Assessing the Relationship between Servant Leadership and Effective Teaching in a
Private University Setting

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Abstract

To address the competition for students, the demand for increasing student enrollments

and the pressure for student satisfaction, teaching effectiveness has become an

increasingly common discussion on university campuses. The competition for students

among universities requires a new approach to teaching. As university campuses

continue to compete for students, servant leadership could be the key to both attracting

and retaining students for the entirety of their university tenure. This non-experimental,

correlational, and comparative quantitative study investigated the relationship between

the level of perceived servant leadership and effective teaching and examined the effect

of years of teaching experience, age, and gender on the level of perceived servant

leadership. The Teacher Leadership Assessment instrument was distributed to 325

instructors who teach in four university educational centers in Texas. Participants

completed and returned 68 surveys, representing a 21% return rate. Nonparametric

statistical tests called Spearman rank correlation coefficients, Kruskal Wallis, and Mann-

Whitney tests were used to analyze the data. The Spearman rank correlation for servant

leadership scores and effective teaching was not statistically significant, $r_s = .14$, $p =$

.253. The finding was inconsistent with the literature on servant leadership which

suggested that servant leadership behaviors in the classroom result in higher levels of

student satisfaction. Through a Kruskal-Wallis test, results showed no statistically

significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching

experience ($p = .823$) or age of the instructor ($p = .102$). Through a Mann-Whitney test,

it was determined that males and females did not differ in terms of servant leadership ($p =$

.457). The results from the study added to the limited literature on servant leadership in

the educational setting. Recommendations for future research include conducting the study within different educational settings, such as public and for profit universities, in order to provide additional information on how servant leadership affects teaching in varied environments.

Acknowledgments

Enjoy the journey! That was a phrase heard many times during this educational process. The journey of obtaining an advanced degree is one that requires support from many people. My foundation throughout the process was Jesus Christ, the ultimate servant leader. I was constantly reminded through scripture that "I can do all things through Christ who gives me strength" (Philippians 4:13).

My soul mate and husband of 25 wonderful years, Wayne, was my pillar of emotional support and encouragement. Having gone through this journey before me, he supplied endless amounts of guidance and wisdom. I look forward to many lazy days on the deck of our lakehouse!

My children provided encouragement and some good-natured ribbing along the way. David, Ryan, and Kelsey…I count you among the greatest treasures in my life!

My dad instilled in me the work ethic I have today. Knowing that I had his support in the process made the tough times a little easier. I learned perseverance as I watched him through life; first by taking care of my mom as she valiantly fought colon cancer, and then later as he battled it as well. All things are possible when you have a foundation rooted in Christ.

My Wednesday lunch bunch provided some much needed laughter, love, and prayer support. I knew that I could always count on the "girls" to bring a smile. Knowing that I had friends praying for me allowed me to push on.

I have been blessed to work at a job that I love! My students constantly motivate me to be the best instructor I can be. My hope is that they leave my classroom as a different person…changed through sharing a journey and ready to make a difference in

the world. My coworkers cheered every milestone. The support, insight, and wisdom they have provided was much appreciated.

This dissertation would not have been possible without the work of Dr. Jim Laub and Dr. Aaron Metzcar. Dr. Laub provided the foundation for the study of servant leadership through the development of the OLA.   Dr. Metzcar adapted the OLA for use in the classroom setting. The TLA was the key piece in studying servant leadership in higher education. I am grateful that these men allowed me to use their information in my study.

Finally, many thanks go to my committee. Dr. Mohamad Hammoud graciously chaired my committee, encouraged me through tough personal times, and worked through many iterations of the final document. Dr. Mary Dereshiwsky provided guidance in aligning the research process. Dr. Yvonne Doll provided guidance both through courses and my dissertation committee. I owe her a huge amount of thanks for helping refine my research ideas even before the dissertation came to be.

This dissertation is dedicated to my mom, Janet Carson. From a very early age, I learned how to serve others by watching her. She truly embodied the many tenets of servant leadership by investing her life in others. Even after she was diagnosed with colon cancer, her primary concern was those around her. I can only hope to love as she loved…and live as she lived. Even in her final days, her words were spent encouraging others.

Enjoy the journey…and make it count!

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The application of principles, values, and practices of servant leadership in the classroom can have a profound difference on the effect of learning and the learning experience (Hays, 2008). The central tenet of servant leadership is that servant leaders are committed to the growth and development of people and are follower-centered (McClellan, 2007). Drury (2005) theorized that faculty who exercised servant leadership in the classroom would be more learner-centered. As the economic pressures to compete for students grow, universities have become more learner-centered in order to attract and retain students (Tinto, 2009).

Servant leadership has origins in scripture. In the book of Mark, Jesus taught his disciples that whoever wanted to become great must first become a servant. "For even the Son of Man did not come to be served, but to serve, and to give his life as a ransom for many" (Mark 10:42-45, New International Version). Sendjaya, Sarros, and Santora (2008) observed that servant leaders treat all people with equality, engaging with others as equal partners in the organization in stark contrast to leaders who protect status symbols as a means of establishing distance between themselves and their followers. Treating all people with equality is an especially important concept when teaching adult students.

With deep spiritual roots, servant leadership involves leading without being in the spotlight. A servant leader, when the work is done, has followers that believe they accomplished the work themselves (Greenleaf, 2003). If others see the accomplishment, but not the leader, a servant leader has fulfilled his work. Within the classroom, the servant leader can inspire students to perform at a high level. Sussan, Ojie-

hamiojie, and Kassira (2008) observed that teachers as servant leaders create an atmosphere for learning where talent, potential, and courage are utilized to energize student learning. Teachers who embody the tendencies of servant leadership have the ability to make a profound difference in the lives of their students.

According to Drury (2005), leaders want to achieve results. For a teacher, the result is learning. Servant leadership is an effective method of achieving that goal of learning. The growth and development of students should be a goal of effective teachers (Goe, Bell, & Leo, 2008). Instructors who embody the tenets of servant leadership in the classroom create and grow a learning environment that fosters mutual enrichment of both the students and instructor. When servant leadership is displayed in the classroom, both the instructor and student leave the course with more knowledge, greater skills, and an increased commitment to make a significant contribution to their environment (Chonko, 2007). Because the learning environment is critical to the success of students, the study of servant leadership and effective teaching needs to be considered.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a background and theoretical framework for the study. An overview is given of the problem and the purpose of the study. The chapter includes the research questions guiding the study, the related hypotheses, and a definition of critical terms. The nature of the study, and its significance, is also included in the chapter.

Background

University instructors often carry a burden of the many challenges they face. Challenges come from expectations set by students and administrators, pressures of accreditation and student performance, and required research. The challenges can be

outweighed by the satisfaction of knowing that a difference can be made in the lives of students.

The student-teacher relationship is the foundation for the learning process. Ren (2010) noted that student improvements and progress are related to a healthy, trusting relationship. The ability to affect students begins with a relationship. The teacher, as leader of the class, should be the one who initiates the relationship. Greenleaf (1977) surmised that the best way to build relationships was through serving others. The quality of one's relationships with another individual is dependent upon the depth of concern for that individual (Laub, 1999).

Servant leadership is a critical component in the classroom. Teachers that exhibit servant leadership characteristics enable students to succeed based on the confidence and support given in the classroom (Chonko, 2007). Students are the beneficiary of servant leadership in the classroom. Hays (2008) noted that students experience a higher motivation to learn and to serve when learning from an instructor who practices servant leadership. A transformation occurs in the classroom, gradually molding students into servant leaders ready to influence and serve others.

Researchers are calling for an in-depth study of both the meaning and application of servant leadership (Drury, 2005; Metzcar, 2008). The Servant Leadership Roundtable discussions at the School of Leadership Studies at Regent University provide an excellent example of servant leadership studies in action (Laub, 1999). Many schools are following in the footsteps of Indiana Wesleyan University by developing research-focused programs with a commitment to exploring the servant leadership concept.

Problem Statement

To address the need for student satisfaction which often drives enrollment and retention, teaching effectiveness has become an increasingly common discussion on university campuses across the United States (Agbetsiafa, 2010). The competition for students among universities requires a new approach to teaching that includes learner-focused behaviors on the part of faculty (Drury, 2005). Learner-centered behaviors, exhibited by effective teachers, play a critical role in efforts to increase student satisfaction (Tinto, 2009; Lau 2003). Servant leadership is an approach to teaching that includes learner-focused behaviors (Chonko, 2007). Although the application of principles, values, and practices of servant leadership in the classroom has been shown to create a substantial difference in learning and the learning experience, a thorough and detailed review of the research literature suggests that limited studies have been completed evaluating effective teaching and servant leadership at the university level (Hays, 2008; Crippen, 2006).

Past research has been conducted on servant leadership in the organizational setting (McCuddy & Cavin, 2008; Locander & Luechauer, 2006; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008), but the concept of servant leadership and effective teaching in institutions of higher learning has been identified as one that requires additional research (Metzcar, 2008). Understanding the relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching could influence the way teaching at institutions of higher learning is perceived. Knowledge gained through this study could influence the focus of instructors toward learner-centered behaviors if servant leadership is found to have value in the classroom. The relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching, as well as the

identification of demographic variables that affect servant leaders, could influence

servant leader behaviors in institutions of higher learning to the meet the challenging

economy that exists in higher education. Additionally, the results of the study would also

serve to fill in the gaps found in servant leadership literature within the field of education.

Purpose

The purpose of this non-experimental, correlational, and comparative quantitative

study was to assess the relationship, if any, between the level of perceived servant

leadership and effective teaching in instructors who teach in four university educational

centers in Texas. Additionally, the study also showed if years of teaching experience,

age, and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership. The study

utilized two pre-existing surveys, the Teacher Leadership Assessment (TLA) instrument

(Metzcar, 2008) and end-of-course student evaluations. The Teacher Leadership

Assessment instrument was used to measure the level of perceived servant leadership in

instructors (Metzcar, 2008). The researcher utilized a standardized end-of-course

instrument to determine teaching effectiveness.

A correlational design was used to assess the relationship between perceived

servant leadership and effective teaching in which servant leadership was the predictor

variable and effective teaching was the criterion variable. Through a comparative design,

the study also examined potential demographic influences on servant leadership including

the effect of teaching experience, age, and gender through a Kruskal Wallis analysis of

variance test and Mann Whitney test. The Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to examine

whether the median servant leadership score varied by teaching experience and age. The

Mann Whitney test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership

score varied by gender. For the comparative study, servant leadership was the dependent variable and the demographic factors served as the independent variables.

A total of 325 instructors that serve in the School of Graduate and Professional Studies in the target university system were invited to participate in a survey on their perception of servant leadership in the classroom. The participants were contacted through university e-mail with an invitation to participate in the study. The email contained an explanation of the study, the purpose of the study, and the researcher's contact information as well as the link to the survey online. GoogleDocs, an online survey-hosting site, facilitated the data collection process (Google Docs, n.d.). While 83 surveys were completed, only 68 contained all the needed data for the study. Knowledge gained from the study helped to fill the gap currently present in literature on the effects of servant leadership in the university classroom.

Theoretical Framework

The study fell under the broad theoretical area of leadership. The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between the criterion variable of effective teaching and the predictor variable of servant leadership. The study also examined potential influences on servant leadership of such factors as teaching experience, age, and gender, through a Kruskal Wallis analysis of variance test and a Mann Whitney test in which servant leadership was the dependent variable and the demographic factors served as the independent variables.

Interest in leadership theories began in the early twentieth century (Yukl, 2010). Ranging from approximately 1900 to World War II, the earliest theories included definitions of leadership and traits of leaders under the category of trait theories, and

made the distinction between leaders and followers (Daft, 2008). From World War II until the late 1960s, contingency and situational theories explored the relationship between leaders and followers within the confines of differing situations (Robbins & Judge, 2009). Later in the 1970s, servant leadership emerged, in which the leader was viewed as a servant.

Robert Greenleaf introduced servant leadership to the modern world in the 1970s. Sendjaya, Sarros, and Santora (2008) noted that servant leadership began with Greenleaf's seminal work in which he asserted that servant leaders must serve before leading. Using Greenleaf's work as a foundation, Laub (1999) developed a survey to systematically measure servant leadership in the organizational setting. Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment set the stage for the development of additional instruments to measure servant leadership (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2010).

As the need for empirical data on servant leadership emerged, Spears (2004) and Blanchard (2007) continued to build upon the foundation of servant leadership. Servant leadership has the ability to positively effect organizations (Spears, 2004) and educational institutions (Drury, 2005). Servant leadership differs from other leadership theories because of the holistic nature of the concept. Supporters concur that dimensions, such as morality, spirituality, authenticity, and integrity are individually or partially addressed in other theories, but are combined under servant leadership (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2010).

Research Questions

In order to determine if there was a relationship between servant leadership, as measured by the Teacher Leadership Assessment (Metzcar, 2008), and teaching

effectiveness, as measured by end-of-course student evaluations designed by the target institution. the following research question was identified.

> **Q1.** What is the relationship, if any, between the level of servant leadership and teaching effectiveness?

In order to determine if years of teaching experience, age, and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership, three additional research questions were identified to guide this non-experimental research study.

> **Q2.** To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience?

> **Q3.** To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor?

> **Q4.** To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor?

Hypotheses

To answer the research questions posed for this study, the following hypotheses were addressed.

> **H1$_0$**. There is no statistically significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

> **H1$_a$**. There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

> **H2$_0$**. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

H2$_a$.   There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

H3$_0$.   There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

H3$_a$.   There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

H4$_0$.   There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

H4$_a$.   There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

Nature of the Study

The purpose of this non-experimental, comparative and correlational quantitative

study was to assess the relationship, if any, between the level of perceived servant

leadership and effective teaching in instructors who teach in four university educational

centers in Texas. Additionally, the study showed if years of teaching experience, age,

and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership.   A comparative

correlational design was used to assess the relationship between the level of perceived

servant leadership and effective teaching in which servant leadership was the predictor

variable and effective teaching was the criterion variable. The study utilized two pre-

existing surveys, the Teacher Leadership Assessment (TLA) instrument, designed by

Metzcar (2008), and end-of-course student evaluations, designed by the target institution.

The TLA was used to measure the perceived servant leadership in instructors.

Standardized university end-of-course surveys, used to determine teaching effectiveness, were a part of each class in the university system that was utilized in the study.

The researcher also examined potential demographic influences on servant leadership including the effect of teaching experience, age, and gender through a Kruskal Wallis analysis of variance test and a Mann Whitney test. The Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership score varied by teaching experience and age. The Mann Whitney test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership score varied by gender. Servant leadership was the dependent variable and the demographic factors served as the independent variables.

To determine the appropriate sample size for this study, the G*Power statistical software application was used (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). The results of the G*Power analysis indicated a minimum sample size of 67 was required to achieve conclusive evidence to reject or accept the null hypotheses. A total of 325 instructors in the School of Graduate and Professional Studies at the target university system were invited to participate in the study.

The necessary data for this study was collected through an internet survey hosted by GoogleDocs (Google Docs, n.d.). After receiving an email invitation to take the survey, an online survey was distributed to all 325 instructors that teach on ground courses at the four educational centers of the School of Graduate and Professional Studies at the target university via an email containing a unique Uniform Resource Locator (URL). While 83 surveys were completed, only 68 contained all the needed data for the study. The data was coded and downloaded to two statistical software programs.

Microsoft Excel (Microsoft, 2007) and Minitab (Minitab 15 Statistical Software, 2007)
were used to perform the required statistical tests.

Significance of the Study

In today's society, where the rigors of testing, certification, and professional
development are used to create educators that are highly qualified, servant leadership
may be the means to develop highly qualified teachers that are readily sought (Metzcar,
2008). Servant leadership is a style of leadership that provides great benefits for both the
student and the teacher (Chonko, 2007). For the teacher, learning and improving are an
ongoing process, students are the focus of attention, and the student's needs are placed
first. Servant leadership is one style of leadership that might be effective in education
(Steele, 2010).

