

**HIGHER EDUCATION LEADERSHIP: SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND THE
EFFECTS ON STUDENT SATISFACTION**

A Dissertation

Submitted to the
Faculty of Argosy University Sarasota
College of Education

In Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

By

Joshua Padron

Argosy University

May 16, 2012

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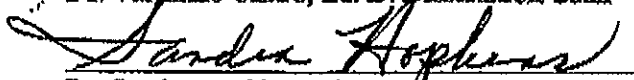
May 2012

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May 16, 2012
Date



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Abstract of Dissertation

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Chair: Dr. Valentino Castro, Ed. D.

Committee: Dr. Sandra Hopkins, Ed. D.

ABSTRACT

The enormous challenge confronting higher education today in relation to its revenue shortfall, lack of student persistence and low graduation rates are problematic. The literature proposes that if an institution of higher education increases student satisfaction rates, they will increase student persistence. Also, the literature suggests that an engaged faculty, staff, and administration can lead to a better student learning environment. This exploratory study attempted to understand the levels of servant leadership at a university system in the United States, and to identify whether any correlation existed between the level of servant leadership and the level of student satisfaction. This research used Laub's (2000) Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to measure servant leadership at the organizational level, and to determine whether the university system under study could be categorized as a servant organization using Laub's index. The Net Promoter Score (NPS) was used to measure the level of student satisfaction rate across the university system.

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DEDICATION

To my loving wife Linet, whose constant support helped turn this lifelong dream into a shared reality. To my children and grandchildren, whose relentless desire to make me a better father allotted me the opportunity to put into practice some of the fundamentals of servant leadership. To my brothers and sisters, for believing in me and always asking for my progress with this study. To all, thank you for your love and support. To each of you I dedicate the words of Albert Einstein who said, “Only a life lived in the service to others is worth living.”

CHAPTER ONE: THE PROBLEM

Introduction to the Study

Achieving an excellent customer satisfaction rating continues to be one of the most important performance goals for businesses today. The many challenges brought by a frail economy and the vast number of new competitors in the marketplace, are forcing organizations to focus on repeat business to increase revenue and drive growth (Reichheld, 2006). These challenges are not only experienced in businesses across America, they are experienced in institutions of higher education as well. Public as well as private colleges and universities are undergoing revenue shortfall and are looking for other revenue streams to drive growth (Archibald & Feldman, 2008).

Nonetheless, reaching for a higher rate of student satisfaction to drive revenue growth will require that higher education institutions consider the following challenges. First, the structure that is currently used at the university under consideration presents some challenges. For the most part, the university has a traditional structure that may detract from its achieving a higher rate of student satisfaction. For example, since full-time professors have increased teaching responsibilities, this duty may keep them from spending quality time with students as consultants and mentors (Smith, 2004). Under this structure, achieving a high student satisfaction rate will require a greater commitment from the organization's leaders to allow professors some flexibility to focus on student learning needs outside the class setting. Second, finding the right leader who can bring the organization structure into alignment and help people to work together can be challenging. Furthermore, finding the right servant leader who is willing to serve in an organization that has not been traditionally servant-based may be difficult. Last, but not

less important, it will be challenging to change attitudes in higher education on how best to treat students. Should students be treated as customers or as learners?

Background of the Study

Organizations around the world are learning how to engage customers more meaningfully by delighting them with outstanding customer service. The goal is to make these customers promoters of the organization and in turn increase repeat business. “Promoters bring in new people. They talk up a company and burnish its reputation” (Reichheld, 2006, p. 13). Repeat business does not only make sense for consumer organizations such as retail stores, it also makes sense for institutions of higher education.

In the retail world, repeat business occurs when customers return for more services or new products. In education, repeat business occurs when students return for additional degrees and continued life-long education. The more satisfied students are with the institution, the greater their likelihood to promote the institution and return for additional services. “Satisfied customers become, in effect, part of the company's marketing department, not only increasing their own purchases but also providing enthusiastic referrals” (Reichheld, 2006, p. 10).

Unfortunately, some administrators, as well as some faculty and staff, fear that the attainment of a high rate of student satisfaction could signify a lower education standard or quality. They struggle with these two concepts, forgetting that quality education can be delivered in an exceptional learning environment that is student- (or customer-) focused producing greater student satisfaction and persistence. According to Dey and Hurtado (2005), “Student satisfaction and retention are closely related to college impact and institutional accountability” (p. 334). Similarly, Fink (2003) states that “high-quality

learning is absolutely essential,” as is the need for teachers “to help students develop” (p. 242).

In higher education the student has generally been recognized as a learner and not as a consumer or a buyer of knowledge. In higher education, students are not customers; instead, they are learners and apprentices. “Consumers” or “customers” are business terms that have been understood from a financial and transactional perspective. These business terms have been researched for many years in business schools around the world, and have been applied to business models but not to higher education models. They have also been implemented and used in business settings but not in educational settings. Nonetheless, scholars like Smith (2004) and Demb (2002) consider that terms now used in business and technology to acknowledge the consumer will become part of the vocabulary that higher education uses to identify learners and their learning environments in the future.

