	.211
	Work-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-2.223	1.894	.644
		Work-2year	1.725	1.254	.515
		Top/Mgt-4year	-1.780	.916	.211
Shares Leadership	Top/Mgt-2year	Work-2year	7.889*	2.657	.017
		Top/Mgt-4year	3.611	2.439	.450
		Work-4year	6.901*	2.331	.017
	Work-2year	Top/Mgt-2year	-7.889*	2.657	.017
		Top/Mgt-4year	-4.278	1.702	.059
		Work-4year	-.987	1.544	.919
	Top/Mgt-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-3.611	2.439	.450
		Work-2year	4.278	1.702	.059
		Work-4year	3.291*	1.128	.019
	Work-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-6.901*	2.331	.017
		Work-2year	.987	1.544	.919
		Top/Mgt-4year	-3.291*	1.128	.019
Job Satisfaction	Top/Mgt-2year	Work-2year	2.329	1.311	.286

	Top/Mgt-4year	2.395	1.204	.193
	Work-4year	3.179*	1.151	.030
Work-2year	Top/Mgt-2year	-2.329	1.311	.286
	Top/Mgt-4year	.066	.840	1.000
	Work-4year	.850	.762	.680
Top/Mgt-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-2.395	1.204	.193
	Work-2year	-.066	.840	1.000
	Work-4year	.784	.556	.495
Work-4year	Top/Mgt-2year	-3.179*	1.151	.030
	Work-2year	-.850	.762	.680
	Top/Mgt-4year	-.784	.556	.495

Four different comparisons were made between employee groups across institutions with the following results:

Top leadership/management (4-year) to Top leadership/management (2-year) – no difference

Top leadership/management (4-year) to Workforce (2-year) – no difference

Top leadership/management (2-year) to Workforce (4-year) – statistically significant

differences found

Workforce (4-year) to Workforce (2-year) – no difference

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level between top leadership/management of Southwest Community College and the workforce of Urban City University on the following dimensions: Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, Shares Leadership, and Job Satisfaction. No statistically significant differences were found between any other employee groups across institutions.

Research question two asks “Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees at public 2-year and public 4-year higher education institutions regarding servant leadership practices?” The data presented above suggests that there are statistically significant differences between the perceptions of employees at varying types of institutions on most

dimensions of servant leadership practices. These include developing people, building community, displaying authenticity, sharing leadership, and job satisfaction. However, these differences occurred only between the perceptions of top leadership/management of a 2-year institution and the perceptions of workforce at a 4-year institution.

Summary

Chapter 4 presents an overview of the data analysis conducted for this research study. Specifically, descriptive statistics were provided for each of the groups participating in the study. In addition, an ANOVA was performed and Tukey's post hoc test, when possible to determine the existence of statistically significant differences between the perceptions of one employee group versus another both within and across institutions. Both research questions were answered in the affirmative. In other words, there are statistically significant differences in the perceptions of employees both within and across institutions. However, the differences that occurred across institutions were between one top leadership/management group at one institution and the workforce group of the other institution. Statistical differences were not found between the top leadership/management groups or between the workforce groups. These differences will be further discussed in Chapter 5 which will also present conclusions and make recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

Introduction

Higher education institutions, like many other types of institutions, are faced with numerous challenges not the least of which include meeting the needs of a global society, operating in times of economic struggle, and preparing for the future. It is important that these institutions find ways to operate that are effective, efficient, and meet the needs of their constituencies both internal and external to the institution. Servant leadership has been suggested as a style that engages all levels of leadership within an organization allowing for shared values and the development of people. In doing so, it is suggested that not only will the people in the organization benefit, but so will the organization as a whole.

Gaining insight into how higher education employees perceive servant leadership practices can be helpful in determining whether or not this could be an effective leadership style. The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a significant difference in the perceptions of various levels of higher education employees regarding servant leadership practices at their respective institutions. This study was conducted at two different institutions and with all levels of leadership including workforce, mid-management, and top administration.

This study sought to add to the body of knowledge on this subject by answering the following research questions:

1. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees in various role groups regarding servant leadership practices within their own institutions?
2. Are there significant differences between the perceptions of employees at public 2-year and public 4-year higher education institutions regarding servant leadership practices?