Zabaleta (2007) observed that that the act of teaching can create an intimate
relationship between teacher and student. This relationship between teachers and
students is an important element in the process of both evaluating and improving
instruction at institutions of higher learning. Agbetsiafa (2010) noted that a strengthening
of relationship could affect student satisfaction and retention. Black (2010) observed that
servant leadership has the potential to bring out the best in teachers and students.

Chonko (2007) suggested that when servant leadership is practiced by teachers,
the instructor and student finish the course with increased knowledge, increased skills,
and commitment to contribute to their communities. In light of the absence of scholarly
research on servant leadership practices and effective teaching at institutions of higher
learning, this study allowed the researcher to determine if a correlation existed between
servant leadership and effective teaching in a private university setting. The impact that

years of teaching experience, age, and gender had on servant leadership were also examined. The results from the study may provide evidence to support adopting a servant leadership model and adapting the methods and training of faculty to empower them to be more effective teachers.

As university campuses continue to compete for students, servant leadership could be the key to both attracting and retaining students for the entirety of their university tenure. If a relationship is found to exist between the level of servant leadership and effective teaching, teachers could be taught the basics of servant leadership within existing training or mentoring programs. The university would reap the benefits of higher levels of teaching effectiveness and student satisfaction. The benefits range from increased satisfaction in the classroom to increased administrative satisfaction in the retention of student and university profits. Additionally, the results of the study would also serve to fill in the gaps found in servant leadership literature within the field of education.

Definitions

This section provides the definitions of terms used in the study. The definitions assist in providing an accurate and comprehensive understanding of the research. The terms defined were central to the study.

Effective teachers. Effective teachers inspire their students to succeed. Students are aware of their teacher's passion for both learning and teaching. The ten basic characteristics of effective teaching include good prior academic performance, communication skills, creativity, professionalism, pedagogical knowledge, thorough and appropriate student evaluation and assessment, self-development or lifelong learning,

personality, talent or content area knowledge, and the ability to model concepts in their content area (Polk, 2006).

End-of-course evaluations. Course evaluations, also known as end-of-course surveys, are used by most universities to assess teaching effectiveness (Guder & Malliaris, 2010; Stark-Wrobleske, Ahlering, & Brill, 2007; Moore, 2006). The summary data from evaluations are used to make promotion, tenure, salary, and merit decisions.

Organizational leadership assessment instrument. Laub (1999) developed and validated the Organizational Leadership Assessment Instrument (OLA) to quantitatively identify servant leadership in organizational settings. Using six key constructs, the OLA is an instrument used to measure the health of an organization.

Servant leadership. The term *servant leadership*, as coined by Robert Greenleaf, refers to a leader who serves first (Greenleaf, 1977). Laub (1999) noted that servant leadership is based on the understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those being led ahead of self-interest.

Teaching effectiveness. Teaching effectiveness is most often defined by the ratings of students, observers, or supervisors (Duckworth, Quinn, & Seligman, 2009). End-of-course student evaluations are the most important and, in many cases, the only measure of teaching ability on many university campuses (Clayson, 2009). For the purpose of this study, instructors who have positive end-of-course evaluations were considered effective teachers.

Summary

Teaching effectiveness has become an increasingly common discussion on university campuses across the nation because of the demands for increasing student

enrollments and the pressure to satisfy the students' desires for higher grades (Agbetsiafa, 2010). Effective leadership in the classroom is necessary for effective teaching. Servant leadership is a style of leadership that has great benefit potential for both the student and the teacher (Chonko, 2007).

The preceding chapter provides evidence supporting the need for research in the area of servant leadership and effective teaching as well as the theoretical background for the study. The research questions and hypotheses were identified. The definitions provided clarity in comprehension of the study. Knowledge gained from the study filled the gap currently present in literature on the effects of servant leadership in the university classroom and will help university leaders in understanding student satisfaction, which may play a role in enrollment and retention.

Understanding the relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching could influence the way teaching at institutions of higher learning is perceived. As noted by Hays (2008), the application of principles, values, and practices of servant leadership in the classroom can have a profound difference on the effect of learning and the learning experience. The benefits of servant leadership have been studied in the organizational setting (McCuddy & Cavin, 2008; Locander & Luechauer, 2006; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008), but Metzcar (2008) noted that the concept of servant leadership and effective teaching in institutions of higher learning has been identified as one that requires additional research.

This study examined the relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching. The study also showed the effect that years of teaching experience, age, and

gender had on servant leadership. The results from the study added to the literature on

servant leadership in institutions of higher education.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Understanding the relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching could influence the way teaching at institutions of higher learning is perceived. Hays (2008) observed that the application of principles, values, and practices of servant leadership in the classroom has been shown to create a substantial difference in learning and the learning experience. The purpose of this non-experimental, correlational and comparative quantitative study was to investigate the relationship, if any, between the level of perceived servant leadership and effective teaching in instructors who teach in four university educational centers in Texas. The study also showed if number of years of teaching experience, age, and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership.

The term *servant leader* is an interesting and paradoxical concept. A servant is often seen as weak while a leader is viewed as strong and confident (Greenleaf, 1977). A servant fulfills the will of others while a leader gives commands. A servant is responsible for serving others while a leader should be served. A paradox emerges when these two terms are brought together. Servant leadership and effective teaching are not terms that are commonly seen together. Both concepts are timely in their respective fields, and the relationship is the subject of this research and literature review. This chapter presents a review of literature on the (a) history and benefits of servant leadership, (b) servant leadership in education, effective teaching, (c) how effective teaching is measured, and (d) both servant leadership and effective teaching.

Literature Search Strategy

To prepare for the literature review, an extensive search of online library databases was conducted to locate articles and publications relevant to the study, as well as the use of internet search engines. Search terms used included *servant leadership* and several variations of servant leadership, such as *servant leader, servant teacher, servant teaching, servant teachership, servant leader benefits, servant leader qualities,* and *leading as servant* among others. Other terms used included *leadership, leadership principles, effective teaching, effective teachers, student evaluations of teaching, measuring effective teaching,* and *teaching*.

Articles and books found were prioritized by subject area and abstract so the most relevant sources were used. The ProQuest dissertation abstracts database was useful in locating prior dissertations related to the subject matter, and the literature review sections of dissertations located were also used to locate literature deemed relevant. Sources used consisted of scholarly, peer-reviewed journals, and doctoral dissertations from a variety of public and private institutions. Literature published within the last five years was given preference as well as older seminal articles that were particularly relevant.

History of Servant Leadership

Over 2,000 years ago, servant leadership was displayed by Jesus Christ (New International Version). Jesus embodied the tenets of servant leadership as he consistently put the needs of others before his own needs. Jesus called on His followers to do the same. In the Gospel According to St. Matthew, Jesus told his followers that the greatest among them would be a servant (Matthew 23:11, New International Version). Jesus also stated that those who exalt themselves will be humbled and those who are humble will be

exalted (Matthew 23:12, New International Version). Jesus was a strong, effective leader who cared deeply for his followers. Jesus exhibited many of the tenets of servant leadership: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community (Spears, 2004). As described in the New Testament, Jesus provided a clear example of servant leadership with his mission to serve first and then lead (Harrington, 2006).

This combination of both servant and leader was effectively used by Jesus as he touched people's lives and affected change without force. The motivation behind Jesus was a commitment to others regardless of the cost to his own life. He was motivated by his love for others, not fame or power. Jesus did not seek glory; instead he modeled a life that involved serving others and treating them with respect. Jesus said, "Love the Lord your God with all your heart and with all your soul, and with all your mind. This is the first and greatest commandment. And the second is like it: Love your neighbor as yourself" (Matthew 22:37-40). From early beginnings, the servant leadership concept grew into an accepted leadership theory.

Developed as a theory during Robert Greenleaf's 38 years of leadership experience, the development of the concept of servant leadership into a practicing leadership form occurred after Greenleaf's reading of Herman Hesse's novel *Journey to the East* (Spears, 2005). In Hesse's novel, a group undertook a mythical journey. Leo, the servant, took care of the menial tasks while also sustaining the group with spirit and song. When Leo disappeared, the group fell apart and could not complete the journey without him. The group was unable to function without Leo's presence. After several years of wandering, the group discovered that Leo was actually the head of the Order

who organized the journey. The humble servant Leo was also a great and mighty leader.

Greenleaf based his idea of servant leadership on the lesson found in the story; the

servant leader wants to serve first and then to lead.   The motivation to serve was intrinsic

in the nature of the servant leader individual (Greenleaf, 2003). Crippen (2010) noted

that the servant leader does not seek personal recognition, but often chooses to go about

his or her business in a quiet fashion. Within Greenleaf's (1977) story, the message is

clear —one must first serve others, and through that service, regardless of position, a

person will be recognized as a leader.

The term *servant leadership* as coined by Greenleaf refers to a leader who serves

first (Greenleaf, 1977, para. 2). Greenleaf noted that being a servant leader begins with

the natural feeling that one wants to first serve. From those feelings, the conscious

choice brings someone to aspire to lead and that choice to serve is the basis of that

person's leadership. Leadership originates from service. The person who practices

servant leadership differs from one who leads because of the need to satisfy an unusual

power drive or to acquire material possession (Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership,

n.d.).

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership combines the elements of being a leader and having servant

qualities. The paradox created by combining the terms of servant and leader is resolved

by addressing both the task of leadership and care for the followers. Through

servanthood, the concept of servant leadership combines the concern for getting things

done with attention to the needs of those who are actually getting the work done

(Greenleaf, 1977). Greenleaf (2003) also noted when servants are chosen to be leaders

by their employees, they tend to be supported, committed and reliable. This ideal attitude would create an atmosphere that encourages followers to become the best they can be. van Dierendonck (2010) observed that serving and leading become almost interchangeable in servant leadership. The term "leader" implies that a person serves others and being a servant can allow an individual to lead.

The key characteristics of servant leaders identified by Laub (1999) included valuing people (by listening respectfully, serving the needs of others first, and believing in people); developing people (by providing opportunities for learning, modeling appropriate behavior, and building others up through encouragement); building community (by building strong relationships, working collaboratively, and valuing individual differences); displaying authenticity (through integrity and trust, openness and accountability, and a willingness to learn from others); providing leadership (by envisioning the future, taking the initiative and clarifying goals); and sharing leadership (by creating a shared vision, sharing decision making and power, as well as status and privilege with their followers). Servant leaders share the trademarks of competence, courage, and compassion (Vilcalvi, 2006). According to McCuddy and Cavin (2008), servant leadership requires a community of trust, authenticity, and shared reliance. When this is established, individuals possessing servant leadership qualities can significantly impact the lives of others. While Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) found that demographic variables, including gender, language, ethnic group, and age, were not related to servant leadership, a study by McCuddy and Cavin (2009) contradicted some of the results. While noting that there was no difference in servant leader behaviors in males and females, the study did reveal that individuals 60 years and older exhibited

servant leadership behaviors significantly more often than individuals from the age of 40 to 49 years (McCuddy & Cavin, 2009).

The practice of servant leadership transforms the way a person looks at life and work. Servant leadership goes beyond the boundaries of the organization into all aspects of life and differs from other types of leadership because of its holistic nature. Servant leadership involves a long-term transformational approach to life. Servant leaders have the potential for creating positive change throughout society (Oostinga, 2008). van Dierendonck (2010) submitted that the empowering and developmental behaviors found in servant leadership create high-quality relationships. These relationships, in turn, are associated with higher engagement in challenging tasks.

Individuals who practice servant leadership focus more on the followers and their aspirations than on the organizational objectives (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2010). Empowerment, as a key characteristic of servant leadership, is directed toward the development and growth of individuals. Servant leaders gain satisfaction as followers develop and grow. This growth is possible through the authenticity of the leader. Authenticity for the servant leader is driven by a higher calling to make a positive difference in the lives of others (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2010). The conscious effort to facilitate the followers' well-being and job performance leads to a positive response by the followers.

Servant leadership is radically different from the traditional definition of leadership (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2010). Daft (2008) defined leading as using influence to motivate employees to achieve organizational goals. Traditional leadership can be used to gain power or position (Greenleaf, 1977), with the focus being on the individual rather

than the common good of the organization. Transactional leadership, based on an individual's position within an organization, focuses on fulfilling the organizational goals (Daft, 2008). Compliance with authority, rather than trust, may be the basis for following directives in many cases (Daft, 2008). Servant leadership produces results through encouraging and teaching (Vilcalvi, 2006). Servant leadership, through the eyes of a traditional leader, may appear soft and ineffective. Servant leaders who empathize and listen to their followers can give the illusion of indecisiveness or lacking in vision to a transactional leader (Oostinga, 2008).

Servant leadership differs from traditional leadership theories by suggesting that leadership is secondary to being a servant (Spears, 2004). The primary desire of individuals practicing servant leadership is to serve. Servant leadership involves putting other people first as well as encouraging and teaching others to produce results (Greenleaf, 1977). Regardless of the nature of the service, the person served, or the mood of the leader, servant leaders willingly serve others when a legitimate need exists (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2010). Results produced by leaders who utilize the methods of encouraging and teaching are longer lasting than change that occurs through threatening, intimidating, or manipulating behavior because the goal of servant leadership is to build future leaders who learn to believe in themselves and their abilities and strengths (Vilcalvi, 2006).

The common trademarks of an effective servant leader are competence, courage, and compassion. A servant leader "is a skilled communicator; a compassionate collaborator who has foresight, is a systems thinker; and leads with moral authority" (Sipe & Frick, 2009, p. 6). Because of the focus on values, van Dierendonck (2010)

noted that servant leadership is differentiated from other leadership styles in behavior, attitudes and motivation. Servant leadership is not determined by age or gender, but rather by the leader's compassion and motivation (Vicalvi, 2006).

Although Greenleaf (1977) emphasized servant leadership actions, he did not specify how servant leadership would be measured. Laub (1999) provided an operational definition of servant leadership and the servant organization and created a list of servant leadership characteristics. As part of his study, Laub (1999) developed and validated the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument to quantitatively identify servant leadership in organizational settings. The essential characteristics of servant leadership, derived from a comprehensive review of the literature, were combined with a Delphi survey among experts and resulted in six clusters of servant leadership. Laub (1999) formulated items in terms of organizational culture and leadership in general. The resulting factor analysis focused on the two dimensions of organization and leadership. The dimensions reflected the health of the organization as a whole, the top leaders in the organization, and the followers. van Dierendonck (2010) noted that Laub's Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument could measure the extent to which an organization has a servant leadership culture.

As part of his study, Laub (1999) also suggested that there were opportunities to apply the concepts of servant leadership to teaching adults. The concepts and tenets of servant leadership, translated to the classroom, might produce similar favorable responses in students. Neither Laub nor Greenleaf provided research on servant leadership assessment in education settings.

Characteristics of Servant Leaders

Listening is one of the major characteristics of a servant leader. A true leader will respond to issues by choosing first to listen (Sipe & Find, 2009). Crippen (2010) indicated that those who practice the servant leadership model emphasized the need for silence, reflection, meditation, and active listening. As a part of the communication process, listening opens the door to the followers' hearts. Instructors who practice servant leadership seek to identify and clarify a group's will. The servant leader listens to what is and what is not said (Locander and Luechauer, 2006).

Listening forms the foundation for servant leadership. Ren (2010) observed that listening comes before learning, learning comes before preparing, preparing before serving, and serving before leading. Although listening is a critical skill for any leader, it is a foundational skill for a servant leader. Listening shows others that the leader has a genuine interest in them and in the viewpoints of others.