In higher education, research has focused mostly on education quality, learning outcomes, and organizational environments. Few studies have focused on student satisfaction as a means to measure performance. Some research (e.g., Brown-Howard, 2007; Crist, 1999; Hamilton, 2007; Liao, 2006) has focused on leadership styles and how these styles influence teacher job satisfaction, but few studies have focused on servant leadership and how leadership attitude influences student satisfaction. Most of the research surrounding customer service and customer satisfaction has focused on businesses rather than higher education institutions. As stated by Lord (1977), “One primary reason for the unsatisfactory state of research on this topic is the lack of precision in both the definition and measurement of theoretical variables” (p. 114).

Statement of the Problem

With the rising costs and competitive dynamics of higher education, universities must find ways to perform more efficiently. One area of opportunity for greater efficiency lies in increasing student retention. Pitkethly and Prosser (2001) affirm that many students withdraw because of environmental factors rather than intellectual difficulties. As a result, universities need to ask: How can institutions of higher learning reduce student withdrawals and increase persistence? One of the key drivers to improving persistence is increasing student satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The goal of this quantitative study is to determine the level of servant leadership at a university system in the United States and to identify whether any correlation exists between the level of servant leadership and the level of student satisfaction. For this study, servant leadership is defined using the following characteristics provided by Laub (1999): valuing people, developing people, building community, displaying authenticity, providing leadership, and sharing leadership. The Organizational Leadership Assessment ([OLA], Laub, 2000) instrument will be used to measure the level of servant leadership across the university system.

For this study, student satisfaction will be defined as the level of student approval of the university as students reciprocate with faculty, staff, and administrators (Guolla 1999). The overall student satisfaction rate is equivalent to the Net Promoter Score of the organization (Reichheld, 2006). The Net Promoter Score ([NPS], Reichheld, 2006) instrument will be used to measure student satisfaction across the university system. The level of servant leadership will be correlated with the Net Promoter Score to determine if

there is a statistically significant relationship between them. The focus of the research is to ask whether servant leadership influences student satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework

Leadership is fundamental for an effective organization (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Since antiquity, leadership has been a topic of discussion; it has “appeared in the works of Plato, Caesar, and Plutarch” (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 4). Many theories and approaches abound on leadership and its effectiveness. They include approaches such as the “situational leadership” model, which suggests that leaders must match leadership style to the development level of those they are leading (Blanchard, 2007); or the “great man” theory, which proposes, for example, that without Moses the Jews would have not left Egypt and without Churchill the British would have been defeated by the Germans in 1945; or “trait theories,” which assert that leaders are “gifted with superior traits or qualities” (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 4).

Up to now, leadership theories have concentrated on the leader, the situation, or the association between them (Bass, 1990; Hoy & Miskell, 1996; Marzano et al., 2005). To expand knowledge about leaders, Halpin (1966) proposed that researchers focus on leader behavior. Research has also recognized that some leadership behaviors that drive outcomes are at times interwoven with organizational behaviors. Ongoing debate on this topic addresses the complexity of whether one should assess organizational behavior outcomes at an organizational level or at an individual level. Some researchers (McGregor, 1996; Miller & Monge, 1986; Vroom & Yetton, 1973) argue that these assessments ought to be at an individual level, while others (Brief, 1998; Covey, 1998;

Laub, 1999; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Ostroff, 1992; Russell, 2001) argue that research ought to focus at the organizational level.

Even though scholarly research is limited on the topic of servant leadership, researchers have been able to demonstrate that servant leadership can be operationally defined (Laub, 2000; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008; Sergiovanni, 2007; Wong & Davey, 2007), and distinguished from transformational leadership (Bass, 1998; Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Taylor-Guillham, 1998; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2003). Furthermore, Wong and Davey (2007) noted the growth of servant leadership during the last decade, and the way the concept has “gained increasing acceptance in leadership and organizational literature (e.g., Collins, 2001; Covey, 1994; Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Heifetz, 1994; Russell & Stone, 2002; Senge, 1997; Spears, 1994; Wheatley, 1994)” (p. 3).

For this research servant leadership was measured at the organizational level. The university in this study has operationalized a leadership success profile and a value system that at its core is similar to the principles found in the servant leadership model. To use the words of Covey (1998), “If you really want to get servant leadership, then you've got to have institutionalization of the principles at the organizational level” (p. xvii).

Servant Leadership

In servant leadership, everybody is part of the team. Individuals have the same goal in mind and are focused on playing their roles according to their skill rather than their positions (Page & Wong, 2000). Furthermore, Laub (1999) recognizes six characteristics exhibited by servant leaders; they are: (a) valuing people, (b) developing

people, (c) building community, (d) displaying authenticity, (e) providing leadership, and (f) sharing leadership. For this research, Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment ([OLA], Laub, 2000) will be used to measure the level of servant leadership across the university system. This instrument "has rapidly become a standard in servant leadership research" (Irving, 2005, p. 111).

The literature suggests that servant leadership must transcend the leader and be integrated into the organization to create synergy (Beckner, 2004; Page & Wong, 2000). Sergiovanni (2007) suggests that a more accurate viewpoint of servant leadership "is to view the expressions of leadership as being practiced together" (p. 81). For this study, collaborative leadership is considered part of servant leadership.