A quantitative survey research methodology was used for this study. Specifically, employees at two different higher education institutions, a two-year public community college and a 4-year public university, were invited to participate in this study by completing the Organizational Leadership Assessment, a 66-question survey that uses a Likert five-point rating scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The survey was accessed on-line using an organizational code that was supplied to research participants. Anonymity was provided both for the individual participant as well as for the institution. Data was entered into SPSS, a statistical software program, and analyzed using descriptive statistics, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's post hoc test.

Because of several limitations, some caution should be used when interpreting the findings. One limitation of this study is that the assumptions of ANOVA were not fully met due to differences in the sizes of the groups. Additionally, the sample size from the 2-year institution was too small to make the assumption that it is an adequate representation of the larger population. Another limitation of the study is that it was conducted with only two institutions that are located within a certain geographical region and therefore the results may not be generalizable to other geographical areas. Results from other geographical locations may vary from the results of this research. Finally, this research is not designed to determine cause and effect with regard to any variables presented in the data.

Summary of Findings

Within Institutions

Top leadership/management at Urban City University had a higher level of perception of servant leadership practices on all six dimensions and the job satisfaction section of the OLA

than did the workforce. Statistically significant differences were found between the employee groups of UCU on all six dimensions. Only their perceptions of job satisfaction did not show a statistically significant difference between groups.

Southwest Community College had similar results with the top leadership/management group having a higher level of perception of servant leadership practices on all six dimensions and the job satisfaction section of the OLA. Statistically significant differences were found between the top leadership/management group of SCC and the workforce group on four dimensions: Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, and Shares Leadership.

Across Institutions

Comparisons were made between employee groups across institutions to determine if there were any statistically significant differences in the perceptions of these employee groups regarding servant leadership practices. Statistically significant differences were found between the top leadership/management group of Southwest Community College and the workforce of Urban City University on the following dimensions of the OLA: Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, and Shares Leadership, as well as the Job Satisfaction section. No significant differences were found between any of the other employee groups.

Conclusions

Three major conclusions can be drawn from the data analysis conducted in this study. These conclusions are listed below and will be compared with existing literature on servant leadership.

1. Executive leadership in two- and four-year institutions sense servant leadership practices

- are occurring more frequently than the workforce within their respective institutions.
2. Regardless of institution type, top leaders across institutions have similar perceptions of servant leadership practices; workforce members across institutions also have similar perceptions of servant leadership practices.
 3. Top leaders and workforce members tend to have moderate to low levels of job satisfaction.

Discussion

Conclusion One: Perceptions of Servant Leadership Within Institutions

At both institutions, the mean scores for each of the six dimensions of servant leadership practices, and the job satisfaction section, were higher from the top leadership/management groups than the mean scores of the workforce groups. What this means is that administrators within each institution believe that all six dimensions of servant leadership are being practiced at a higher level than the workforce believes. They also believe that job satisfaction, considered an outcome of the practice of servant leadership, is higher than the workforce believes. This is not surprising considering that top leaders and mid-management are often responsible for developing and/or implementing leadership practices and therefore, would see them in a favorable light.

In terms of Urban City University, there was a statistically significant difference between the perceptions of the top leadership/management group as compared to the workforce group on all six dimensions. Job satisfaction was not significantly different. What this implies is that there is a disconnect between administrators and workforce as to what each group believes is occurring at the university with regard to leadership practices. At Southwest Community College, there was a statistically significant difference between the two employee groups on four of the six

dimensions. While this is not as severe as what is occurring at Urban City University, it still implies a disconnect there as well.

These findings are similar to the results of past studies. Iken's study (2005) with higher education employees at a private Christian university in the Midwest is the one most closely related to this study. Utilizing the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument, she conducted a two-part study. Part one of her study focused on the perceptions of faculty members and administrators while the second part focused on the perceptions of staff members. Similar to the findings of this study, Iken found that faculty and administrators had higher levels of perceptions of all the dimensions of servant leadership (and job satisfaction) as compared to staff (Iken, 2005).

Laub's (1999) study, conducted with 828 people from 41 different organizations from across the United States and the Netherlands, showed that top leadership had a statistically significant difference in their OLA scores as compared to employees at other levels (Laub, 1999). Horsman (2001) conducted a similar study with 608 employees of thirty-four different types of organizations. This study was conducted primarily along the west coast of the United States and in Alberta, Canada. Horsman's study also showed a significant difference between the mean scores of top leadership overall as compared to management and workforce employees (Horsman, 2001).