Another characteristic of a servant leader is empathy. Empathy occurs when a person can see the viewpoint or role of the other person. Each individual is born with the need to be accepted and recognized for his or her uniqueness (Ren, 2010). Teachers should love and accept students on an individual basis. Locander and Luechauer (2006) reported servant leaders both recognize and accept people for their unique spirits. Servant leaders assume the good intentions of colleagues and do not reject them. A servant leader will empathize and try to understand others. Crippen (2010) suggested that compassion and empathy can help develop a positive relationship between teachers and students. A true servant leader will try to empathize with their followers.

Persuasion offers one of the biggest differences between traditional leadership and servant leadership. Persuasion is used by servant leaders to create a change in attitude in place of organizational authority. Davidson (2008) observed that persuasion attempts to win the hearts and minds of the followers. Several influence tactics such as the use of explanations, reasoning, and factual evidence; apprising; inspirational appeals; and consultations are combined in the element of persuasion (van Dierendonck, 2010).

Persuasion is easily accomplished through example (Davidson, 2008). The student follows the teacher through example. In order to accomplish this, a servant leader must induce attitude change, which entails effective change. Traditional leaders rely on authority, as well as coercion, to accomplish their objectives. Servant leaders choose persuasion rather than coercion in order to achieve their goals, with the end goal being to avoid simple compliance by followers. Servant leaders take the time to develop a consensus with their followers (Crippen, 2010). The consensus is accomplished through the sharing of power with the group.

Building on the concept of consensus, conceptualization is another important characteristic. Conceptualization is a characteristic displayed by servant leaders, and involves looking beyond day-to-day issues to see the larger picture. Servant leaders seek to foster their own abilities to dream great dreams (Crippen, 2010). Transactional leaders, because of the nature of their positions, are often bound by shorter-term operational and organizational goals (Daft, 2010). Servant leaders, on the other hand, think on a broader basis. As a result, Locander and Luechauer (2006) noted that those who practice servant leadership aim to nurture their followers' abilities to dream great dreams. Ren (2010) noted that servant leaders strive to plant long-term values in the

students and constantly upgrade their knowledge in the teaching field in order to guide their students.

Conceptualization is part of the vision displayed by a servant leader. Once a vision is established, the leader has to dedicate huge amounts of time and energy to communicating that vision to anyone who will listen (Blanchard & Miller, 2007). Ren (2010) observed that there is a delicate balance between conceptual thinking and a day-to-day focused approach. The balance must be maintained in order to accomplish the vision that has been set. The process of making the vision a reality sets the servant leader apart from a transactional leader.

A servant leader is committed to the growth of others. In addition to personal growth, a servant leader is willing to invest in others and allow them opportunities to grow. Locander and Luechauer (2006) observed that servant leaders believe that people have intrinsic value, beyond their tangible contributions as workers. Because of this belief, these leaders are deeply committed to nurturing the personal and professional growth of every individual within their organizations. Within the classroom setting, a teacher can determine specific steps to hold themselves accountable for the growth of students (Sipe & Frick, 2009).

Commitment to the growth of others requires selflessness on the part of the servant leader. By helping others to grow and achieve their dreams, followers will also become committed to accomplishing the goals set forth by the servant leader. The most profound advice for teachers was provided by Greenleaf (1977) when he asked "Could not many respected teachers speak those few words that might change the course of life, or give it new purpose?" (p. 5).

Overall, the characteristics of a servant leader come down to character. Whetstone (2002) noted that the servant leader needs to abandon their own preconceptions of how best to serve, then wait and listen until others define their own needs and can state them clearly. A leader's character affects the followers. One of the most important relationship tools is the leader's authenticity and integrity. Authenticity and integrity, along with the leader's feelings, will translate positively in the classroom (Steele, 2010). Sparks (2009) maintained that effective leadership is a matter of the heart and spirit as well as the head. The teacher who embodies servant leadership in the classroom encourages followers through leading with his or her heart and head with values, purposes, and ideas.

The central tenet of servant leadership is built on the belief that the leader will genuinely put people first, viewing them as humans worthy of dignity and respect. This can only be accomplished when the servant leader leads with his or her heart. Servant leadership is all built on character. The common perception of an iceberg, with only a small tip showing above the waterline, provides a great example of servant leadership. Blanchard and Miller (2007) observed that about 90% of a leader's success is determined by what is not seen, specifically the character of a leader. The visible 10% represents the skills of the leader. Both leader character and leader skills are critical elements of servant leadership.

Servant leaders involve the followers in the decision making process. Firmly based in ethical and caring behavior, servant leaders continually encourage personal growth of their followers (Locander and Luechauer, 2006). Additionally, Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora (2008) observed that servant leaders portrayed a resolute conviction

and strong character by taking on not only the role of a servant, but also the nature of a servant. This character is demonstrated through their total commitment to serve other people.

When examining personal leadership characteristics, strengths include personal credibility, enthusiasm, communication skills, and organization skills. These basic skills form the foundation for excellent group leadership. Each of these skills is rooted in the concept of servant leadership. Other skills can be built from these basics. Developing these strengths will progress as the concepts are practiced on a regular basis.

Benefits of Servant Leadership

The application of servant leadership has many benefits. The attributes displayed by servant leaders, including vision, being honest, trustworthy, service oriented, a role model, demonstrating appreciation of others' service, and empowerment, combine to create a sense of follower satisfaction (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Servant leaders help foster growth of followers, allowing each individual to achieve their full potential (Swanson, 2010). The growth that occurs accompanies an expectation that the leader will model and support with time, interest, and resources the ones who are following (Blanchard & Miller, 2007).

Within the classroom setting, servant leadership has the ability to streamline and improve the educational process (Black & William, 2010). By creating an environment in which individuals volunteer to share both time and effort, instead of an environment where egoism is the standard, unnecessary issues can be avoided (Cerit, 2010). The effort shown by teachers in dealing primarily with desired educational outcomes is encouraged. Servant leadership allows a leader to serve others, not in the sense of doing

things for them, but by allowing other persons to become more competent to meet their own needs and being better equipped to serve others (Black, 2010). The ultimate benefit of servant leadership is the focus on helping followers become more autonomous in their actions by learning to be less reliant on the leader.

The students are the primary beneficiary of servant leadership in the classroom. As a servant leader, one should consider the needs of the followers. In turn, the followers will begin to practice self-restraint, develop character, integrate discipline, and practice love and respect for other people (Ren, 2010). McCuddy and Cavin (2008) surmised that leaders who display servant leadership behaviors tend to be more effective leaders because that leadership is a process involving interacting with and influencing followers. The mindset of serving followers can strengthen the quality and effectiveness of the leadership process.

The practice of servant leadership increases trust between leaders and followers. Joseph and Winston (2005) explored the relationship between employees' perception of servant-leadership and trust and found the perception of servant-leadership correlated positively with trust in leaders. The foundation of the relationship between a servant leader and follower is the inherent belief in the intrinsic value of each individual. Servant leaders believe that each individual carries intrinsic worth. Steele (2010) determined that the application of servant leadership in the classroom has the potential to bring out the best in the teacher and the students. Teachers that exhibit servant leadership in the classroom believe in each student's ability to grow and learn.

Servant Leadership in Education

In corporate settings, churches, and educational institutions, leaders have embraced servant leadership as a legitimate leadership style for creating a positive and productive environment (Black, 2010). Among the studies on leader-subordinate dynamics, servant leadership has been the most influential and innovative approach (Maak & Pless, 2006). Due to the success of business leaders utilizing servant leadership, educators have become interested in the servant leadership applications within the classroom.

The impact of servant leadership in education was introduced in a parable, *Teacher as Servant* (Greenleaf, 2003) set in a university and describing servant leadership in action. In the parable, a passionate professor willingly became the unpaid master of a dormitory and, through shared experiences, instilled the servant leadership philosophy in students living in the same residence hall. The premise was that teachers can choose to offer a greater basis for hope to students than what is now generally available. Instilling servant leadership qualities involves teaching that goes beyond the doors of the classroom into the lives of the students.

Neill, Hayward, and Peterson (2007) noted that in practice the integration of servant leadership principles has less to do with directing other people and more to do with serving their needs and in sharing power in an effort to enhance effectiveness in the instructor role. *Teacher as Servant* provided an example of the outcomes when one professor cared deeply enough to invest in his students to make a difference. The fictional account provided the ultimate test of a servant leader; what does one do with one's optional time when one is not paid (Greenleaf, 2003). That parable has now

become a reality for several university campuses within the United States with the introduction of servant leadership courses and seminars, as well as degree programs (Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, n.d.).

The introduction to servant leadership in the classroom represents a shift from teacher-centered learning to student-centered learning. The principles of servant leadership can create an opportunity for student self-direction, restructure the authority relationship between teachers and students, enhance the learning process, and foster a life-long desire for learning (Chonko, 2007). The starting point for a learner-centered classroom is the teacher. Pedagogical techniques provide the foundation for a shift in classroom environment.

Ramsey and Fitzgibbons (2005) determined that creating a learner-centered classroom involved three distinct stages: an emphasis on teaching (doing something to students), an emphasis on teaching and learning (doing something with students), and an emphasis on learning (being with students). The emphasis on teaching involves sharing information through lectures, presentations, and reading from textbooks. The emphasis on teaching and learning changes the role of teaching to an imparter of wisdom and a facilitator. Students learn through activities, discussions, and examples. The emphasis on learning involves teacher engagement in activities and experiences with the students. The students learn through the relationship as well as experiential learning and skill building (Ramsey & Fitzgibbons, 2005).

When used in the classroom, servant leadership can have a powerful impact on students by changing a life or giving life purpose (Greenleaf, 1977). The application of principles, values, and practices of servant leadership to management education could

make a profound difference on the impact of learning and in the learning experience of both students and teachers (Hays, 2008). The core principles of servant leadership that can easily be applied to the classroom include the belief that all students have dignity and worth as well as the belief that all students are interconnected (Chonko, 2007).

The ten attributes of servant leadership that make a difference in the learning experience of students include listening, empathy, healing, persuasion, awareness, conceptualizing, commitment to growth, stewardship, and community transition (Hays, 2008). Through the use of the Teacher Leadership Assessment instrument, Metzcar (2008) found a positive relationship between effective teaching, as defined by certification from the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, and servant leadership in kindergarten through 12th grade teachers. Metzcar's study, based on the works of Laub (1999), focused on a primary education institution. Within the tested population of approximately 764 teachers, the evaluation of the scores revealed that 716 teachers fell into the category of Servant Leader.

Leadership, by definition, is relational in nature because leadership is based on the relationship between the leader and followers (Daft, 2008). Servant leadership involves the elements of relationship, influence, and goal attainment (Metzcar, 2008).   A relationship is developed between the leaders and the followers. A teacher develops relationships with students within the realm of the classroom. Effective instructors emphasize relationships between leaders and followers (Chonko, 2007). Instructors who embody the servant leadership qualities get to the heart of what matters to others (Jackson & McDermott, 2009).

As the relationship between the teacher and student develops, a reciprocal process occurs. Instructors inspire confidence in their students, who, in turn, inspire further confidence in the instructor. Creating and sustaining relationships, a tenet of servant leadership, builds a shared sense of purpose and accountability in the classroom (Bowman, 2005). The additional benefit of job satisfaction is produced when servant leadership principles are practiced. Kroth and Keeler (2009) pointed out when school leaders and teachers demonstrate an ethic of care, community building, and a focus on teaching and learning for all students, job satisfaction is increased.

Instructors should see themselves as students and be willing to learn from student experiences (Sussan, Ojie-Ahamiojie, & Kassira, 2008). This process will allow a clearer understanding of how to truly serve students in the classroom through the application of leadership principles. In Table 1, Drury (2005) showed the relationship between the key characteristics of servant leadership, as defined by Laub (1999), and effective teaching from the perspective of students.

Table 1

A Comparison of Servant Leadership and Effective College Teaching

Servant Leadership	Effective Teaching Methods
Values people	"The secret to education lies is respecting the student" Ralph Waldo Emerson
• By believing in people	
• By serving others' needs before his or her own	Learner-centered vs. lecture-centered; action learning methodologies; educators are often advised to encourage talk as a means of understanding ideas and information (Lewis and Starks 1998).
• By receptive, non-judgmental listening	

Develops people • By providing opportunities for learning and growth • By modeling appropriate behavior • By building up others through encouragement and affirmation	Students are advised to encourage students to take an active role in the learning process. Student-focused methodologies in postsecondary and adult education literature, e.g., andragogy, problem-based learning, action-learning, and other constructivist learning strategies, (Knowles, 1984, Stinson, 1996).
Builds community • By building strong personal relationships • By working collaboratively with others • By valuing differences of others	Collaborative inquiry and facilitators of the group learning process; the synergogy alternative (combining pedagogy and andragogy) vs. resistance to authority figures (Mouton & Blake, 1984); peer accountability.
Displays authenticity • By being open and accountable to others • By a willingness to learn from others • By maintaining integrity and trust	More perceived learning noted with teachers using "immediacy behaviors" which reduce social distance (Freitas, Myers, and Avtgis, 1998); "Teachers who can relate to students, confess their own faults and mistakes, and foster mutual respect encourage more student interaction than teachers who seem all-knowing, uncaring, and intimidating" (Dossin, 2002, p. 33).
Provides leadership • By envisioning the future • By taking initiative • By clarifying goals	Teachers are leaders of learning and agents of change; faculty serve in role of coach and facilitator; clarifying the learning objectives; a common pursuit of knowledge (Batson & Wynn, 2001; Henderson & Barron, 1995; Stinson, 1996).
Shares leadership • By facilitating a shared vision • By sharing power and releasing control • By sharing status	"Students feel free to speak in classrooms where the teacher is fully human and treats the students as friends, not underlings or opponents in a power struggle" (Dossin, 2002, p. 33); collaboration and peer tutoring embraces the concept of *primus inter pares*, or first among equals (Greenleaf, 1977).

and promoting others

Note: Adapted from "Teacher as servant leader: A faculty model for effectiveness with
       students," by S. Drury, 2005, Servant Leadership Research Roundtable, School of
       Leadership Studies at Regent University. Used with permission.

The classroom environment is an important element for teachers who are servant

leaders. A community of trust, authenticity, and shared reliance provide the essential

elements for the application of servant leadership in the classroom (Bowman, 2005). The

characteristics of valuing people, developing people, building community, displaying

authenticity, providing leadership, and sharing leadership, were originally identified by

Laub (1999) in the process of developing the OLA. These characteristics have a

significant impact on an individual's ability to lead and impact others.

Teachers who exhibit servant leadership in the classroom address the universal

human longing to be known, to care, and to be cared for in pursuit of the common good

(Bowman, 2005). McCuddy and Cavin (2009) determined that "education helps sensitize

people to their roles in the community and their responsibilities to other members of the

community, which in turn may foster servant leader behaviors" (p. 137). Teachers must

be willing to live up to their own vision and values if students are to follow. Ren (2010)

observed that teachers need to lead by example. Students will follow because of who

their teachers are and what they represent.

Teachers who embody servant leadership principles will give both time and

consideration to students' interests and ideas (Bowman, 2005). The focus on students as

followers is a central tenet of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). This focus also

serves to develop a community of caring, which is another tenet of servant leadership (Herman & Marlowe, 2005). The teacher, as a servant leader, has the ability to model the desirable behavior, skills, and attitudes for students as well as set a high standard for students to emulate (Bowman, 2005). Teachers who embody servant leadership principles view themselves as stewards who develop and empower other individuals to reach their highest possible potential (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2010).

Servant Leadership in the Classroom

Servant leadership in the classroom is also known as servant teachership (Chonko, 2007). The classroom provides a place where a teacher's personal and professional life intersects. This intersection allows for a transparency to shine through the life of the teacher and the qualities of servant leadership to shine forth. Crippen (2006) observed that once an individual assumes the mantle of teacher, they become a leader in their classroom as well as in their school and learning community. Based on Greenleaf's work, several principles of servant teachers were outlined by Chonko (2007). The principles include developing inquiring minds, stewardship, lifelong learning, teaching to needs instead of wants, valuing students, practicing patience and tolerance in the classroom, translating knowledge into action, and acting as a servant.