Net Promoter Score (NPS)

The Net Promoter Score (NPS) is an instrument that measures customer satisfaction and loyalty. Using this instrument in an educational setting the student would be asked, "How likely is it that you would recommend (name of institution) University to a friend or colleague?" (Reichheld, 2006, p. 18). The student would then score the likelihood using a number from 0 to 10. If the student selects 0 to 6, he or she would be considered a detractor. If the student selects 7 or 8, he or she would be considered a passive. If the student selects a 9 or a 10, he or she would be considered a promoter or loyal enthusiast. The Net Promoter Score is: %Promoters - %Detractors. An institution with a +50 NPS number or greater is considered to provide world-class service. The university system studied for this research currently uses the NPS instrument to measure student satisfaction and loyalty.

Nature of the Study

This quantitative research takes a postpositivist worldview and has been designed to measure the level of servant leadership at the organizational level of 12 organizations within the university system being studied. The study asks whether there is a relationship between level of servant leadership and student satisfaction rate at these 12 institutions.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Literature on organizational behavior and performance suggests the following questions for this quantitative research:

1. Is there a significant level of servant leadership in this university system?

According to Laub (2011a), a significant level of servant leadership is attained when an organization receives a score of 4.0 or higher on the OLA. This study hypothesized:

H₁: There is a statistically significant level of servant leadership at the organizational level in the university system being researched.

H₀: There is not a statistically significant level of servant leadership at the organizational level in the university system being researched.

2. Is there a correlation between the levels of servant leadership and student satisfaction in this university system? This study hypothesized:

H₂: There is a significant positive correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and the student satisfaction rate.

H₀: There is no significant association of servant leadership at the organizational level and the student satisfaction rate.

Definition of Terms

Specific terms and concepts are used for this study. They are defined below.

Healthy Organizations

An organization that displays servant leadership through its culture, workforce, and leadership (Laub, 2011b). An organization that reaches a score of 4 or greater would be considered a healthy, servant organization.

Leader and Leadership

A leader is an individual who influences followers through cooperative means for the formation, advancement, and achievement of a shared vision (Marx, 2006).

Normally, a leader is viewed as one with official and commanding power. However, a leader may also be an individual who helps direct the lives of others and yet has no formal authority.

Organization Leadership Assessment (OLA)

This survey instrument was created in 1999 by Dr. James Laub, and is used to measure an organization's level of servant leadership. Laub (1999) recognizes six characteristics exhibited by servant leaders, they are: (1) valuing people, (2) developing people, (3) building community, (4) displaying authenticity, (5) providing leadership, and (6) sharing leadership.

Net Promoter Score (NPS)

The Net Promoter Score is an instrument to measures customer satisfaction and loyalty. For an educational setting the NPS instrument would ask the student: "How likely is it that you would recommend (name of institution) University to a friend or colleague?" (Reichheld, 2006, p. 18). The student would then score the likelihood using a number from 0 to 10. This measure will be described further in the Methods section.

Population

For this research, all full-time and part-time employees working at the university are considered part of the population. Due to the inaccessibility and impracticality of reaching 96 locations throughout the United States, the researcher chose to focus on 12 locations found in the Southeast and Northcentral regions. The sample population at the 12 locations is about 691 employees composed of faculty, staff, and administrators. The sample size will be derived from those who voluntarily participated in this study.

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership for this research is defined as leaders who value people, develop people, build community, display authenticity, provide leadership, and share leadership. Laub (1999) defines servant leadership in these terms:

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

University System

The university system used for this research is a regionally-accredited institution with over 95 locations throughout the United States. This university system was selected for this research for numerous reasons. First, the university has been around since 1931. It is a well-established institution that will enable the researcher to study an organization that is mature and entrenched in its culture and academic structure.

Second, one of the main initiatives at the university deals with academic quality and continuous improvement. This spirit of continuous improvement has delivered many developments over the years for the university, one being a student-centered service

model that emphasizes student engagement and excellent customer service. Third, the university is committed to improving student retention, and to this end, they have committed an array of resources to support better student outcomes. Lastly, this institution was chosen for this research because of convenience, since the researcher is an employee at the university.

The 12 locations participating in this research are located in the Southeast and Northcentral United States. The location where the researcher is employed will not be part of this research. Within the 12 locations some have high NPS results and others have low NPS results. All of these locations are part of the university system under research. Each location was identified by a number and not the name of the location.

Limitations and Delimitations

This research will be limited to a group of university employees at a university system in the United States. This study's consideration of leadership will be limited to the six characteristics of servant leadership defined by OLA. Since the researcher is an employee of the university that will participate in this study, the researcher excluded himself and his organization from participating in the study. Other factors not measured in this study may have an effect on the Net Promoter Score of the institution.

It is assumed that the university employees will respond to the survey accurately. It is assumed that servant leadership represents the central functions of collaborative leadership. Furthermore, it is assumed that the Net Promoter Score data published by the university is a sensible means to measure student satisfaction regarding the institution.

Educational Significance

This research is significant for three main reasons. First, there appears to be insufficient understanding of the relationship between servant leadership and student satisfaction among the employees of the university. Second, servant leadership has emerged as an important idea during this past decade, and yet, few quantitative data relating to servant leadership and organization outcomes are available. Third, this research will nourish discussion among university leaders as to how well the university's core values have been accepted and operationalized throughout the organization.