Considering the top leadership is assessing its own leadership practices, it is not surprising that this group, as a whole, would tend to have a more positive perception of their own behavior. Robson's (2007) study on self-predicting leadership perceptions provides some explanation as to why top leaders may perceive their own leadership more favorably than that of

their workforce. Her study shows that leaders tend to see in themselves the leadership traits they find desirable in others. The opposite is true of less desirable traits. That is, leaders do not view themselves as having traits they find less desirable. Keller (as cited in Robson, 2007) also showed support for the theory that individuals find “that an ideal leader is analogous to the self” (p. 22).

Another reason why top leadership may perceive leadership practices differently may have to do with the organizational structure. As mentioned in Chapter 1, Mintzberg (1980) describes colleges and universities as having a Professional Bureaucracy. Individuals comprising the operating core (faculty), the middle line (management), and strategic apex (top administrators) have a high level of professional training or advanced educational degrees. This differs from the support staff (workforce), many of whom do not have any type of formalized training or higher education. The difference in educational training may account for some of the difference in perceptions regarding leadership practices.

Conclusion Two: Perceptions of Servant Leadership Across Institutions

The conclusion drawn from reviewing the data is that administrators tend to have similar perceptions of leadership practices regardless of the type of institution for which they work. The same conclusion can be drawn for workforce groups. The data analysis across institutions showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of top leadership/management from Urban City University as compared to the top leadership/management from Southwest Community College. Workforce groups from both Urban City University and Southwest Community College also had no statistically significant differences between them when compared across institutions. For this study, this indicates that

institution type did not influence the perceptions of employees when determining the existence of servant leadership practices.

To the knowledge of this researcher, no studies have been conducted previously that compare various types of higher education institutions to each other with regard to servant leadership practices. However, in returning to Laub's (1999) and Horsman's (2001) studies, various types of institutions were compared to each other regarding their perceptions of servant leadership practice. Both Laub's and Horsman's studies were conducted with business, community service, educational, government, medical, and religious organizations. In Laub's study, he found a significant difference in the perceptions of employees of community service organizations when compared to those of business and medical service providers. No significant differences were found between any other combination of organizations (Laub, 1999).

Horsman's results varied slightly. He found a significant difference between governmental organizations and all other types, including business (which included medical), community service, education, and religious. No other significant differences were found between any other combination of organizations (Horsman, 2001). Without knowing the exact institutions that Laub and Horsman studied, it is difficult to know for sure how these organizations differ from one another in their organizational structure and philosophy. It is possible that tightly coupled organizations may react differently to servant leadership practices than loosely coupled organization. Profit versus non-profit status may also be a contributing factor.

For both the administrative groups and the workforce groups in this study, the data presented here also does not provide insight into why there are similar perceptions across groups.

It may be that Urban City University and Southwest Community College did not show any significant differences in their perceptions of servant leadership because they have similar governance structures. Both are public institutions located in the same geographical area, both are part of a larger system, and both are relatively the same size. Additionally, educational institutions generally have similar missions which normally include teaching, research, and service. Such is the case with these two institutions.

Conclusion Three: Servant Leadership Practices and Job Satisfaction

With only one exception, participants in this study showed a moderate to low level of job satisfaction as indicated on the Organizational Leadership Assessment. Only the top leaders/managers at Southwest Community College indicated a high level of job satisfaction. Participants also showed a moderate to low perception of servant leadership practices as measured by the six dimensions of the OLA. Although this study did not examine the correlation between servant leadership practices and job satisfaction, a low perception level of job satisfaction and of servant leadership practices may indicate that the two are related.

Previous studies have shown a positive correlation between job satisfaction and the existence of servant leadership practices. Thompson's (2002) study was conducted with 116 employees of a religiously-affiliated college. He found a statistically significant positive correlation ($p < .01$) between participants' perception of servant leadership practices and their level of job satisfaction. Hebert (2003) used both the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) and the Organizational Leadership Assessment in a study she conducted with employees of service and technology industries. Her results showed a positive, linear relationship ($r = .7530$, $p < .001$) between the perception of servant leadership practices and

job satisfaction using the MCMJSS and a similar relationship ($r=.6677, p<.001$) using the OLA.