Standards are an important component in the classroom. Chonko (2007) observed that teachers at the university level often set minimum standards for their students. In order to develop inquiring minds, teachers need to set high expectations. Learning is a product of what teachers and pupils do in classrooms. Teachers have to manage complicated and demanding situations, channeling the many pressures of students in order to help them learn immediately as well as become better learners in the future. In

order to complete this task more effectively, standards should be raised within the classroom (Black & William, 2010). Creating and enforcing standards gives students a goal to attain. The lowering of those standards does not imply that a teacher does not care for their students. Steele (2010) found that setting high standards through desirable attitudes, behaviors, and skills should be modeled by the servant leader teacher to the students.

Ultimately, teachers that maintained caring relationships supported students' learning because teachers who care help students meet their high standards (Fry & DeWit, 2010). Creating high expectations of students may require extra time and effort. In order to facilitate the high standards and goals, the teacher must be willing to spend the time needed to discover the strengths and weaknesses of each student and find a way to help each student learn. Teaching students to inquire requires inquisitiveness from the teacher as well. Good teachers are never satisfied with their teaching abilities. For those teachers, a hunger to stretch and grow is an integral part of their lives. Refining knowledge and continually improving pedagogy allows a teacher to share an inquisitive spirit with students (Helterbran, 2008).

Stewardship is defined as teacher's willingness to be accountable for the well-being of students and energizing those students toward growth (Chonko, 2007). Greenleaf (1977) believed that every member of an organization can play a significant role in caring for the well-being of the organization in addition to serving the needs of others in the organization. The ultimate goal is the greater good of the society. Chonko (2007) noted that within the classroom setting, there should be an environment that promotes the common good of all students.

Stewardship is developed through the practice of faith, hope, and charity (Hall, 2009). Because teachers spend a large amount of time in preparation for classes, they must have faith that learning will actually occur. Hall noted that faith is exercised through learning activities that require students to be responsible in the growth of their own knowledge and wisdom. Faith is also an integral part of the high standards set in classrooms. Teachers and students alike must believe that the standards are attainable (Black, 2010). Hope is focused on the future. Teachers that exhibit hope believe that time spent covering specific topics and assignments will bring forth learning in the future. Of hope, faith, and charity, hope is often the hardest to implement specifically in the classroom. Charity is one of the foundational tenets of servant leadership; putting another's needs ahead of your own (Greenleaf, 2003). Charity in the classroom is exhibited in the teacher-student relationship. Hall (2009) noted that charity is concerned with extending oneself so as to nurture positive growth in students.

Within the educational setting, one core purpose is to transform lives for the benefit of society (Lincoln, 2008). For servant leader teachers, stewardship involves creativity in developing students within the classroom. The information should be presented in multiple ways in order to allow students to understand and apply the concepts based on the students' preferred learning styles. Stewardship modeled in the classroom is only the first step in developing servant leaders. Nessan (2009) noted that true stewardship involves caring for the whole society and creation itself. A wide perspective on the world is a result of servant teachership. Black (2010) noted that this awareness is not only sensory, but includes an understanding of one's ethics, morals, and values.

Servant leader teachers engage students in a lifelong learning process (Cerit, 2010). Within the context of the classroom, students are given a foundation for learning. The knowledge and skills that students possess should grow in depth and breadth throughout their education (Crippen, 2010). As part of the growth process, teachers can encourage realistic optimism associated with learning (Chonko, 2007). Engagement occurs when faculty seek out student perspectives on their own learning, creating an atmosphere where students actively engage in the learning process.

As students become engaged in the learning process, they will have more powerful and purposeful learning outcomes (Heller, Beil, Kim, & Haerum, 2010). The lifelong learning process requires teachers to ask their students about the learning process Herman & Marlowe, 2005). Engagement involves teachers and students talking together about the impact of that experience on what students know and can do, a willingness to demand more of themselves and their students, trying new approaches in the classroom, asking why and how, and possessing a willingness to learn from their own experience as educators (Indiana University, 2008).

Teaching to individual needs instead of individual wants is another important element in the servant leader teacher classroom. Needs are unpredictable and vary widely from one student to another. Black and William (2010) noted that teachers need to know about their students' progress and difficulties with learning so that they can adapt their own work to meet students' needs. This philosophy falls in line with the tenet of servant leadership, which places others' needs first. The discovery of needs can be done through observation and discussion in the classroom as well as the reading of students' written work (Black, 2010). When the needs of individual students are

considered, the complete process of teaching all students becomes clear (Manning, Stanford, & Reeves, 2010).

Teachers who practice servant leadership value their students. Helterbran (2008) found that students are willing to work harder for teachers who they believe are invested in them as students and as human beings. Blanchard and Miller (2007) indicated that the best servant leaders knew their values, shared their values, and lived their values. This process creates trust and value in the eyes of their followers. van Dierendonck (2010) observed that a safe psychological climate plays a central role in creating an atmosphere where there is room to learn yet also to make mistakes. An effective servant leader teacher will create a culture of success in which a belief of achievement is shared by students (Black & William, 2010). The resulting culture of success can be seen in classrooms where a safe and welcoming environment exists.

Servant leader teachers practice patience and tolerance in the classroom. The environment should be designed so as to allow a balance of freedom and structure. Servant leader teachers should be able to achieve the goal of teaching while showing profound respect for other human beings (Bell & Habel, 2009). Respect is often shown through the process of communication between teacher and student.

Teachers who help students meet high standards are involved in talking to them about their thinking, learning, and behavior (Fry & DeWit, 2010). Along with communication, hope and optimism are important characteristics that accompany patience and tolerance in the classroom. There are many days when teachers see no progress or understanding from their students. Hope provides patience and optimism that can carry a teacher through the days of struggle (Hall, 2009).

The ability to translate knowledge into action is present in classrooms where servant teachership is practiced (Black, 2010). Sparks (2009) asserted that the quality of leader development and preparation has a direct correlation with the quality of teaching in the classroom. Teachers act as architects in the classroom by creating an environment for learning. According to Jackson and McDermott (2009), teachers put into place the environmental conditions that motivate key players. Glaser (2006) observed that effective leaders create a culture where all individuals can contribute their talents and potential. Within the walls of the classroom, servant leader teachers can create a similar culture that allows students to contribute their individual talents and potential to the learning process. By allowing student input, different perspectives on the subject covered can provide a more comprehensive view than the teacher alone can provide (Jackson & McDermott, 2009).

Students also need to understand how the information presented is related to their lives. Once students learn the information is applicable to their lives and the world around them, the information becomes important to them (Fry & DeWit, 2010). Hall (2009) observed that teachers who practice servant leadership in the classroom permit the students to learn concepts in a way that connects to where the students are in life, rather than rote memorization of the concepts that are important from the perspective of the teacher.

The most important element for servant teachership is acting like a servant. The goal of a servant leader is to make a difference in the lives of others and to impact their lives. Crippen (2010) observed that the teaching profession is based on making connections with people. The relationships form the foundation of the investment in

others, both now and in the future. The investment in student's lives through relationships and learning will allow students to experience high-quality teaching and learning and be surrounded by supportive relationships. Herman and Marlowe (2005) noted that when a teacher displays servant teachership, they act from the belief that all humans deserve to be surrounded by kindness. Blanchard and Miller (2007) indicated that success is built upon both results and relationships. A long-term commitment to both the established relationship and seeing results is the basis for a successful classroom.

Effective Teaching

Teaching at any level in the educational process is complex, as are those who teach. The essence of effective teaching involves the combination of content knowledge, pedagogy skills, and knowledge and appreciation of the complex nature of teaching students to ultimately be able to point to evidence that learning has occurred (Helterbran, 2008). The definition of effective teaching has changed over the years.

While attempts have been made to identify the characteristics of effective teachers using a variety of theoretical perspectives, both qualitative and quantitative, from various disciplines (McMillan, 2007), no one universally accepted definition has emerged. A general understanding of effective teaching is understood as teaching that is oriented to, and focused on, students and their learning (Devlin & Samarawickrema, 2010). The promotion of student learning should be the goal and the measure of quality teaching (Shuck, Gordan, & Buchanan, 2008).

Effective teaching matters to teachers and students alike. Effective teaching involves the elements of content knowledge, pedagogy skills, knowledge, and appreciation of students (Helterbran, 2008). All of these elements are combined in the

classroom setting. The ten principles of effective teaching proposed by Kember and McNaught (2007) included:

1. The focus of teaching and curriculum design forms the focus of meeting students' future needs, including critical thinking, teamwork and communication skills, amongst others.

2. The fundamental concepts are more important for students, even if less content is covered.

3. Real-life and current events should tie in the relevance of what is being taught.

4. Challenging students to deal with misconceptions is important.

5. In order for meaningful learning to occur, students need a variety of active learning activities.

6. Teachers must establish genuine relationships so that interaction can take place.

7. Teachers should motivate students through their own enthusiasm and provide interesting, enjoyable and active classes.

8. Curriculum design should ensure that all learning activities and assessment are consistent with achieving learning outcomes related to future student needs.

9. Lesson planning and flexibility are critical to ensure that adaptations may be made based on the class situation.

10. Assessment must be consistent with the desired learning outcomes.

In higher education institutions, the instructor determines the teaching plans, selects the teaching content, designs the teaching activities, and organizes the course and teaching methods. Kai (2009) noted that the standards, abilities, and preferences of the

instructor were often the decisive factors affecting teaching quality. Because instructors are central to the education process, individual characteristics must be considered as well.

Individual characteristics were the central elements that tied the previous elements together. Initial characteristics of effective teachers included a passion for teaching in one's field, enthusiasm, a sense of humor, and being approachable. Helterbran (2008) found that the most important element in determining teaching effectiveness was respect and compassion toward students by instructors. As the instructor treats students with respect and compassion, the actions can be spread from student to student. Powell and Lines (2010) reported that a profound sense of appreciation for others in the class was developed as students engaged in disclosure with one another and got to know one another.

When asked, Helterbran (2008) noted that individuals can reflect on their past education process and identify a teacher whom they remember fondly. While it may have been the classroom setting or knowledge obtained, there is a strong likelihood that the intangibles, which consists of those elements of personality and practice, blend into one's perception of a good teacher (Helterbran, 2008). Effective teachers are defined as those who have helped respondents to learn (Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008). According to Walker (2008), the twelve primary characteristics common to effective teachers identified in a 15-year study indicated that effective teachers:

- were prepared and positive;
- possessed an optimistic attitude;
- set no limits upon the students and set high expectations for students;
- held the belief that any student could be successful;

- were creative in teaching styles and fair in assessment policies;

- ensured that all students had both equal opportunity and privileges;

- displayed a personal touch and cultivated a sense of belonging with all students;

- cared deeply for student's well-being;

- were compassionate and forgiving;

- did not hold grudges and allowed students to start each day with a clean slate;

- had a sense of humor and made learning fun; and

- were honest and admitted to mistakes when they occurred (p. 64).

Traditional indicators of teaching competence, such as a certification, rarely explain the difference in teaching performance between effective and non-effective teachers (Polk, 2006). Teaching effectiveness is most often defined by the ratings of students, observers, or supervisors. While extroverted teachers received higher rankings than introverted teachers, it was unclear if the extroverted personality trait contributed to the student learning (Duckworth, Quinn, & Seligman, 2009). The traits that directly correlate to effective teaching were grit, life satisfaction, and an optimistic explanatory style. Of the three traits, life satisfaction was the best predictor of effective teaching (Duckworth, Quinn, & Seligman, 2009).

Effective teachers lead by example (Polk, 2006). Students are aware of their teacher's passion for both learning and teaching. The ten basic characteristics of effective teaching identified by Polk included good prior academic performance, communication skills, creativity, professionalism, pedagogical knowledge, thorough and appropriate

student evaluation and assessment, self-development or lifelong learning, personality, talent or content area knowledge, and the ability to model concepts in their content area (Polk, 2006).

The components of effective teaching correspond to servant leadership in the classroom (Drury, 2005). A similar correlational study with a different focus was documented by Metzcar (2008). Metzcar observed that teachers who embody servant leadership tendencies value students, develop students, are authentic, create a sense of community, and provide direction for learning as students shape their individual learning experience. As noted by Metzcar's results, a connection was made between servant leadership and effective classroom teaching in a primary school setting.

Effective teachers possess the ability to help students learn and set high expectations. Effective teachers establish and maintain a supportive classroom environment that allows for both educational opportunity and success (Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008). Helterbran (2008) observed that as the primary teaching role has changed over time from imparter of knowledge to facilitator of learning, effective teachers must adapt to the changes to best serve their students. As this change occurs, establishing relationships with students will become even more important. Powell and Lines (2010) observed that one of the foundational principles leading to enhanced teaching is frequent contact between student and instructor. As the relationship between student and instructor grows, the supportive classroom environment will flourish.

Measuring Effective Teaching

One of the core activities in academic units of higher education is the evaluation of teaching. The evaluation process has profound career implications for the faculty

member being evaluated (O'Keefe, Hamer, & Kemp, 2008). Measuring effective

teaching remains a challenge, causing confusion and controversy among those in the field

of higher education (Wattiaux, Moore, Rastani, & Crump, 2010). Effective teaching is

often a difficult concept to evaluate because it encompasses both a process (the physical

act of teaching) and outcomes (student learning) (Beran & Rokosh, 2009). The three

common approaches for faculty evaluation in the classroom included student ratings, peer

ratings, and self-assessment (Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008).

The traditional model of teaching, where the teacher dominated the classroom

environment, has been replaced by a new model in which students are given a voice in

the classroom through student evaluations of teaching (Kai, 2009). While no universal

definition of measuring effective college teaching has been found in the literature review,

student evaluations were found to be the most commonly used instrument (Clayson,

2009). Helterbran (2008) determined that because students function as producer and

consumer in the educational process, there is no better measure than formal student

evaluations for classroom use for professional evaluation of instructors by students.

Student end-of-course evaluations were used to obtain student feedback regarding

courses and teaching for improvement purposes, as well as to provide a defined and

practical process to ensure that actions were taken to improve courses and teaching

(Denson, Loveday, & Dalton, 2010; Zabaleta, 2007). Waldman (2008) pointed out that

the overwhelming majority of the teaching performance evaluation of faculty members

was most likely based on student appraisals. Student evaluations of teaching, combined

with measures of learning outcomes that assess distinct aspects of teaching effectiveness,

together provide a comprehensive picture of effective teaching (Stark-Wroblewski, Ahlering, & Brill, 2007).

The student evaluation of teaching involved students completing a questionnaire that assesses a faculty member's performance (R. Thompson, personal communication, January 5, 2011). The questionnaire is typically given at the end of a course. The resulting data is then typically compared to a standard of expected performance to assess an instructor's effectiveness in the classroom (O'Keefe, Hamer, & Kemp, 2008). A faculty member's performance rating can be compared with their previous teaching performance as well as with the performance of other faculty within the university setting using end-of-course student evaluations.

Research completed by Agbetsiafa (2010) demonstrated that students took teaching evaluations more seriously than faculty commonly believed. If students can see that their input is taken seriously, they are willing to participate and offer meaningful feedback. Student evaluations were found to be reliable, consistent, and not easily influenced by grading policies (Moore, 2006). There is an acceptable level of consistency, or inter-rater reliability, given a class size of at least 15 and reliability increases as the class size increases (Agbetsiafa, 2010).

Student evaluations (also known as teacher course evaluations) may be the most robust indicator of teacher effectiveness (Moore, 2006; Guder & Malliaris, 2010). A majority of universities use student evaluations to assess quality of instruction or other aspects of a course (Agbetsiafa, 2010). Barth (2008) demonstrated that instructor rating on student evaluations is primarily driven by the quality of instruction. Student evaluations of teaching are heavily used in the hiring, promotion, and tenure decisions

involving faculty (Clayson, 2009; Stark-Wroblewski, Ahlering, & Brill, 2007).