Chapter Summary

This quantitative research has been designed to measure the level of servant leadership at the organizational level of seven organizations within the university system being studied, and to ask whether a relationship exists between the level of servant leadership and student satisfaction rate of these 12 institutions. This is important for many reasons, one being that "the leadership that counts, in the end, is the kind that touches people differently" (Sergiovanni, 2007, p. 76). The methodology to be used will focus on servant leadership at an organizational level as measured by Laub's OLA measure and the NPS measure of student satisfaction and loyalty.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In the past decade, leadership and organizational effectiveness has become a much-valued topic of discussion among business leaders and educational leaders across the world (Collins, 2001; Marzano et al., 2005). The pressure to perform better with less has encouraged leadership and organizational theorists to reevaluate the effectiveness of current models. Leadership is fundamental for an effective organization and reevaluating its effectiveness is not only the correct thing to do at this time, it is also the ethical thing to do (Beckner, 2004; Marzano, et al, 2005).

For example, one of the areas needing reevaluation in today's organizations is learning. Senge (2007) suggests that organizations must acquire the ability to learn at all levels of the organization and not only at the level of leadership. No longer should learning take place at the top level of the organization, it must take place throughout the organization. Learning must become an all-inclusive force in today's organizational structures. Team learning and shared vision occur when organizations operate in learning communities, becoming dependent on the total knowledge of all of the stakeholders and not only on the knowledge of one individual, the leader (Senge, 2007).

Furthermore, institutions of higher education are reevaluating their leadership and organizational structures due to changes associated with technology, globalization, and changes in demography (CHEA, 2008). No longer are these institutions accepting the models used by higher education in the last century as the only answer to address current challenges. "In modern societies, it is becoming more and more the case that the most effective leaders are different than those of the past" (Beckner, 2004, p. 141). For example, the need to adapt to change quickly as an organization, to have the right leader

who helps promote collaboration and trust, and to establish an environment that is ethical across the whole organization are just a few of the important goals these educational organizations seek as they move towards achieving success in the 21st century. This is crucial to them because, “whether a school operates effectively or not increases or decreases a student’s chances of academic success” (Marzano et al., 2005).

Historical Leadership Models

Leadership has been a captivating subject for students of leadership and organization since antiquity. It has “appeared in the works of Plato, Caesar, and Plutarch” (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 4). Many theories and approaches abound on leadership and its effectiveness. They include approaches such as the “situational leadership” model, which suggests that leaders must match leadership style to the development level of those they are leading (Blanchard, 2006); the “great man” theory, which proposes, for example, that without Moses the Jews would have not left Egypt and without Churchill the British would have been defeated by the Germans in 1945; or “trait theories,” which assert that leaders are gifted with superior traits or qualities” (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 4).

Trait theory is a leadership theory that was prominent during the early part of the last century. It focused on those traits found in leaders that were not found in followers (see Covey, 2004, for a list of trait theorists). This theory promoted the concept that a person’s leadership attributes were internal, present from the time of birth (Barnard, 1926, as cited in Covey, 2004). One of the problems with this theory is that it does not clearly explain leaders' effectiveness, which does not only depend on traits but also on environmental and situational factors.

Later, a new leadership theory began to break ground, the situational leadership theory. Situational leadership theories hold that leadership is a product of situational demands (Covey, 2004). As the needs of followers change and their situations begin to demand more direction and development, leaders must also change their leadership styles or approaches to address new demands. Blanchard (2007) suggests that situational leaders understand their peoples' needs and match these needs to the appropriate developmental program.

Later, Halpin (1966) proposed that researchers focus on leader behavior. Research suggests that leaders share a range of distinct behaviors or qualities (Marx, 2006), and the use of these behaviors depends on leaders' choices, types of employees involved, and situations (Blanchard, 2007; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973).

Another leadership theory that was introduced in the middle of the last century dealt with power and influence. This leadership theory was based on participation as the key component to influencing others. In other words, "participative leadership deals with power sharing and empowerment of followers" (Covey, 2004, p. 355).

As soon as researchers began to study leadership behaviors and organizational outcomes, they recognized that some of the leadership behaviors that drive outcomes are at times interwoven with organizational behaviors. An ongoing debate on this topic elucidates the complexity of whether one should assess organizational behavior and outcomes at an organizational level or at an individual level. Some (McGregor, 1996; Miller & Monge, 1986; Vroom & Yetton, 1973) argue that these assessments ought to be at an individual level; others argue that research measurement ought to focus at the

organizational level (Brief, 1998; Covey, 1998; Laub, 1999; Locke & Schweiger, 1979; Ostroff, 1992; Russell, 2001).

Servant Leadership

After decades of research focusing primarily on the leader, their situations, and their organizations, a new theory was introduced called servant leadership. Servant leadership theory was selected for this research for two reasons: First, it can be measured at the organizational level. The servant leadership theory that really works is the one that is institutionalized and practiced at all levels of the institution (Covey, 1998). Second, compared to other leadership methods, servant leadership can be understood in a broader, more philosophical and holistic perspective. Sergiovanni (2007) states that “the leadership that counts, in the end, is the kind that touches people differently” (p. 76).