Drury's (2004) study was conducted with 225 employees in an educational setting using both the OLA and Meyer's Organizational Commitment Scales. Using a Pearson correlation test, she found a positive correlation between the perception of servant leadership practices and job satisfaction. Washington (2007) conducted a study with 207 employees in a variety of businesses throughout the Southern United States. She found a positive correlation between the perceptions of servant leadership practices and job satisfaction ($r=.52, p<.01$).

If participants from this study feel that leaders within the respective organizations are not sharing leadership or developing the potential of the workforce, then these individuals may not feel they are contributing to the overall success of the organization, which may account for their lack of job satisfaction.

Implications

For Researchers

Although the concept of servant leadership was first introduced in the 1970s, only a small amount of research has been conducted that helps in understanding this style of leadership and its effectiveness for organizations. In addition, the use of servant leadership for higher education institutions has received attention only within the last decade.

While Iken's (2005) study provided some insight, it was conducted at a private, religiously affiliated university. This research examines how servant leadership practices are perceived at public institutions. Research has also focused on traditional four-year universities. The addition of a community college in this study adds to the body of knowledge about the use of servant leadership in institutions other than just traditional universities. However, the sample

size at the community college was not large enough to be truly representative of the larger population for which it was intended to represent.

Additional research at various types of higher education institutions, using larger samples, is recommended to get a clearer picture of how higher education employees may respond on the Organizational Leadership Assessment. It is suggested that executive leaders be enlisted to provide support for such a study. By acknowledging the value of such a study to their own employees and by encouraging their participation, a larger response may be generated. Researchers may also want to consider the use of incentives to increase participation rates.

In both this and Iken's investigations, it was shown that administrators, regardless of their type of institution, tend to perceive the practice of servant leadership more positively or frequently than the workforce. What is unknown, however, is the reasons or factors that may account for these different perceptions. Therefore, qualitative research designs, using individual interviews and focus groups with employee groups would be helpful in determining why administrators and workforce perceive leadership practices differently, not just on what they perceive differently. Participants could be asked to describe the behavior of leaders or share examples of how leaders are exhibiting or failing to exhibit servant leadership practices. They could also be asked to explore how language is used to convey the intentions of leaders within an organization.

Additional research in higher education settings exploring the connection between servant leadership practices and job satisfaction is recommended to gain a better understanding of this relationship.

For Practitioners

This study has significance to practicing higher education administrators who desire to understand their own organizational culture. One of the conclusions drawn is that upper-level administrators perceive servant leadership practices are occurring more than what workforce members report. Accepting this as a possibility on one's own campus can lead to dialogue about misperceptions or disconnects between employee groups. If administrators truly want to create a strong community of shared leadership throughout their own organizations, it will be important to understand what leadership practices will foster that type of environment. Using the results of the Organizational Leadership Assessment, leaders within an organization can determine which servant leadership behaviors are perceived most frequently and which are not. If, for example, employees do not perceive they are contributing to the overall goals of the organization, top leaders can develop ways to include all levels of employees in the overall processes and decision-making of the institution.

Because servant leadership can be used at all levels within an organization, entry- and mid-level professionals interested in practicing servant leadership can apply the results of this study as they develop their own leadership skills. Although they may not be able to change the culture of an entire organization, employees at these levels can influence behavior within their own circles of influence. If leaders and workforce employees both work towards a better understanding of servant leadership, and therefore more frequent practice of such, then the entire organization may benefit from increased job satisfaction and employee loyalty.

Woodward, Love and Komives (2000) encourage collaboration among leaders and followers. They state:

Recognizing that individuals may be very talented..., our future effectiveness will depend

on changing our leader-centric views to focus on how an organization does leadership. This mode of working must go beyond the annual staff retreat, the strategic-planning session, and the individual method of supervision. It is a way of being together in leadership all the time, which needs focused attention, reflection, and capacity building (p. 84).

Supervisors can follow the above advice by engaging their staff on a regular basis in decision making processes, strategic planning, workgroup facilitation, and other activities that help develop the staff and allow them to contribute to the overall goals of the organization.

Furthermore, faculty in higher education administration or similar disciplines can use the research findings to discuss optimal and dysfunctional leadership practices within colleges and universities. Using the six dimensions of the Organizational Leadership Assessment, graduate students can explore specific ways in which to develop and share leadership throughout an organization. By learning how to build a stronger community within a college or university, these future employees can assist in the creation of organizations where everyone plays a role in fulfilling the mission of the institution.