Agbetsiafa (2010) found administrators, along with tenure and promotion committees,

use the data collected in student end-of-course evaluations to assist in making decisions

concerning faculty promotion. The collected data may also be used to determine annual

performance and salary decisions.

      While student evaluation forms may differ from school to school, the forms share

several common characteristics. The common characteristics noted by Denson, Loveday,

and Dalton (2010) included:

1. a mixture of open-ended and closed questions;

2. a single item which addresses overall teaching satisfaction/effectiveness;

3. written comments about the course or instructor;

4. anonymity;

5. responses are obtained at the end of the term, in the absence of the instructor;
   and

6. responses are analyzed to develop question-specific and class-specific
   measures of central tendency.

In addition, student evaluations of teaching can be completed either online or in the

classroom. While evaluations are traditionally completed on paper, many institutions

have begun using online electronic evaluations. The online evaluation process has

proven more effective that paper evaluations; however, the response rate from students

has been approximately 25% lower (Guder & Malliaris, 2010).

      While heavily used by a majority of schools, student end-of-course evaluations

still have many areas that are debated in higher education settings. The issues of debate

include measurement validity (Moore, 2006; Zabaleta, 2007), measurement reliability (Clayson, 2009), which concepts to measure (Shao, Anderson, & Newsome, 2007), what factors other than teaching may affect the results (Rinolo, Johnson, Sherman, & Misso, 2006), and the final use of evaluations (Edström, 2008). The responses given by students on end-of-course evaluations can be influenced by many varied factors including the age of the instructor, grades, class size, what time the classes are held, how challenging a topic is, and a class culture displaying a lack of appreciation (Zabaleta, 2007). The gender of the instructor can also play a role in how students evaluate classes. A study completed by Rinolo, Johnson, Sherman, and Misso (2006) provided a summary of the research and reported that physically attractive instructors (regardless of whether they are male or female) received higher ratings than their less attractive colleagues. End-of-course evaluations completed by students can often be influenced by one global factor—instructor charisma (Shuck, Gordan, & Buchanan, 2008).

The particular style of an instructor may be manifested through varied teaching behaviors in different ways (Helterbran, 2008). Instructors may display strength in one particular area, but a definite weakness in another area. Ultimately, the student will evaluate the instructor on a combination the instructor's theory of how students learn combined with the instructor's beliefs about the teaching behaviors most likely to facilitate student learning based on that theory (Beran & Rokosh, 2009). As an example, if the instructor's primary method for teaching is visual, students that learn visually would rate that instructor as effective. Students that prefer auditory learning may rate the same instructor lower since the instructor's primary teaching style is different from the student's primary learning style. The potential for a negative response to an end-of-

course survey is greater if the instructor's teaching method does not align with the student's method of learning. Beran and Rokosh (2009) noted that if this situation occurs, the end-of-course student evaluations may not accurately reflect the true teaching effectiveness of the instructor.

While critics believe that end-of-course evaluations can be manipulated through lenient grading practices and easy assignments, no significant relationship between the actual grade given to the student and the student's effectiveness rating of the teacher has been documented (Moore, 2006). Moore also found that students reward teachers who fostered learning with appropriate teaching by rating them high in effectiveness. Faculty concerns have been voiced because of the perceived link between higher grades and higher student end-of-course evaluations. Barth (2008) observed that while there is some evidence that grades positively correlate with student evaluations, in many of the studies, the researchers did not make an effort to determine whether or not the students had actually earned the grade. Logical reasoning would expect students to earn higher grades from effective teachers than from those who are mediocre in their profession (Shuck, Gordan, & Buchanan, 2008). Campbell and Bozeman (2008) noted that in the field of higher education, grades and unearned grades are often viewed as the same when it comes to end-of-course evaluations.

Additionally, students need to see the relationship between their responses and action from the administration. Because students are skeptical that evaluations are not actually used by the administration, Stark-Wrobleske, Ahlering, and Brill (2007) noted that care must be taken, when conducting evaluations, to communicate the usage of the results. The evaluations must be linked to teaching and learning in the classroom. If

teachers are not willing to act on the findings of feedback, students may be more skeptical about the value of providing feedback (Shuck, Gordan, & Buchanan, 2008). When students see the relationship between their responses to the end-of-course evaluations and administrative decisions, the evaluations are taken more seriously (Stark-Wrobleske, Ahlering, & Brill, 2007). Campbell and Bozeman (2008) noted that student end-of-course surveys are a valuable method of evaluating instructors and that students know the qualities of effective teachers and are willing to provide fair evaluations of their instructors.

Although faculty have often associated positive end-of-course evaluations with lenient grading policies, the two concepts are not necessarily related. The perceived difficulty of the class has the potential to influence to influence the evaluations (Addison, Best, & Warrington, 2006). Students who found the course to be more difficult than expected tended to rate instructors slightly lower on evaluations (Addison, Best, & Warrington). On the other hand, higher evaluations were given when the course was perceived to be easier than expected. Additionally, the perceived difficulty was independent of the grade earned. Student expectations of a course were a better indicator of classroom effectiveness than perceived grades in end-of-course survey results.

Barth (2008) noted that higher average grades should be the product of higher quality teaching and that students who are highly motivated should expect higher grades. The opposing view concerns end-of-course evaluations and lower performing students with lower predicted grades. Zabaleta (2007) observed that dissatisfied students had a tendency to show their feelings about a particular class by writing a bad evaluation for their instructor, and also by getting a bad grade. Students that are uncomfortable in the

class may not exert the initiative to make the extra effort to get a better grade. Zabaleta (2007) also noted that students have a tendency to give a bad evaluation of the instructor when they are uncomfortable in the class.

To ensure the most effective rating, student evaluations should be anonymous, given without the instructor in the room, and timed correctly so that the evaluation does not fall right before or after a test (Shao, Anderson, & Newsome, 2007). Communication should occur that informs the students of the importance of the evaluations. Beran and Rokosh (2009) observed that the extent to which evaluation forms reflected teaching effectiveness was based on the premise that students handled the exercise responsibly.

The student evaluations should also be given to all courses simultaneously in order to provide a clearer picture of the instructor and teaching environment (Kai, 2009). Because faculty members are concerned with the comparison aspect of the evaluations, the comparison process should be developed in a way that is fair to faculty. O'Keefe, Hamer, and Kemp (2008) indicated that, depending upon the faculty member and course of interest, the faculty member's performance can be compared to all instructors in a single academic unit, all instructors who teach the same course or same type of course (elective or required, undergraduate or graduate), all instructors of the same rank or level of experience, and all instructors with the same course load. Each group would have an established evaluation scale. The utilization of these groupings would allow the most equitable comparisons. The evaluation process is an important step in determining teacher effectiveness.

Summary

Servant leadership is an interesting paradox of terms. The history and literature of this topic point to combining the elements of being a leader and having servant qualities as an effective method of leading followers. Although the concept of servant leadership was established over 2,000 years ago in the teachings of Jesus Christ, as a field of leadership study servant leadership is a relatively new concept. Since servant leadership was introduced to the world in the 1970s, the concept has received attention in the field of leadership and organizational behavior. Due to the success of business leaders utilizing servant leadership, educators have also become interested in the servant leadership applications within the classroom.

The research of servant leadership in organizational settings provides insight to potential results from an application in the classroom. Although Greenleaf (1977) did not specify how servant leadership could be measured, he suggested applications in areas other than business. Much of the current research in the field of servant leadership was founded upon Greenleaf's work (Blanchard & Miller, 2007).

While servant leadership and effective teaching do not appear to have an initial link, this review of literature shows that a correlation may exist between the two concepts. Effective teachers share many characteristics commonly found in servant leaders (Drury, 2005). The benefits observed by organizations with servant leaders (Avolio, Walumba, & Weber, 2009) may be reproduced in classrooms (Cerit, 2010). The introduction of servant leadership in the classroom represents a basic shift from teacher-centered learning to student-centered learning. Black (2010) noted that servant leadership has the potential to bring out the best in teachers and students.

While Steele (2010) noted that servant leadership might be effective in education, no studies were found that explored the relationship between servant leadership and instructors at the university level. Research indicates there is a gap in the literature on the relationship of servant leadership and effective teaching. Effective leadership in the classroom is a necessary element for effective teaching. Chonko (207) noted that servant leadership is a style of leadership that has great benefits for both the student and the teacher. Powell and Lines (2010) posited that the classroom has potential not just for learning, but for transformational learning.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Among the studies on leader-subordinate dynamics, servant leadership has been one of the most influential and innovative approaches (Maak & Pless, 2006). Leaders have embraced servant leadership as a legitimate leadership style for creating a positive and productive environment in corporate settings, churches, and educational institutions (Black, 2010). Hays (2008) noted that educators have become interested in the servant leadership applications within the classroom due to the success of business leaders utilizing servant leadership.

While much research has been conducted on servant leadership in the organizational setting (McCuddy & Cavin, 2008; Locander & Luechauer, 2006; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008), the concept of servant leadership and effective teaching in institutions of higher learning has been identified as one that requires additional research (Metzcar, 2008). Although the application of principles, values, and practices of servant leadership in the classroom has been shown to create a substantial difference in learning and the learning experience, a thorough and detailed review of the research literature suggests that limited studies have been completed evaluating effective teaching and servant leadership at the university level (Hays, 2008; Crippen, 2006). Understanding the relationship between the level of servant leadership and effective teaching could influence the way teaching at institutions of higher learning is perceived. The results of this study provide information on the impact of demographic variables on servant leadership in the university classroom.

The purpose of this non-experimental, correlational, and comparative quantitative study was to assess the relationship, if any, between the level of perceived servant

leadership and effective teaching in instructors who teach in four university educational centers in Texas. Additionally, the study also showed if years of teaching experience, age, and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership. The results of this study added to the limited literature on servant leadership and effective teaching at institutions of higher learning.

In order to determine if there was a relationship between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness, and if years of teaching experience, age, and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership, four research questions were identified to guide this non-experimental, correlational and comparative quantitative study research study.

Q1. What is the relationship, if any, between the level of servant leadership and teaching effectiveness?

Q2. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience?

Q3. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor?

Q4. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor?

To answer the research questions presented for this study, the following hypotheses were addressed.

H1$_0$. There is no statistically significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

H1$_a$. There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

H2$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

H2$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

H3$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

H3$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

H4$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

H4$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

The purpose of Chapter 3 is to present the research method for the study. After a brief explanation of research questions and hypotheses for the study, the researcher includes a discussion of the research method and design, and why the quantitative method and comparative correlational design were chosen. The population of interest for the study, materials and instruments used, an operational definition of variables, and procedures used related to data collection, processing, and analysis is also included. The chapter concludes with a discussion of methodological assumptions, limitations and delimitations, and ethical assurances related to the study

Research Methods and Design(s)

The non-experimental, correlational, and comparative quantitative method was appropriate for the study since a relationship was examined between variables without experimental manipulation. The researcher also compared the levels of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience, age of the instructor, and gender of the instructor. Quantitative research addresses the relationship between variables through explanation, prediction, and control of events (Borrego, Douglas, & Amelink, 2009). To discover the relationship between variables, Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) noted that a correlational research design was the most appropriate.

A correlational design was utilized to assess the relationship between perceived servant leadership and effective teaching in which servant leadership was the predictor variable and effective teaching was the criterion variable. The study utilized two pre-existing surveys, the Teacher Leadership Assessment (TLA) instrument (Metzcar, 2008) and end-of-course student evaluations. The TLA was used to measure the perceived servant leadership in instructors. Standardized end-of-course surveys, used to determine teaching effectiveness, were a part of each class in the university system that was utilized in the study. Designed for ordinal variables, the Spearman Rank Order correlation test was used to determine if there was a relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching (Pallant, 2007). The correlation described the relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching in terms of the strength of the relationship and whether it was positive or negative relationship.

Additionally, the study utilized a comparative design to examine potential influences on servant leadership through a Kruskal Wallis analysis of variance test and a

Mann Whitney test. The Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership score varied by teaching experience and age. The Mann Whitney test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership score varied by gender. For the comparative study, servant leadership was the dependent variable and the demographic factors served as the independent variables. Each of the independent variable categories (teaching experience, age, and gender) were independent from one another and inclusion of one participant in a particular category did not affect the inclusion of another participant in the same or different category.

The perceived servant leadership score and demographic data were collected through an Internet survey. GoogleDocs (Google Docs, n.d.) allowed for ease of data collection and export to Microsoft Excel (Microsoft, 2007) and Minitab (Minitab 15 Statistical Software, 2007). The teaching effectiveness data was provided through the Office of the Assistant Dean in the School of Graduate and Professional Studies.

Participants

The participants in the study consisted of instructors serving at four educational centers in the School of Graduate and Professional Studies at the target university. The target university was a small, faith-based private university. A total of 325 instructors teach on ground courses at educational centers located in Longview, Dallas, Bedford, and Houston, Texas. Due to the small sample size at each campus, the entire population was used to reduce sampling risk. A power analysis calculated by G*Power 3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) using an effect size worth detecting of 0.3, an alpha significance of 0.05, and a power of 0.80 suggested a sample size of 67. While 83 surveys were completed, only 68 contained all the needed data for the study.

In utilizing the quantitative method as a means of researching the data, the distribution across four university campuses provided an adequate sampling of varied data. The names and emails of the instructors were provided through the Office of the Assistant Dean in the School of Graduate and Professional Studies. Each participant received an introductory email with an invitation to participate in the survey. A sample email invitation is found in Appendix D.

Materials/Instruments

The TLA was used to measure the level of servant leadership practices exhibited by instructors. Developed by Metzcar, the TLA (Appendix A) is a modification of the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument. The reliability of the TLA survey instrument was calculated as 0.97 on the Cronbach's Alpha statistical test (Metzcar, 2008). The reliability results provided in the TLA survey instrument indicated that the survey could be reproduced and used in other settings (Metzcar, 2008). Within Metzcar's study, the validity of the survey instrument was determined from the feedback of 64 individuals with experience in the educational field with a background in Servant Leadership and teaching experience. Utilization of the previously validated TLA instrument would provide construct validity as well as reliability.

Administered through GoogleDocs (Google Docs, n.d.), the TLA instrument designed by Metzcar (2008) measured self-evaluated servant leadership qualities for individuals in the teaching profession. The TLA contains 60 questions that were each answered in a Likert scale format. Metzcar (2008) developed and tested the TLA in a small population to measure servant leadership in an educational setting. Written permission was obtained from the author to use the TLA instrument (Appendix B). The

TLA scoring was based upon the OLA developed by Laub (1990). Table 2 shows the

scoring criteria of the OLA and TLA.

Table 2

A Comparison of OLA and TLA Scoring

Category Score	OLA scoring criteria	TLA scoring criteria
Org1	1.0-1.99	60 – 119
Org2	2.0-2.99	120-179
Org3	3.0-3.49	180-209
Org4	3.5-3.99	210-239
Org5	4.0-4.4	240-269
Org6	4.5-5.0	270-300

Note: Adapted from "Servant leadership and effective classroom teaching," by A.
Metzcar, 2008, Ed.D. dissertation, Indiana Wesleyan University, United States --
Indiana. Retrieved from Dissertations & Theses: Full Text. (Publication No. AAT
3344705). Used with permission.

The organizational levels are comprised of three categories: autocratic mindset,

paternalistic mindset, and servant mindset. Laub (2008) noted the following on the

scoring criteria:

Autocratic is the leadership paradigm most connected with Org1 (Toxic health)

and Org2 (Poor health). This kind of leadership is one of "self-rule" where the

organization exists to serve the needs and interests of the leader first. This often

leads to the oppression of the worker to satisfy the whims of the leader.