Furthermore, Marx (2006) suggests that leadership in the new millennium cannot merely be defined by leadership styles, behaviors, or even a set of skills. Instead, he suggests that leadership for this new century will require leaders who are socially responsible—in other words, leaders who “make every effort to stay close to those they serve—to determine their needs and figure out how to be of service” (p. 14).

Building a Servant Leadership Model

Even though contemporary literature suggests that servant leadership can be attributed to Robert Greenleaf (2002), the bible suggests that the concept of servant leadership can be dated back to the times of Moses. “The earliest philosophies of leadership, dating back 2,600 years, revealed the fundamental notions of leadership being service and facilitating positive change” (Searie, 2011, p. 109). One finds Moses to be considered a liberator, a prophet, a teacher, and a servant (Jerrow, 2005). In the book of

Numbers, chapter 12, verses six through eight, the bible calls Moses a “servant” (The Holy Bible, New International Version).

Previous research (e.g., Russell, 2001; Wilkes, 1998) placed much emphasis on Jesus as the perfect model for servant leadership. Even though Jesus is an excellent example of servant leadership (both as a model and a teacher), these two researchers were deficient in leaving Moses out of their studies for three reasons. First, Moses is considered a great leader by the largest religious groups in the world (Christians, Jews, and Muslims). Second, Moses modeled servant leadership over 1,500 years before Jesus did. Last, Jesus’ teaching was for the most part founded on the teaching of Moses, and therefore the similarities in their leadership styles are enormous.

If one were to use Laub’s (2009) Six Servant Leadership Characteristics to study the life of Moses, one would find that Moses modeled and taught servant leadership. For example, the first of Laub’s servant leadership characteristics is valuing people (Laub, 1999). The Jewish scripture states that Moses came to the rescue of some mistreated shepherds on the mountains of Midian. “Some shepherds came along and drove them (the mistreated shepherds) away, but Moses got up and came to their rescue” (Exodus 2:17, The Holy Bible, New International Version). This passage demonstrates that Moses valued people, and that he had a deep concern for the wellbeing of others. Moses not only liberated the oppressed, he also empowered them to become free and self-dependent. Dierendonck (2010) points out that this servant characteristic fosters a “self-confident attitude among followers and gives them a sense of personal power” (p. 1232).

The second characteristic of Laub’s (2009) servant leadership is developing people. This characteristic was also taught and modeled by Moses. According to

Exodus, chapter 18, verse 25, Moses selected, instructed, and developed leaders from among the people of Israel. “He chose capable men from all Israel and made them leaders of the people, officials over thousands, hundreds, fifties and tens.” Since “servant leaders have a deep-rooted desire to meet the needs of others” and develop them, Moses was moved to prepare the next generation of leaders (Searle, 2011, p. 112). Years later under the tutelage of Moses, the young Joshua was ready to lead his people to the promised land, thus demonstrating Moses’ servant leadership ability to develop others.

The LORD said to Moses, “Now the day of your death is near. Call Joshua and present yourselves at the tent of meeting, where I will commission him.” So Moses and Joshua came and presented themselves at the tent of meeting. (Deuteronomy 31:14, The Holy Bible, New International Version)

The third servant leader characteristic presented by Laub (2009) is building community. Servant leaders create a sense of belonging, of being part of something greater than oneself. Moses too was a builder of community. The way Moses organized his people, established the festivities and delivered the laws demonstrated his ability to build community. “These are the laws you are to set before them” said God to Moses (Exodus 21:1, The Holy Bible, New International Version). Likewise, Searle (2011) emphasizes this point by stating that “servant leadership focuses on building a cohesive climate between followers” (p. 112).

The fourth characteristic proposed by Laub (2009) deals with the servant leader’s ability to display authenticity. This authenticity allowed Moses to be trusted by God. This servant characteristic “is about being true to oneself, accurately representing—privately and publicly” (Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1233). According to Deuteronomy, chapter 34, verse 10, the Holy Bible reads: “Since then, no prophet has risen in Israel like Moses, whom the LORD knew face to face” (The Holy Bible, New International

Version). Moses displayed such a degree of authenticity with God and his people, that at the moment of his death “the Israelites grieved for Moses in the plains of Moab thirty days” (The Holy Bible, New International Version). Only a leader who is authentic and trusted is cherished as Moses was. Andersen (2009) affirms that the servant “leader’s communicative and supportive behaviours seem to be the prime determinants for trust” (p. 9).

The fifth characteristic proposed by Laub (2009) deals with the servant leader’s ability to provide leadership. This servant characteristic was also demonstrated by Moses. When Moses led the Israelites out of Egypt, he modeled an extraordinary ability to lead (Exodus 5-14, The Holy Bible, New International Version). When Moses separated his people into tribes, and selected judges over them to serve in maintaining peace and order, this too demonstrated Moses’ ability to provide leadership (Exodus, 18:25-26, The Holy Bible, New International Version). Correspondingly, Dierendonck (2011) states that “providing direction ensures that people know what is expected of them, which is beneficial for both employees and the organization” (p. 1234).