Personal Epilogue

As a young professional in higher education, I was fortunate enough to work in an organization which practiced servant leadership. Although I did not fully understand the concept of servant leadership at the time, I was able to observe the positive benefits this leadership style had on both the organization and for me personally. Specifically, due to the university's servant leadership practices, I clearly understood the mission of the university and I was encouraged and expected to be a contributing member of this community. Knowing that my personal and

professional development, as well as my contributions, were important to others created a desire in me to more fully understand and practice the characteristics of servant leadership.

As a higher education administrator, I am passionate about servant leadership and have adopted this as my personal leadership style. I consider it my responsibility to engage my students, my colleagues and my employees in the work that we do. I learn as much from them as they do from me through practicing servant leadership. Through this research study, I hope that I have, in some small way, contributed to others' understanding of servant leadership.

APPENDIX A

Letter requesting permission to use the Organizational Leadership Assessment

January 20, 2009

Dear Dr. Laub,

I would like to formally request the use of the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument, University version, to be used as part of my dissertation with The University of Texas at San Antonio. I would be interesting in using this instrument with three different higher education institutions.

I have provided the information you have requested as shown on your website. I agree to the terms set forth in your Letter of Understanding which include providing you with a bound hardcopy plus a digital copy of the dissertation and research results. Additionally, I will grant permission for my research results to be used on the olagroup website.

Thank you for your consideration of this request. I look forward to your response.

Sincerely,

Lisa R. McDougale
Doctoral candidate
The University of Texas at San Antonio

APPENDIX B

Permission to use the Organizational Leadership Assessment

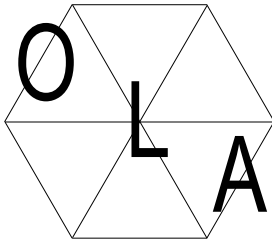
Lisa – Yes, I give you permission to use the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) for the purpose of your dissertation research project. I wish you well with your study and I look forward to seeing the results.

Jim Laub, Ed.D.
OLAgrouP
5345 SE Jennings Lane
Stuart, FL 34997
561-379-6010
www.olagroup.com



APPENDIX C

Organizational Leadership Assessment



Organizational Leadership Assessment

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 organization or work unit. 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. Your involvement in this assessment is anonymous and confidential.

Before completing the assessment it is important to fill in the name of the organization or organizational unit being assessed. If you are assessing an organizational unit (department, team or work unit) rather than the entire organization you will respond to all of the statements in light of that work unit.

IMPORTANT please complete the following

Write in the name of the organization or organizational unit (department, team or work unit) you are assessing with this instrument.

Organization (or Organizational Unit) **Name:** _____

Indicate **your present role/position** in the organization or work unit. Please **circle one**.

- 1 = **Top Leadership** (From President to Vice President level)
- 2 = **Management** (Asst. VPs, Deans, Dept Chairs, Div.Chairs, Directors, Supervisors)
- 3 = **Workforce** (full-time or significantly involved University faculty & employees)

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** (or organizational unit) 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					

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 (or organizational unit) including managers/supervisors and top leadership

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					

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 (or organizational unit).

<u>In viewing my own role ...</u>		1	2	3	4	5
55	<u>I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute</u>					
56	<u>I am working at a high level of productivity</u>					
57	<u>I am listened to by those <i>above</i> me in the organization</u>					
58	<u>I feel good about my contribution to the organization</u>					
59	<u>I receive encouragement and affirmation from those <i>above</i> me in the organization</u>					
60	<u>My job is important to the success of this organization</u>					
61	<u>I trust the leadership of this organization</u>					
62	<u>I enjoy working in this organization</u>					
63	<u>I am respected by those <i>above</i> me in the organization</u>					
64	<u>I am able to be creative in my job</u>					
65	<u>In this organization, a person’s <i>work</i> is valued more than their <i>title</i></u>					
66	<u>I am able to use my best gifts and abilities in my job</u>					

APPENDIX D

Institutional Review Board Approval

UTSA The University of Texas at San Antonio

Office of Research Integrity and Compliance

FWA # 00003861

January 16, 2009

Lisa R. McDougale, M.A.
Department of Educational Psychology and Policy Studies
College of Education and Human Development

Notification of Exempt Determination

Dear Ms. McDougale:

Re: IRB # 09-054E

Title: "Servant Leadership in Higher Education: An Analysis of the Perceptions of Higher Education Leaders Regarding Servant Leadership Practices at Varying Types of Institutions"

Site(s): *deleted to protect the names of the institutions*

In accordance with Federal Regulations for the review of research protocols, the above referenced protocol was determined to be Exempt on January 16, 2009, under the DHHS Regulation 46.101 (b) under the exempt review category(s) noted below:

(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
(i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

The consent form was approved and is stamped to reflect the approval date. Please submit for review by the IRB all modifications to the protocol prior to implementation of the changes(s). Submit an Annual Status Report for Exempt Research in ample time for IRB review prior to January 16, 2010, and notify the IRB when the study has been completed.

PLEASE INCLUDE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL FUTURE CORRESPONDENCE RELATING TO THIS PROTOCOL.

Should you have any questions regarding this letter or need further assistance, please contact the IRB office at 210-458-6473 or send an email to irb@utsa.edu.

Sincerely,
Judith W. Grant, Ph.D., CIP
Director, Institutional Review Board

Cc: Bruce Barnett, Ph.D.

UTSA IRB #09-054E
APPROVED
1/16/2009

Faculty Sponsor

One UTSA Circle. San Antonio, Texas 78249 • (210) 458-6767 • (210) 458-5196 fax

APPENDIX E

Email Requesting Participation in Study

Dear Higher Education employee,

My name is Lisa McDougale and I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies department at The University of Texas at San Antonio. As part of my degree requirements I am conducting a study of leadership practices at higher education institutions as perceived by the institution's own employees.

As an employee with a year or more of employment history at (*Urban City University or Southwest Community College*), I would like to request your participation in this study. Only those employees with a year or more of employment history with the organization are being asked to participate to ensure that the individual is fully integrated into the organization and therefore, more fully able to make an informed assessment of the organization's leadership practices. To get your honest and candid feedback of organizational leadership practices at (*Urban City University or Southwest Community College*), I am asking you to complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) on-line. It will **only take 15 minutes of your time** but may provide valuable insights on organizational leadership practices in the higher education field.

Please know that the answers you provide are **completely confidential and anonymous**. Leadership at your institution will only be receiving a summary report of the averaged responses of the total group taking the assessment. Thank you for completing this as quickly and thoroughly as possible.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. The study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board of The University of Texas at San Antonio. Please feel free to contact me at mcdougale@uthscsa.edu or my dissertation chair, Dr. Bruce Barnett at bruce.barnett@utsa.edu should you have any questions about your participation in the study or the study itself.

TO TAKE THE ASSESSMENT

1. Go to: <http://www.olagroup.com> and click "Take the OLA" on the upper right of the screen.
2. Type in XXXX as the organizational code
3. Type in XXXX as the pin
4. Choose the university version of the OLA
5. Choose the language option you are most comfortable with
6. Click "Start"
7. Read the brief Introduction
8. Select your Present Role/Position in the organization
9. Click "Take the OLA"

Thank you again for taking time out of your busy work day to participate in this study. I believe that the feedback from this assessment will help inform the higher education community about leadership practices within our field in ways that can benefit us all.

Sincerely,

Lisa R. McDougale
Doctoral Candidate
The University of Texas at San Antonio

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VITA

Lisa McDougle was born in 1962 in Alexandria, Louisiana to Randy and Marie Rich. She is the second of three children. Upon graduation from Alexandria Senior High, Lisa attended Louisiana Tech University in Ruston, Louisiana. She earned a Bachelor of Science degree in Accounting, a Bachelor of Science degree in Business Administration, and a Master of Arts in Human Relations and Supervision. While at Louisiana Tech University, Lisa was active in numerous student organizations and worked part-time as a graduate hall director.

After completing her master's degree, Lisa accepted a position as an Assistant Director of Residence Life at St. Mary's University in San Antonio, Texas where she was later promoted to Director of Residence Life. Lisa currently serves as the Director of Student Life at The University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio.

Lisa has served as a mentor at an inner-city elementary school since 1992. She has also served as the chair of the Law Enforcement Academy Advisory Board of the Alamo Area Council of Governments and in numerous roles with her church. Lisa is married and the mother of one daughter. Lisa plans to continue her work as a higher education administrator in student development.