Paternalistic is the leadership paradigm most connected with Org3 (Limited

health) and Org4 (Moderate health). This kind of leadership is one of the leaders

seeing themselves as parent to those led. This parental view of leadership

encourages the led to take on the role of children. This leads to an unhealthy

transactional leadership that operates more on compliance rather than true

individual motivation. Most organizations find themselves operating within this

understanding of leadership.

Servant is the leadership paradigm most connected with Org5 (Excellent health)

and Org6 (Optimal health). It is the view of leadership characterized by the six

key areas of the healthy organization. The view of leadership views leadership as

serving the needs of those led over the self-interest of the leader. In this kind of

organization all people are encouraged to lead and serve. This produces a

community of care where the needs of all are served and the organization is able

to put its energy into fulfilling its shared mission. (¶ 4 – 6)

Metzcar (2008) utilized the same categories and noted that the OLA scoring criteria

reflected the type of leadership that was being displayed by classroom teachers.

The level of servant leadership was correlated with teaching effectiveness ratings.

Teaching effectiveness can be measured in several ways. Factors used to assess teaching

effectiveness include student rating forms, written comments, peer classroom visits,

teaching portfolios, and teaching awards (Shao, Anderson, & Newsome, 2007). Student

end-of-course evaluations were first utilized at the University of Washington in the 1950s

(Clayson, 2009). Since the 1950s, the use of end-of-course evaluations for evaluating

teaching effectiveness has become widely used in most institutes of higher education

(Guder & Malliaris, 2010). Clayson (2009) noted that 99.3% of all business schools use

some form of end-of-course evaluations. Deans in institutions of higher education place

a higher importance on student end-of-course evaluations than either peer or administrative reviews (Clayson, 2009). Student end-of-course evaluations are used to establish tenure, promotion, and merit pay. Moore (2006) noted that there is research to support a positive correlation between positive end-of-course student evaluations and teaching effectiveness.

End-of-course student evaluations are the most important and, in many cases, the only measure of teaching ability on many university campuses (Clayson, 2009). At the target university, the end-of-course-student evaluations are completed by students at the end of each course. The range for teaching evaluations is from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent), with 5 representing the highest level of effectiveness. The total score is computed through a variety of questions concerning teacher interactions and responsibilities over the time frame of the course. For the purpose of this study, instructors who had end-of-course evaluations with a total composite score of 4 and above were considered effective teachers.

To avoid bias and obtain the best results, end-of-course survey deployment by the target university system follows the guidelines set forth by Shao, Anderson, and Newsome (2007). The surveys were completed anonymously at the end of each course as part of the course evaluation process, the instructor was not present when the surveys were completed, and the surveys were not given before or after examinations. The end-of-course surveys were a part of each class in the university system that was utilized in the study. The end-of-course survey results were a part of school documentation and were provided by the Assistant Dean for the School of Graduate and Professional Studies.

The surveys were administered anonymously through the Blackboard Learning System survey manager at the end of each course. The survey (Appendix C) contained 20 questions that were answered in a Likert scale format. The final number, ranging from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent), was computed by averaging all the answers to the 20 questions. The end-of-course survey is the same for every course at each of the four educational centers. Because faculty at the four target educational centers were credentialed to teach many courses, the instructor can be different each time the class is taught. In the event that an instructor had taught more than one course or more than one section of a course, the end-of-course final numbers were averaged. The survey included demographic information that identified the courses that each instructor has taught in the past six months. The documentation included an identifier linking the instructor to specific courses. The identifier allowed the correlation between the instructor's end-of-course survey results and the TLA score.

As part of the survey, additional questions were asked to study the potential effects of demographic variables. The data gathered on years of teaching experience, age, and gender was not combined with the data of the TLA and was used only for demographic testing purposes. Teaching experience contained five categories: 0 -5 years, 6 – 10 years, 11-15 years, 16 – 20 years, and 21+ years. Age contained five categories: 20 – 29 years, 30 – 39 years, 40 – 49 years, 50 – 59 years, and 60+ years. Gender was coded as 1 for male and 2 for female. The coding was used for identification only.

Operational Definition of Variables

To assess if a relationship exists between the level of servant leadership and

effective teaching, a correlational design was used in which servant leadership was the predictor variable. Effective teaching was the criterion variable. The study also examined potential influences on servant leadership of such factors as the effect of teaching experience, age, and gender through a Kruskal Wallis analysis of variance test and a Mann Whitney test. The Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership score varied by teaching experience and age. The Mann Whitney test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership score varied by gender. For the comparative study, servant leadership was the dependent variable and the demographic factors of years of teaching, age, and gender served as the independent variables. Each of the independent variable categories (teaching experience, age, and gender) were independent from one another. Inclusion of one participant in a particular category did not affect the inclusion of another participant in the same or different category.

Servant leadership. Servant leadership was operationally defined by using the TLA instrument by Metzcar (2008). Servant leadership was assessed by participants' responses to a 5-point Likert-type response format scale answering questions that defined servant leadership. With a total of sixty assessment items, the sum of the responses for each person represented a possible score from 60 to 300 which fell into the ordinal category. A score between 60 and 179 indicated an autocratic leader mindset. A score between 180 and 239 indicated a paternalistic leader mindset. A score between 240 and 300 indicated a servant leader mindset.

Effective teaching. Effective teaching was operationally defined by the composite score found in the university end-of-course surveys. All four educational centers utilized the

same end-of-course survey. Effective teaching was assessed by the composite score that was reported for each instructor. Comprised of 18 assessment areas, the average of the responses for each person represented a possible score from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent) which fell into the ordinal category.

Years of teaching. Years of teaching were operationally defined as the choice selected by the respondent given the following choice ranges: 0 -5 years, 6 – 10 years, 11-15 years, 16 – 20 years, and 21+ years.

Age. Age was operationally defined as the choice selected by the respondent given the following choice ranges: 20 – 29 years, 30 – 39 years, 40 – 49 years, 50 – 59 years, and 60+ years.

Gender. Gender was operationally defined as the choice selected by the respondent given the following choices: male or female.

Data Collection, Processing, and Analysis

The participants in the study consisted of instructors serving at four educational centers in the School of Graduate and Professional Studies at the target university. A list of instructor email addresses was provided through the office of the Assistant Dean for the School of Graduate and Professional Studies. A total of 325 instructors that serve in the School of Graduate and Processional Studies in the target university system were invited to participate in a survey on their perception of servant leadership in the classroom. The participants were contacted through university e-mail with an invitation to participate in the study (see Appendix D for email). The email contained an explanation of the study, the purpose of the study, and the researcher's contact

information as well as the link to the survey online. While 83 surveys were completed, only 68 contained all the needed data for the study.

GoogleDocs, an online survey-hosting site, facilitated the data collection process (Google Docs, n.d.). The formatting of GoogleDocs allowed users to design highly individualized surveys. A unique Uniform Resource Locator (URL), commonly referred to as a link, identifed the survey. One week after the initial invitational email was sent, an email reminder was sent. No data was accepted after the two week time period ended. Once the electronic data was imported into Microsoft Excel (Microsoft, 2007) and Minitab (Minitab 15 Statistical Software, 2007), the results were tabulated and correlated with the end-of-course evaluations provided by the Assistant Dean for the School of Graduate and Professional Studies. Microsoft Excel (Microsoft, 2007) and Minitab (Minitab 15 Statistical Software, 2007) served as the statistical software for data analysis.

A correlational analysis was used to assess the relationship between perceived servant leadership and effective teaching in which servant leadership was the predictor variable and effective teaching was the criterion variable. The Spearman Rank Order correlation test was used to determine if there was a relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching (Pallant, 2007). The following research question and corresponding hypotheses was analyzed through a Spearman Rank Order correlation test.

Q1. What is the relationship, if any, between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness?

H1$_0$. There is no statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

H1$_a$. There is a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

The study also utilized a comparative design to examine potential influences of teaching experience, age, and gender on servant leadership through a Kruskal Wallis analysis of variance test and a Mann Whitney test. The Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership score varied by teaching experience and age. The Mann Whitney test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership score varied by gender. Servant leadership was the dependent variable and the demographic factors served as the independent variables. Each of the independent variable categories (teaching experience, age, and gender) were independent from one another. Inclusion of one participant in a particular category did not affect the inclusion of another participant in the same or different category. The following research questions and corresponding hypotheses were individually analyzed through the Kruskal Wallis analysis of variance test.

Q2. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience?

H2$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

H2$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

Q3. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor?

H3₀. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

H3ₐ. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

The following research question and corresponding hypothesis was individually analyzed

through a Mann Whitney test.

Q4. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership

in terms of gender of the instructor?

H4₀. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

H4ₐ. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

Methodological Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

The study was based on several assumptions. There are also design limitations

and researcher imposed delimitations. The following is a discussion of the assumptions,

limitations, and delimitations.

Assumptions. The study was based on a couple of assumptions. The researcher

assumed respondents would provide honest insight into the understanding of classroom

leadership. It was also assumed that student end-of-course evaluations accurately

identifed effective instructors.

The nonexperimental approach allowed for the study of variables as they occur

naturally. The correlational approach can determine if a relationship exists, but does not

specify why the relationship exists. Because of the ordinal nature of the data,

nonparametric statistics were utilized. Nonparametric tests do not assume normality of data (Pallant, 2007).

Limitations. A possible limitation of the study was response bias or misrepresentation of the truth on the survey. The survey responses from instructors were analyzed to determine the type of leadership used in the classroom. Laub (1999) noted that leaders typically rated themselves higher than their followers would rate them. In this study, the TLA designed by Metzcar (2008) does not utilize student feedback. The instructors assessed themselves. It is possible that the instructors rated themselves higher than the students would rate them.

The extent to which the results of the study can be generalized to other organizations was limited due to the nature of the target university. Servant leadership aligns closely with the mission of the university (LeTourneau University Mission Statement, n.d.). The same situation may not hold true in other universities.

Delimitations. Delimitations are used to establish boundaries, exceptions, reservations, and qualifications in a study (Zikmund, 2010). The study and participants were described broadly in the research problem and literature review. Delimiting factors for the study included the population studied and time frame of the study. The population constituted a small portion of the total university faculty and may not represent the views of all faculty. The time frame for responses occurred over a two week span. The time frame may have created another restriction in that some faculty did not respond within the specified time frame. The number of participants that were emailed the link to the survey and decided not to participate was approximately 242.

Ethical Assurances

Prior to gathering data, the researcher obtained formal permission from the IRB committee governing the four university educational centers and from Northcentral University. Once permission was received, the researcher contacted the participants through university e-mail and invited them to participate in the study. The email contained an explanation of the study, the purpose of the study, and the researcher's contact information as well as the link to the survey online (see Appendix D for sample email). Participants received information that taking part in the research was voluntary and confidential, and that they had the option to opt-out at any time. Participant consent was the found in the survey (see Appendix A for survey).

Once the surveys were completed, the results were tabulated and correlated with the end-of-course evaluations obtained from the assistant dean's office. The data from the Teacher Leadership Assessment (Metzcar, 2008) was correlated through course number and section with the end of course survey results compilation to ensure confidentiality. Privacy of participants was maintained because the names of participants were not used in the tabulation process.

The data was stored on a personal laptop until statistical analysis was complete. Encrypted with a password, the researcher was the only person with access to the data. After reporting aggregate results, the end of course survey summary documents along with survey results were deleted from the computer. There were no rewards or compensation offered for participation. No risks other than those of normal life were anticipated.

Summary

Much research has been conducted on servant leadership in the organizational setting (McCuddy & Cavin, 2008; Locander & Luechauer, 2006; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008), but the concept of servant leadership and effective teaching in institutions of higher learning has been identified as one that requires additional research (Metzcar, 2008). A thorough and detailed review of the research literature suggested that limited studies have been completed evaluating effective teaching and servant leadership at the university level (Hays, 2008; Crippen, 2006). The purpose of this non-experimental, correlational and comparative quantitative study was to investigate the relationship, if any, between the level of perceived servant leadership and effective teaching through a census survey of instructors who teach in four university educational centers in Texas, as well as to determine if years of teaching experience, age, and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership. This study added to the limited body of literature on servant leadership at institutions of higher learning.

Chapter 4: Findings

The purpose of this non-experimental, correlational and comparative quantitative study was to assess the relationship between the level of perceived servant leadership and effective teaching in instructors who teach in four university educational centers in Texas. The study also showed if years of teaching experience, age, and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership. The sample population consisted of instructors serving at four educational centers in the School of Graduate and Professional Studies at the target university. The target university was a small, faith-based private university in Texas. The Teacher Leadership Assessment instrument (Metzcar, 2008) was sent to a total of 325 instructors who teach on ground courses at educational centers located in Longview, Dallas, Bedford, and Houston, Texas. While 83 surveys were completed, only 68 contained all the needed data for the study. The results of this study added to the limited literature on servant leadership and effective teaching at institutions of higher learning.

Four research questions were posed in Chapter 1:

Q1. What is the relationship, if any, between the level of servant leadership and teaching effectiveness?

Q2. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience?

Q3. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor?

Q4. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor?

The purpose of the current chapter is to present the findings from the analyses performed to answer these four questions. Initially, descriptive statistics are presented for all study variables. Then, the results of the null hypothesis tests corresponding to each of the four research questions are presented. These results are then evaluated within the context of past research in this area, and the chapter ends with a summary.

Results

  Descriptive statistics. Table 3 shows the frequency and percentage for each survey response for age group, gender, and years of teaching. The most common number of years teaching was 21 years or more (41.2%), followed by 16 to 20 years (20.6%), and 11 to 15 years (17.6%), indicating that this sample had substantial teaching experience. The most common age group was 60 years old or older (42.6%), followed by 50 to 59 years old (26.5%), and 40 to 49 years old (23.5%). There were slightly more females (52.9%) than males (47.1%) in the sample.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Age, Gender, and Years of Teaching (N = 68)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Years of Teaching		
0 -5 years	7	10.3
6 – 10 years	7	10.3
11-15 years	12	17.6
16 – 20 years	14	20.6
21+ years	28	41.2
Age Group		
20 – 29 years	1	1.5
30 – 39 years	4	5.9
40 – 49 years	16	23.5
50 – 59 years	18	26.5
60+ years	29	42.6
Gender		
Female	36	52.9
Male	32	47.1

Table 4 shows descriptive statistics for the two continuous variables in this study, servant leadership and effective teaching. Servant leadership scores ranged from 197 to

299 with a mean of 267.22 (SD = 22.66). Effective teaching scores ranged from 3.14 to

5.00 with a mean of 4.64 (SD = .38).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Servant Leadership and Effective Teaching (N=68)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
Servant Leadership	197.00	299.00	267.22	22.66
Effective Teaching	3.14	5.00	4.64	.38

Research Question 1. The first research question of this study was: What is the

relationship, if any, between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness? The

corresponding null and alternative hypotheses were:

H1$_0$. There is no statistically significant relationship between the level of servant

leadership and teaching effectiveness.

H1$_a$. There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of servant

leadership and teaching effectiveness.

To test this null hypothesis, the Spearman rank correlation between the servant leadership

scores and effective teaching scores was computed. The Spearman rank correlation

between servant leadership scores and effective teaching scores was $r_s = .14$, $p = .253$.