The sixth and last characteristic proposed by Laub (2009) deals with the servant leader’s ability to share leadership. Moses modeled this characteristic when he chose his brother Aaron to be the speaker and assist him in leading the Israelites out of Egypt (Exodus, 4:15, The Holy Bible, New International Version). Furthermore, when Moses chose judges to provide guidance for the Israelites, he modeled shared leadership. In Exodus, chapter 18, verse 25, one finds that Moses “chose capable men from all Israel and made them leaders of the people, officials over thousands, hundreds, fifties and tens,” a demonstration that Moses shared authority and leadership (The Holy Bible, New

International Version). Savage-Austin and Honeycutt (2011) also stated that, “the goal of the servant leader is to strengthen others and encourage a collective approach to fulfilling organizational objectives” (p. 50).

Not only was Moses serving God by leading the Israelites out of captivity, he was also serving his people by becoming like them and identifying with their needs and sorrows. Moses was able to connect with his people at a deeper level because he saw himself as a servant first. Gandhi later suggested that leaders “look below the surface and identify the hidden and unarticulated needs that others cannot see, and create a bond with those you are trying to serve” (Nair, 1994, p. 83). This was exactly what Moses did as he led his people out of captivity.

This concept of servant leadership was later adopted by Christianity. Jesus was seen as a servant leader by the first-century community of followers. They saw him as one who did not come to be served, but to serve (Mathew 20:25-28, The Holy Bible, New International Version). Many scholars have written about Jesus’ servant leadership style (Blanchard, 2007; Graham, 1991; Polleys, 2002; Spears, 1995; Todd, 2004). They all agree that Jesus not only taught servant leadership, he also modeled it.

This was clearly demonstrated by Jesus when he washed the feet of his disciples (John 13:1-17, The Holy Bible, New International Version). Jesus demonstrated an unselfish attitude towards helping others achieve their greatest potential. Maxwell (2005) suggests that “leaders need to be what they want to see” (p. 243). In other words, if the leaders want to see humility in the organization, they need to be humble. If they want to build trust, they need to be authentic. If they want to succeed, they need to be willing to

let go and share the power. “You don’t give to get. You give because it is the right thing to do” (Maxwell, 2004, p. ix).

The beauty of servant leadership is that everyone matters in the organization. For Jesus, everyone was important for the greater good of society. In today’s organizations, every employee ought to count and be part of the team. Servant leadership allows organizations to bring employees together. This is because individuals have the same goal in mind and are focused on playing their roles according to their skill rather than their positions (Page & Wong, 2000).

However, some research disagrees about the effectiveness of servant leadership in an organization (Andersen, 2009; Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011). First, these researchers state that the lack of clarity around the definition of servant leadership is a problem for studying it. They ask: Is servant leadership a trait, a behavior, a style, or model? “It is not clear whether servant-leadership is personality (trait) theory or an instrumental theory (i.e. leadership as behaviours)” (Andersen, 2009, p. 6). Even though recent literature has attempted to clarify the definition of servant leadership (Hannay, 2009), there is no full agreement among scholars.

Second, these researchers argue that servant leadership is difficult to gauge among leaders and managers. “As for an instrument measuring the degree of servant-leadership, we still do not know how much ‘servility’ a leader must exhibit in order to be or be seen as a servant-leader” (Andersen, 2009, p. 8). In contrast, researchers such as Laub (1999) with his OLA instrument provide researchers the opportunity to gauge the level of servant leadership across the organization.

Although there are many areas of opportunity in servant leadership research, one key area is the positive impact servant leadership can have on the organization (Laub, 1999; Sergiovanni, 1992; Wong & Davey, 2007). Hannay (2009) states that “servant leadership theory is one approach designed to encourage a more relationship-oriented workplace” (p. 9). Through servant leadership, a leader is able to share his or her vision, share the organization’s values, add flexibility to the workplace, and produce an environment that is creative, while improving service to customers (Hamilton, 2008).

This research will use Laub’s OLA instrument to measure the level of servant leadership across the university system (Laub, 1999). This instrument recognizes six characteristics exhibited by servant leaders: (a) valuing people, (b) developing people, (c) building community, (d) displaying authenticity, (e) providing leadership, and (f) sharing leadership. These six servant characteristics will measure the level of servant leadership among the university faculty and staff.

Contrast between Servant and Transformational Leadership

During the past decade, researchers have drawn numerous parallels between servant leadership and transformational leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004; Stone et al., 2003). They identified characteristics common to both leadership theories, including influence, trust, vision, and respect (Hannay, 2009).

Both leadership theories focus on people and organizational objectives, but each provides a different level of priority to people and objectives. For example, transformational leadership attempts to transform the organization by influencing its people to focus on the organization’s objectives. Servant leadership attempts to focus on

serving its people to influence them to fulfill the organization's objectives. Andersen (2009) comments that "transformational leaders tend to focus more on organizational objectives, while servant-leaders focus on their followers' wellbeing" (p. 9). Further, "transformational leader is directed towards the organization and building commitment to organization objectives through empowering followers, while servant-leader focuses on the service itself" (Hannay, 2009, p. 4). However, both accentuate "the good of both individuals and the group, as well as those who come in contact with the organization" (Andersen, 2009, p. 9).