Based on the *p* value associated with this correlation, the null hypothesis was not

rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant relationship

between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

Research Question 2. The second research question of this study was: To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience? The corresponding null and alternative hypotheses were:

H2$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

H2$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to determine if there was a difference in servant leadership scores based on the years of teaching experience groupings presented in Table 3. The Kruskal-Wallis test was not statistically significant, $p = .823$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience. Figure 1 shows histograms of Servant Leadership scores as a function of years of teaching experience.
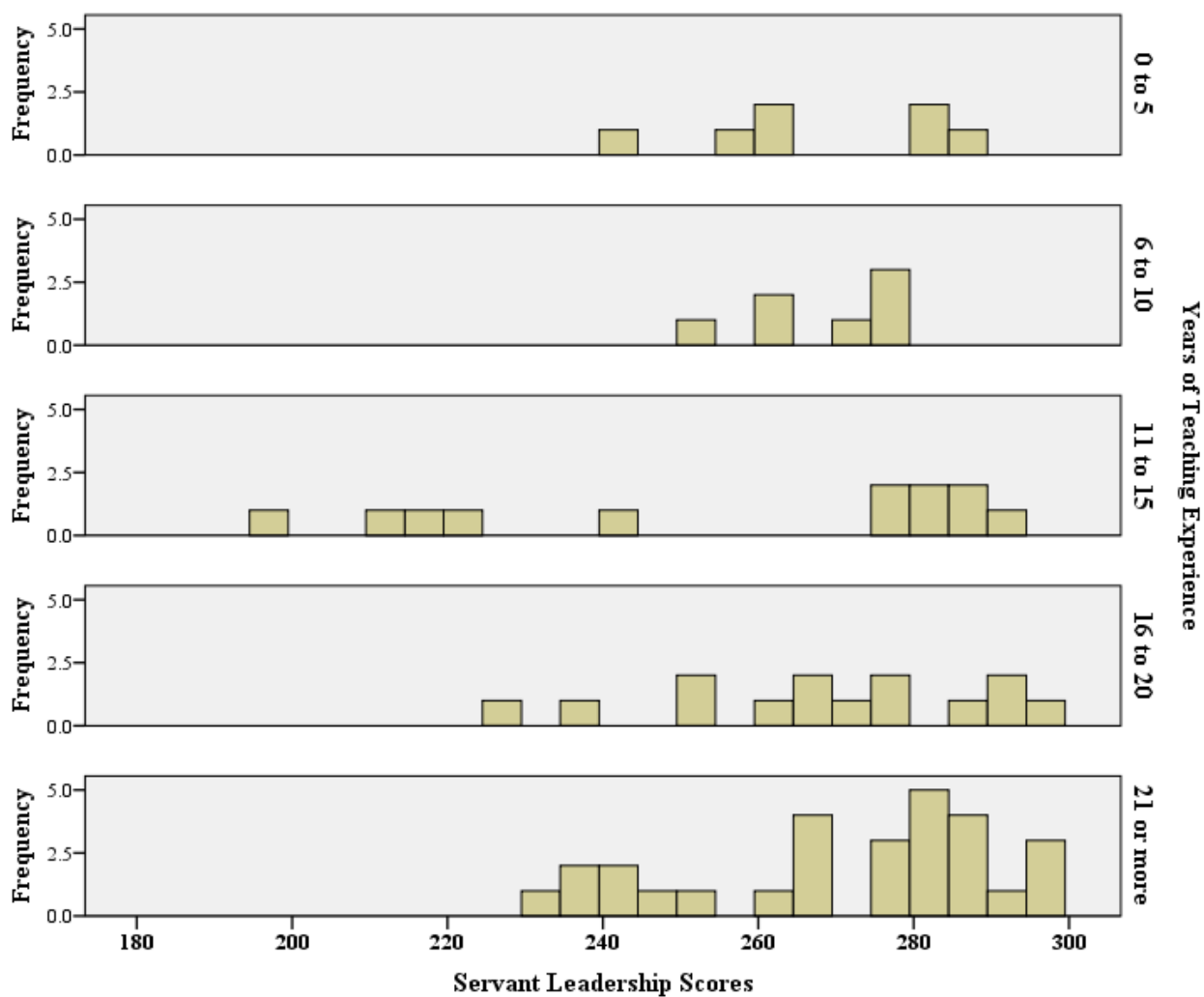
Figure 1. Histograms of servant leadership scores as a function of years of teaching experience.

Research Question 3. The third research question was: To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor? The corresponding null and alternative hypotheses were:

H3$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

H3$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was used to test this null hypothesis and determine if there was a difference in servant leadership scores between age groups as defined in Table 3. The Kruskal-Wallis test was not statistically significant, p = .102. The null hypothesis was therefore not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor. Histograms of servant leadership scores as a function of age are shown in Figure 2.
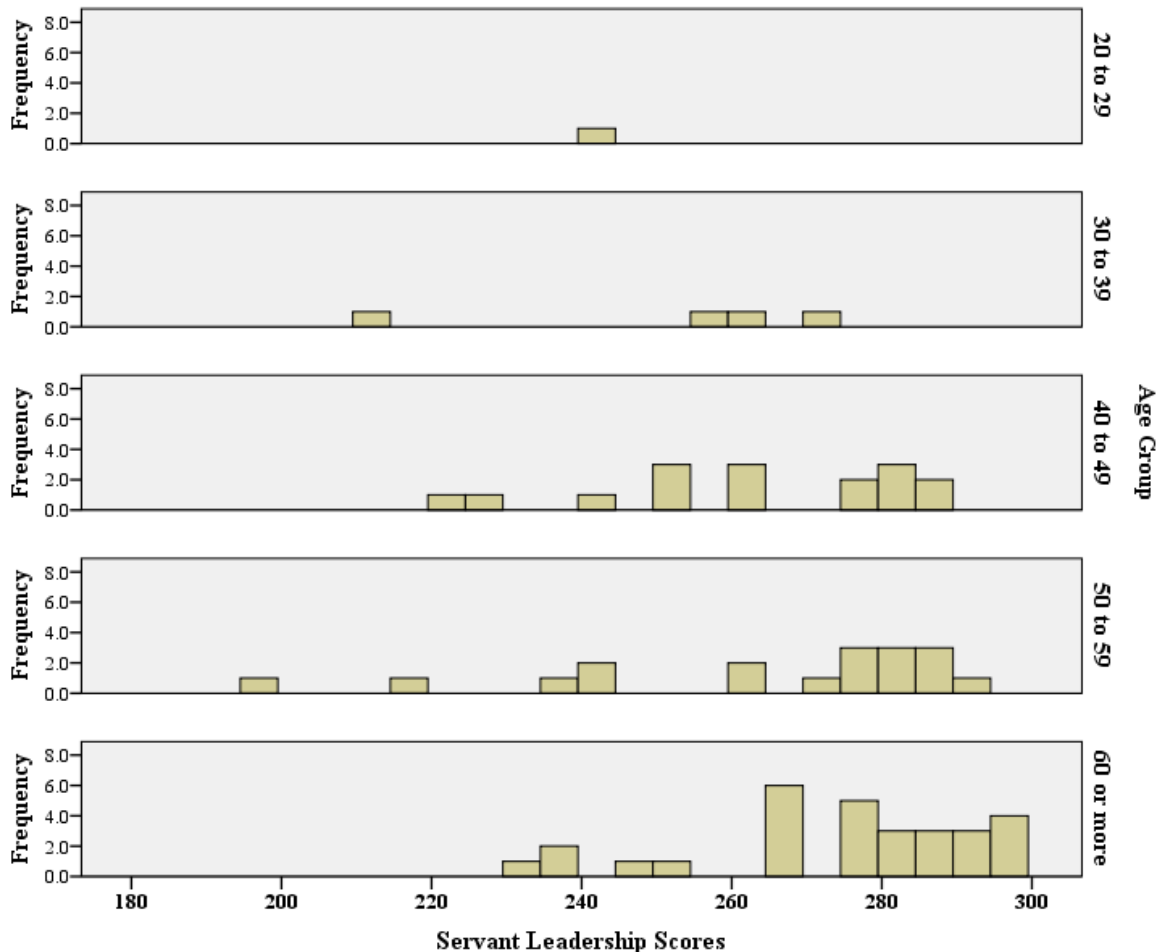
Figure 2. Histograms of servant leadership scores as a function of age group.

Research Question 4. The fourth and final research question of this study was:
To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of
gender of the instructor? The corresponding null and alternative hypotheses were:

H4$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in
terms of gender of the instructor.

H4$_a$.   There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in
terms of gender of the instructor.

 A Mann-Whitney test was performed to determine if males and females differed in terms
of servant leadership scores. This test was not statistically significant, $p = .457$.
Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected, and it was concluded that there was no
statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of
the instructor. Figure 3 shows histograms of servant leadership scores separately for
males and females.
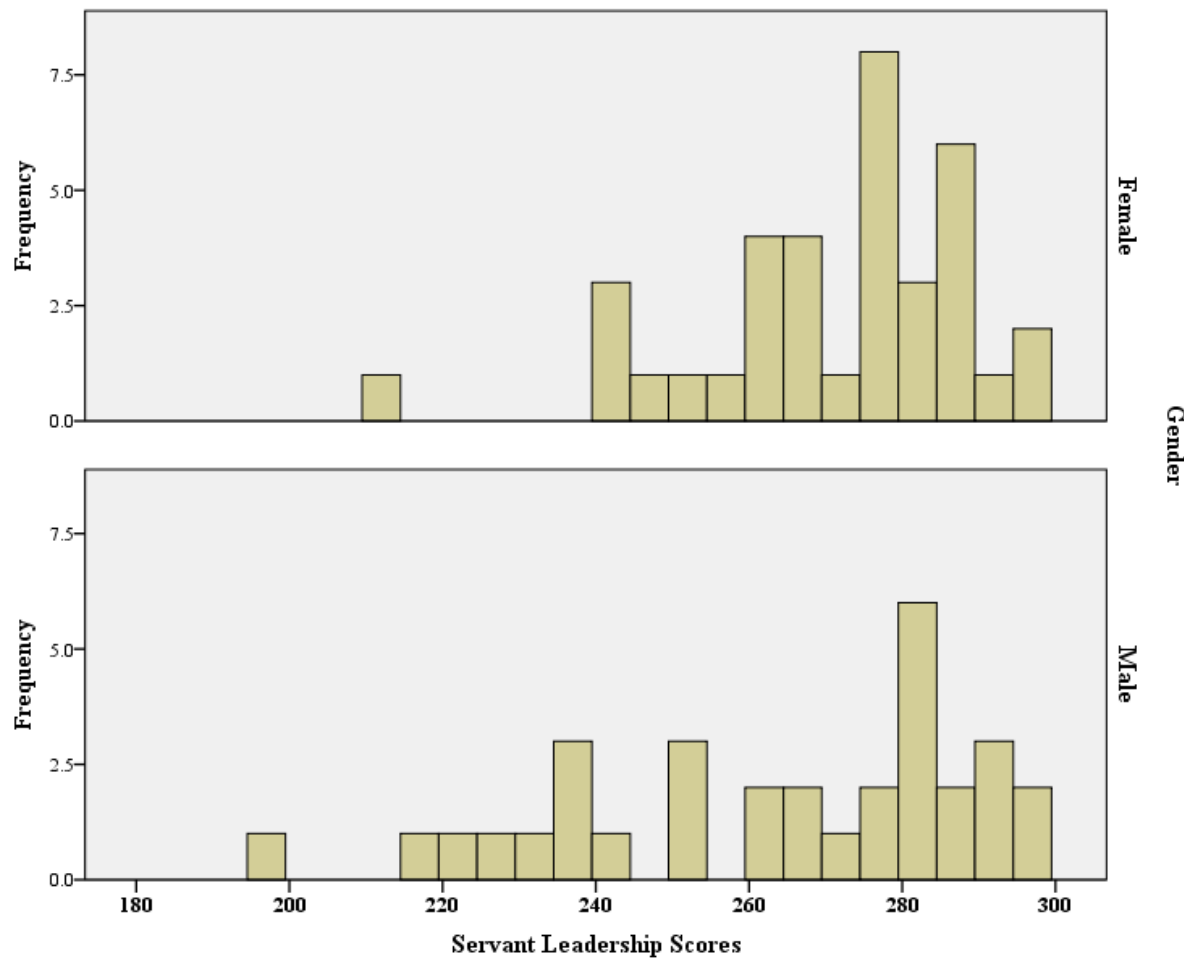
Figure 3. Histograms of servant leadership scores as a function of gender**.**

Evaluation of Findings

   Research Question 1. The first research question of this study was: What is the relationship, if any, between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness? The corresponding null and alternative hypotheses were:

H1$_0$. There is no statistically significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

H1$_a$. There is a statistically significant relationship between the level of servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

The relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching was examined through Research Question 1. The finding revealed no statistically significant relationship. The finding is inconsistent with Metzcar (2008) who found a strong positive relationship between effective teaching and servant leadership in 764 preschool through 12th grade teachers. In his study, Metzcar (2008) noted that 93.72% of the effective teachers, defined by membership in the National Board Certified Teachers, scored themselves as a servant leader utilizing the TLA. The finding is also inconsistent with research conducted by Drury (2005) who noted students perceived their best instructors to have a servant leader mindset in the classroom. Using a convenience sample of 87 students in a private university setting, students completed a survey based on 18 characteristics of Laub's (1999) operational definition of servant leadership. The findings indicated that effective professors displayed more characteristics of servant leadership than least effective professors (Drury, 2005). The literature on the link between servant leadership and effective teaching is limited (Crippen, 2006; Metzcar, 2008). Metzcar (2008) noted that the study of teaching effectiveness and servant leadership has only recently started to emerge in the literature. Crippen (2006) observed that much of the information about servant leadership and servant leaders was derived from the world of business, not educational institutions.

Research Question 2. The second research question of this study was: To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience? The corresponding null and alternative hypotheses were:

H2$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

H2$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

The results for Research Question 2 showed that the perceived level of servant leadership did not differ based on years of teaching experience. The finding of no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience was inconsistent with the findings of Metzcar (2008) who noted that as the number of years of teaching experience increased, the mean servant leadership score increased. Crippen (2006) observed that because the literature on servant leadership in higher education is limited, the information on the link between years of teaching and servant leadership is limited.

Research Question 3. The third research question was: To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor? The corresponding null and alternative hypotheses were:

H3$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

H3$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

The results for Research Question 3 showed that the perceived level of servant leadership did not differ based on the age of the instructor. There was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor. The results were consistent with the findings of Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) who noted that demographic variables, including gender, language, ethnic group, and age, were not related to servant leadership. The results were inconsistent with the findings of

McCuddy and Cavin (2009) who noted that individuals 60 years and older exhibited servant leadership behaviors significantly more often than individuals from the age of 40 to 49 years.

Research Question 4. The fourth and final research question of this study was: To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor? The corresponding null and alternative hypotheses were:

H4$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

H4$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

The results for Research Question 4 showed that the perceived level of servant leadership did not differ based on the gender of the instructor. There was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor. The results were consistent with the findings of Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) who noted that demographic variables, including gender, language, ethnic group, and age, were not related to servant leadership.

Summary

The chapter contained a presentation of the results from this study. The purpose of this non-experimental, correlational, and comparative quantitative study was to assess the relationship between the level of perceived servant leadership and effective teaching in instructors who teach in four university educational centers in Texas. The study also showed if years of teaching experience, age, and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership. The sample population consisted of instructors serving at

four educational centers in the School of Graduate and Professional Studies at the target university. The target university was a small, faith-based private university in Texas.

The first research question was: What is the relationship, if any, between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness? The null hypothesis associated with this research question was not rejected, and it was concluded there was no statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness. The second research question was: To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience? The null hypothesis corresponding to this research question was not rejected, indicating there was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

The third research question of this study was: To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor? The null hypothesis for this research question was not rejected, meaning there was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of age of the instructor. The fourth and final research question of this study was: To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor? The corresponding null hypothesis was not rejected, and it was concluded there was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

The purpose of this non-experimental, correlational, and comparative quantitative study was to assess the relationship between the level of perceived servant leadership and effective teaching in instructors who teach in four university educational centers in Texas. The study also showed if years of teaching experience, age, and gender had an effect on the level of perceived servant leadership. A correlational design was used to assess the relationship between perceived servant leadership and effective teaching in which servant leadership was the predictor variable and effective teaching was the criterion variable. The study utilized two pre-existing surveys, the Teacher Leadership Assessment (TLA) instrument (Metzcar, 2008) and end-of-course student evaluations. The TLA was used to measure the self-perceived servant leadership in instructors. Standardized end-of-course surveys, used to determine teaching effectiveness, were a part of each class in the university system that was utilized in the study. Designed for ordinal variables, the Spearman Rank Order correlation test was utilized to determine if there was a relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching (Pallant, 2007). The resulting analysis described the relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching in terms of the strength of the relationship and whether it was positive or negative relationship.

A comparative design was used to examine potential influences on servant leadership of the factors of teaching experience, age, and gender, through a Kruskal Wallis analysis of variance test and Mann Whitney test. The Kruskal Wallis test was conducted to examine whether the median servant leadership score varied by teaching experience and age. The Mann Whitney test was conducted to examine whether the

median servant leadership score varied by gender. For the comparative study, servant leadership was the dependent variable and the demographic factors served as the independent variables. Each of the independent variable categories (teaching experience, age, and gender) were independent from one another. Inclusion of one participant in a particular category did not affect the inclusion of another participant in the same or different category.

Limitations. Several limitations were identified within the scope of the study. The survey responses from the instructors were analyzed to determine the type of leadership used in the classroom. Laub (1999) noted leaders typically rated themselves higher in leadership ability than their followers would rate them. In this study, the student feedback was not included in the TLA instrument designed by Metzcar (2008). The instructors assessed themselves. It is possible that the instructors rated themselves higher than the students would rate them; therefore, a possible limitation of the study was response bias or misrepresentation of the truth on the survey.

The low response rate of participants was also a limitation of the study.   The appropriate sample size for this study as calculated by the G*Power statistical software application (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) indicated a minimum sample size of 67 was required at a power of .80 to achieve conclusive evidence to reject or accept the null hypotheses. However, an increase in sample size in future research will increase the power of the study. A total of 325 instructors were invited to participate in a survey on their perception of servant leadership in the classroom. The participants were contacted through university e-mail with an invitation to participate in the study. A follow up email was sent one week after the initial invitation. A total of 83 surveys were returned,

representing a 25.6% return. Of the 83 returned surveys, only 68 contained all the needed data for the study, representing a 21% return rate. While the number appears low, it is not uncommon. A study by Shih and Fan (2009) noted that response rates for faculty ranged from 12% to 83%, with a higher percentage coming from a small population (n = 85). Shih and Fan (2009) also found that responses from populations ranging in number from 306 to 400 had a response rate of 24%. When asked about the low response rate, the Assistant Dean for the School of Graduate and Professional Studies noted that completing surveys of any type is not a priority for the faculty and that it is difficult getting faculty to respond (R. Thompson, personal communication, August 16, 2011). The completion of 68 surveys grants the study a post hoc power of 0.81. While the rate of return met the minimum requirements for the study, the possibility of sample bias exists.

Ethical issues. Formal permission from the IRB committee governing the four university educational centers and from Northcentral University was obtained prior to conducting the study. Once permission was received, the researcher contacted the participants through university e-mail and invited them to participate in the study. Participants received information that taking part in the research was voluntary and confidential, and that they had the option to opt-out at any time.

The privacy of participants was maintained because the names of participants were not used in the tabulation process. The data from the TLA (Metzcar, 2008) was correlated through course number and section with the end of course survey results compilation to ensure confidentiality. Individual results regarding the Teacher

Leadership Assessment score and end of course survey results were not released. The results of the study were available only in aggregate form.

The implications of the study are presented below. The research questions are presented and conclusions are drawn from the study. The limitations of the study are discussed, followed by recommendations for practical applications as well as recommendations for future research.

Implications

This section reexamines the research questions and implications. Potential limitations are addressed and recommendations for practical applications and recommendations for future research are provided. The following research questions and corresponding hypotheses were identified to guide this quantitative research study.

Q1. What is the relationship, if any, between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness?

H1$_0$. There is no statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

H1$_a$. There is a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and teaching effectiveness.

The finding of no statistically significant relationship was inconsistent with the literature on servant leadership which suggested that servant leadership behaviors in the classroom result in higher levels of student satisfaction, as measured by student evaluations (Crippen, 2010; Fry & DeWit, 2010; Cerit, 2010). Fry and DeWit (2010) observed that creating high expectations of students required extra time and effort. In order to facilitate the high standards and goals, an effective teacher must be willing to

spend the time needed to discover the strengths and weaknesses of each student and find a way to help each student learn (Black & William, 2010). As indicated in Chapter 4, the majority of the instructors in the sample received very good end-of-course evaluations, with scores ranging from 3.14 to 5.00 with a mean of 4.64 (SD = .38).

A majority of instructors (86.7%) in the study considered themselves as servant leaders as indicated by scores ranging from 197 to 299 with a mean of 267.22 (SD = 22.66). This finding may be indicative of the profession. Metzcar (2008) observed that teaching was a serving profession and teachers might naturally have a servant mindset. Crippen (2010) observed that the teaching profession is based on making connections with people and relationships form the foundation of the investment in others, both now and in the future.

Q2. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience?

H2$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

H2$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience.

The finding of no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of teaching experience was inconsistent with the findings of Metzcar (2008) who noted that as the number of years of teaching experience increased, the mean servant leadership score increased. The finding was also inconsistent with Crippen (2006) and Chonko (2007). Crippen (2006) observed that once an individual assumes the mantle of teacher, he/she become a leader in this/her classroom as well as in the school and learning

community over a period of time. Chonko (2007) noted that the principles of servant

teachership develop with experience.

Q3. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership

in terms of age of the instructor?

H3$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

H3$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of age of the instructor.

There was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership

in terms of age of the instructor. The results were consistent with the findings of

Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) who noted that demographic variables, including gender,

language, ethnic group, and age, were not related to servant leadership. The results were

inconsistent with the findings of McCuddy and Cavin (2009) who noted that individuals

60 years and older exhibited servant leadership behaviors significantly more often than

individuals from the age of 40 to 49 years. McCuddy and Cavin (2009) posited that older

individuals may have a stronger motivation to give back to their followers through

servant leadership.

Q4. To what extent, if any, is there a difference in the level of servant leadership

in terms of gender of the instructor?

H4$_0$. There is no statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

H4$_a$. There is a statistically significant difference in the level of servant

leadership in terms of gender of the instructor.

There was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of gender of the instructor. The results were consistent with the findings of Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) who noted that demographic variables, including gender, language, ethnic group, and age, were not related to servant leadership. The results were also consistent with the findings of McCuddy and Cavin (2009) who found no difference in servant leadership behaviors between genders.

Recommendations

Future research addressing the relationship between teacher effectiveness and servant leadership is recommended because of the limited literature in this area of study (Drury, 2005; Metzcar, 2008). Noting the limited population of the study, the TLA could be administered in different settings such as state universities or for-profit universities. Research within different educational settings, such as public schools or community colleges, would provide additional information on how servant leadership affects teaching. A larger population with a variety of educational disciplines might provide a broader perspective of servant leadership as well as demographic variables affecting servant leadership. Teaching effectiveness may also be measured in different ways, including included student ratings, peer ratings, and self-assessment (Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008). Utilizing a variety of evaluations may provide a well-rounded assessment of teaching effectiveness.

The present study did not utilize any student feedback when measuring servant leadership in instructors. A different perspective would be provided through the use of student feedback. The servant leadership could be scored from both a faculty and student perspective and provide a well-rounded approach to identifying and assessing servant

leadership in the classroom. A different perspective would also be provided by approaching the study from a qualitative perspective. Interviews with students and faculty would provide additional information on the impact of servant leadership in the classroom.

Conclusions

This non-experimental, correlational, and comparative quantitative study investigated the relationship between the level of perceived servant leadership and effective teaching and examined the effect of years of teaching experience, age, and gender on the level of perceived servant leadership. The Teacher Leadership Assessment instrument was distributed to 325 instructors who teach in four university educational centers in Texas. Participants completed and returned 68 surveys, representing a 21% return rate.

The finding of no statistically significant relationship was inconsistent with the literature on servant leadership which may suggest that servant leadership behaviors in the classroom result in higher levels of student satisfaction, as measured by student evaluations (Crippen, 2010; Fry & DeWit, 2010; Cerit, 2010). There was no statistically significant difference in the level of servant leadership in terms of years of experience, age, or gender of the instructor. The results were consistent with the findings of Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) who noted that demographic variables, including gender, language, ethnic group, and age, were not related to servant leadership. Servant leadership is built on character. Blanchard and Miller (2007) observed that about 90% of a leader's success is determined by what is not seen, specifically the character of a leader.

The results from the study added to the limited literature on servant leadership in the educational setting. More studies are recommended to examine the relationship between servant leadership and effective teaching. Recommendations for future research include conducting the study within different educational settings, such as public and for profit universities, would provide additional information on how servant leadership affects teaching in varied environments.

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Appendix

Appendix A:

Teacher Leadership Assessment

General Instruction

The purpose of this instrument is to develop an understanding of classroom leadership. This instrument is designed to be taken by classroom teachers. As you respond to different statements, please answer as to what you believe is generally true about your classroom. Please respond with your own personal feelings and beliefs, 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 Never to Almost Always). 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 being sought 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 instructions that are given prior to each section. Your involvement in this assessment is anonymous and confidential. The survey will begin with the statement:

By completing this survey you are agreeing to participate in the research. The responses will be:

___ I agree

___I disagree

Section 1: In this section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to your classroom including students and the teacher.

In general, everyone in this classroom including the teacher…

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
1. Trusts each other	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
2. Is clear on key goals of the classroom	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
3. Is non-judgmental, they keep an open mind	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
4. Respects each other	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
5. Knows what will take place in the classroom (e.g. topics to be studied are shared, a course outline or syllabus is used, lessons are posted…)	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
6. Maintains high standards of what is right and wrong	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
7. Works well together with teams/groups when appropriate	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
8. Values classroom diversity (culture, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, mental and physical handicaps)	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
9. Is caring and compassionate towards each other	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
10. Demonstrates high integrity and honesty	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
11. Is trustworthy	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
12. Relates well to each other	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
13. Attempts to support others in their work more than working on their own	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
14. Is held accountable for completing work assignments	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
15. Is aware of the needs of others	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
16. Allows for individuality of style and expression	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
17. Is clearly considered or encouraged to share in making important decisions (e.g. classroom rules, curriculum emphasis, selection of tasks to show competency, learning approaches to study material…)	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
18. Works to maintain positive classroom relationships	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
19. Accepts others in the classroom as	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏

they are					
20. Views conflict as an opportunity to learn and grow	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
21. Knows how to get along with others	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏

Section 2: In this section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to teacher leadership in this classroom.
 The teacher in this classroom…

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
22. Clearly communicates the importance of the subject to the students' future	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
23. Is open to learning from students in the classroom	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
24. Keeps students' skills and abilities in mind as lessons are planned and a timeframe for learning is established	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
25. Is available to students beyond normal classroom time for extra instructional support and/or supports students in extra curricular activities by leading, coaching, or attending	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
26. Uses persuasion to influence students instead of intimidation or force	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
27. Unhesitantly acts to provide classroom leadership that is needed	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
28. Promotes open communication and sharing of information	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
29. When appropriate, gives students power to make important decisions (e.g. classroom rules, curriculum emphasis, selection of tasks to show competency, learning approaches to study material…)	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
30. Provides the support and resources needed to help students meet learning goals	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
31. Creates an environment that encourages learning	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
32. Is open to receiving criticism and	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏

challenges from students					
33. Says what he/she means, and means what he/she says	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
34. Encourages each student to exercise leadership	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
35. Admits personal limitations and mistakes	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
36. Encourages students to take risks even if it means they may face challenges	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
37. Practices the same behavior that is expected from students	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
38. Makes possible the building of class unity and teamwork	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
39. Has a humble attitude and does not seek to be favored by students	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
40. Leads by example by modeling appropriate behavior	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
41. Seeks to influence students from a positive relationship rather than from the authority of his/her position	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
42. Provides opportunities for all students to develop to their full potential	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
43. Honestly reflects on teaching performance making sure all necessary information is available to the class before seeking to evaluate students	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
44. Uses power and authority to act as an advocate for the benefit of students	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
45. Takes appropriate action when it is needed to provide a positive and safe learning environment	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
46. Builds students up through encouragement and praise	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
47. Encourages students to work together rather than competing against each other	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
48. Is humble- Does not promote himself/herself	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
49. Communicates clear plans and goals for the classroom	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
50. Provides mentor relationships in order to help students grow	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏

51. Is accountable and responsible to students	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
52. Is a good listener	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
53. Is modest and does not seek special status or to be favored	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
54. Puts the needs of the students ahead of his/her own	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏

Section 3: In this section, please respond to each statement, as you believe it is true about you personally and your role in your classroom and school.
In viewing my own role…

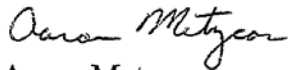|	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
55. I feel appreciated by those in my classroom for what I contribute	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
56. I am listened to by those in my classroom	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
57. I receive encouragement and affirmation from those in my classroom	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
58. I trust the leadership of the teacher in this classroom	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
59. I am respected by those in this classroom	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏
60. In my classroom, my work is valued more than my reputation	❏	❏	❏	❏	❏

Appendix B:

Permission Letter

Karen,
You may proceed with using the TLA in your proposal as long as the statement below is included on it. This was requested by Dr. Jim Laub.

The TLA was developed from the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) which was created by Dr. Jim Laub.

I have already inserted this in the attachment.

I would also recommend referencing Jim Laub in your research paper. However, I am sure you have already done this.
Enjoy your research!

Aaron Metzcar
Elementary Principal
Jackson Christian School
Jackson, MI 49203
Phone: 517-784-6161
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Appendix C:

Student End-of-Course Evaluation Questions

5 point scale:
5. Definitely True
4. Mostly True
3. Neutral
2. Mostly False
1. Definitely False

1. The professor was well prepared for class
2. The professor was knowledgeable in the subject matter
3. The professor was available outside of class for answering questions and providing assistance
4. The professor's teaching helped me to make connections between my Christian faith and the concepts of this course.
5. The professor stimulated my thinking
6. The professor helped me learn fundamental principles, generalizations, or theories
7. The professor helped me learn to apply course material (to improve thinking, problem solving, and/or decisions)
8. The professor modeled the Christian faith
9. The professor helped me learn to analyze and critically evaluate ideas, arguments, and points of view
10. The professor displayed enthusiasm when teaching
11. The professor displayed a personal interest in students and their learning
12. The professor demonstrated the importance and significance of the subject matter
13. The professor related course material to real-life situations
14. The professor provided timely feedback on tests, projects, etc. to help students improve
15. The professor provided helpful and meaningful feedback on written assignments.
16. The professor responded to my questions within 24 hours
17. The professor returned graded assignments to students within 1 week of submission
18. The professor was punctual in starting class and used the course time to the fullest each week.
19. In teaching this course, what did your instructor do especially well? (comment block)
20. How could your instructor improve the teaching of this course? (comment block)

Appendix D:

Email to Participants

Dear GAPS Faculty:

You are invited to participate in an important research study. The research study is being conducted to determine the relationship, if any, between the level of perceived leadership and effective teaching, years of teaching experience, age, and gender in instructors who teach in the GAPS program at LeTourneau University. A summary of the research findings will be provided to you at the conclusion of the study if you are interested.

You will be completing a survey in which you are asked to provide information on your understanding of classroom leadership. The survey should take five to ten minutes to complete. Your survey responses will be kept completely confidential. No identifying information that you provide will be published or disclosed. Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary and there is no risk to you for participating. You may withdraw at any time in the process.

The information you provide will be used in a PhD dissertation research study that I am conducting as a doctoral student at Northcentral University. This study has been reviewed and approved by the Northcentral University and LeTourneau University.

To access the survey, please go to: www.googledocs.com (with specific link inserted). Please complete the survey within the next 10 days.

You may contact me with any questions. Thank you for considering this request.

Karen Jacobs

Doctoral Candidate

Contact Information:

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