Both approaches also have the potential of leading the organization to accomplishing its objectives. However, misunderstanding may occur when attempting to comprehend Greenleaf's (2002) servant leadership model and organizational outcomes. One might assume that if servant leaders are focused on followers they can potentially miss the organization's objectives. To this point, Greenleaf (2002) comments emphatically that "an institution starts on a course towards people-building with leadership that has a firmly established context of people first. With that, the right actions fall naturally into place" (p. 54). The right actions as well as the right outcomes fall into place with servant leadership. That is because, at the heart of servant leadership one finds a leader who possess an "internal conviction that the leader is a servant of a higher being or power, and in obedient gratitude to that higher being or power, serves other people" (Sendjaya et al, 2008, p. 406). Additionally, "There is much yet to be learned about who provides educational leadership, how it is productively distributed across the school system (e.g. state, district, school and classroom) and what stimulates its development" (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004, p. 17).

Organizational Performance

Most literature pertaining to organizational performance has focused on job satisfaction and productivity (Frederick, 2007; Halldorsson, 2007; Li, Yang, & Wu, 2008), and few researchers have focused on customer satisfaction as a measure for organization performance, even when customer satisfaction is “one such intangible asset found to influence firm value” (Aksoy, Cooil, Groening, Keiningham, & Yalcin, 2008, p. 105). This disparity can in part be attributed to the difficulty organizations have in linking customer satisfaction to the organization’s operations and overall performance. Organizations tend to measure performance by tallying productivity, financial outcomes, and sales results, and not necessarily customer satisfaction, which at times can be seen as an intangible measure (Aksoy et al, 2008).

Nevertheless, studies in the field of marketing have yielded support for customer satisfaction as an economic performance measure for organizations (Gupta & Zeithami, 2006). Since “research has found that customer satisfaction has a measurable impact on purchase intentions (Bolton & Drew, 1991), customer retention (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001), [and] reduced customer defections (Anderson, 1996),” organizations are now collecting data on customer satisfaction to improve performance (Aksoy et al., 2008, p. 106). The university under research has been collecting data on customer satisfaction and loyalty for the past three years, and these results will be used in this study.

Other studies on organizational outcomes have found supporting evidence linking servant leadership to organizational performance (Andersen, 2009; Getz, 2009; Searle, 2011). When servant leaders create encouraging environments that promote positive behaviors, this in turn increases organizational performance. “Recent empirical

investigations of servant leadership support the premise that servant leadership facilitates positive moral behaviors in their followers, which then leads to increased performance” (Searle, 2011, p. 111). Consequently, an important focus of this research will be evaluating whether there is a link between servant leadership and student satisfaction.

Chapter Summary

In this section, the review of literature reflected upon the purpose of this study from a historical and theoretical framework. It reviewed leadership theories and servant leadership from a historical viewpoint, and discussed the servant leader model. Also, it evaluated the differences between servant leadership and transformational leadership.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This exploratory research sought to determine whether the collaborative values found in servant leadership exist in the university system under research. The study also asked whether any association existed between servant leadership at an organizational level and student satisfaction rate.

Research Design

This study was a quantitative descriptive and correlational study. It correlated survey data collected from university staff on job satisfaction and perceived leadership characteristics with university location-level data for student satisfaction.

Participants and Procedure

The population from which this study's sample draws consisted of 5,928 employees of the university being researched. These employees are categorized as faculty, staff, and administrators, and work fulltime, part-time, and by contract. The administrator group is comprised of academic administrators and non-academic administrators. The faculty group is composed of full-time professors, visiting professors, and contracted professors. The staff group includes all supporting employees, professional and nonprofessional, who are not administrators or faculty.

Due to the inaccessibility and impracticality of reaching 96 locations throughout the United States, the population sampled for this study was narrowed down to 691 employees from 12 locations in the Southeast and Northcentral regions of the United States. The number of employees at each location was derived from a report prepared by the Human Resources Department and confirmed by each location leader. Table 1

presents the number of employees by their location of employment. The names of the 12 locations were not included here to protect the anonymity of the university locations.

Table 1

The University Employee Population

Location	Employee
	<i>N</i>
Site 1	128
Site 2	171
Site 3	40
Site 4	8
Site 5	107
Site 6	20
Site 7	25
Site 8	30
Site 9	112
Site 10	15
Site 11	19
Site 12	16
Total	691

The sample for this research was taken from the whole employee population of the 12 locations shown in Table 1. The sample size for this study (of those responding to the OLA) was expected to be over 240 employees. To attain a p value of $\leq .05$ in this research, every location needed to have an adequate response rate. The minimum number of respondents required for each location was different, because the N ranged from 8 to 171. It was expected that the response rate for this study overall would be

higher than 35%, because in previous surveys done throughout the institution the participation rate has been higher than 50%.

After receiving permission to use the OLA (Appendix A), and after receiving authorization to use the university system under study (see Appendix B), Argosy University granted approval to start the research. Once approval and access were granted by both the IRB at Argosy University and the Academic Research Leader of the university system under study, the researcher spoke to the Group Vice Presidents and the University Presidents to receive buy-in and access to their locations, employees, and data.

All 12 locations requested that all communications be made through the location President or Campus Director. The researcher's initial invitation to participate in the study was sent to the location leader first and then forwarded to the work emails of all university employees (of the 12 chosen locations) with a personal note from the location leader encouraging them to participate in the study. This approach assisted in informing the maximum number of employees at the 12 locations about the research. Once the consent form (Appendix C) was returned to the researcher, the OLA survey link was sent to the participant via his or her university email address; a link to the online survey was included in the body of the e-mail (see Appendix D). Once participants logged into the survey online, the first page of the survey contained demographic questions. For those who needed more clarification, a conference call was arranged to answer questions. An e-mail was sent out to those who had not taken the survey after the second week (Appendix E). The OLA instrument (Appendix F) was available to the population for a little over one month. The survey commenced at the end of September and concluded at the beginning of November, 2011.

The Net Promoter Score data was collected from the university's intranet website. The local organization (campus) involving the researcher was excluded from this research to avoid any bias. Retrieving the data and gathering the survey took about two months. This was possible because the Net Promoter Score results are gathered and reported by the institution every eight weeks.

Instrumentation

This study collected two types of data, survey data and data in a report format. First, the Organizational Leadership Assessment ([OLA] Laub, 1999) was administered to survey participants regarding the level of servant leadership across the organization. Second, the Net Promoter Score ([NPS] Reichheld, 2003) was used to measure student satisfaction at the university. For this research, the independent variable was organizational servant leadership and the dependent variable was student satisfaction.

Organizational Leadership Assessment Instrument

Laub (1999) relied on a Delphi panel to create a definition for servant leadership at an organization level and established six characteristics to exemplify servant leadership. The Delphi panel was used to gain agreement among a group of specialists in a particular field as they evaluated the responses to the questions on a survey (Robson, 2002). According to Laub (2000), a panel of "fourteen authorities from the field of servant leadership" participated in the development of the survey (p. 2). These experts were selected because they had previously written and taught on the topic at a university level. The literature on servant leadership, the panel of experts, and the results from a three-round "Delphi survey" contributed to the construction of the OLA instrument. After several revisions, the Delphi panel arrived at the six characteristics and 18

supplementary qualities of a servant leader. The six characteristics included: values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. The Six Characteristics of a Servant Leader



Note: Adapted from “Defining Servant Leadership and the Healthy Organization,” para 3, by J.A. Laub, http://www.olagroup.com/Display.asp?Page=servant_leadership

Furthermore, in Figure 2, a description for each servant leadership characteristic is provided. These brief phrases or definitions of the six servant leadership characteristics are the ones suggested by Laub (2011b).

Figure 2. The Six Characteristics of Servant Leadership

Characteristics of servant leadership	Description of the characteristics
Values people	Serve others first Believe and trust in people Listen receptively
Develops people	Provide opportunity for learning Model appropriate behavior Build up through affirmation
Builds community	Build relationships Work collaboratively Value differences
Displays authenticity	Open and accountable Willing to learn Honesty and integrity
Provides leadership	Envision the future Take initiative Clarify goals
Shares leadership	Share vision Share the power Share the status

Note: Adapted from “Defining Servant Leadership and the Healthy Organization,” by J.A. Laub, http://www.olagroup.com/Display.asp?Page=servant_leadership

After development and revision of the OLA instrument, a field test was conducted using “828 people from 41 organizations representing various states in the U.S. and one organization from the Netherlands” (Laub, 2000, p. 2). The revised OLA “had a mean of 223.79 on a total potential score of 300 and the standard deviation was 41.08. The alpha coefficient is .98” (Laub, 2000, p. 23).

Table 2 shows subscores on the OLA . It reveals high reliability scores for all subscales (see Laub, 2000, p. 20). For this study, subscale alphas ranged from .87 to .95.

Table 2

Laub's Reliability Scores

OLA Servant characteristics	Total possible score	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	alpha
Values people	70	53.84	8.88	.91
Develops people	50	37.37	7.78	.90
Builds community	60	45.20	7.87	.90
Displays authenticity	70	51.79	10.29	.93
Provides leadership	60	45.59	8.49	.91
Shares leadership	60	44.99	9.24	.93

Note: For all variables $N = 828$.

For the present study, OLA data were collected by inviting the population from the 12 locations in the university under research to participate in a web-based survey. In addition to the OLA questions, the online survey included questions relating to position level and location. These two questions assisted the researcher in assigning the OLA score to the appropriate location, as well as to the appropriate work group.

As the participants from the 12 locations concluded their OLA survey online, their results were captured, tagged to their location, and their location average (or μ score) attained. Scores can range from 1 to 5 (Figure 3). Scores below 4 represent autocratic or paternalistic companies. Scores of 4 or better identify organizations as Servant Organizations with excellent or optimal health (Laub, 2011a).

Figure 3. Laub's OLA Score Range

OLA Organization Health Levels		OLA Scorebreaks
Organization 1	Autocratic (Toxic Health)	1.0 to 1.99
Organization 2	Autocratic (Poor Health)	2.0 to 2.99
Organization 3	Negatively Paternalistic (Limited Health)	3.0 to 3.49
Organization 4	Positively Paternalistic (Moderate Health)	3.5 to 3.99
Organization 5	Servant (Excellent Health)	4.0 to 4.49
Organization 6	Servant (Optimal Health)	4.5 to 5.00

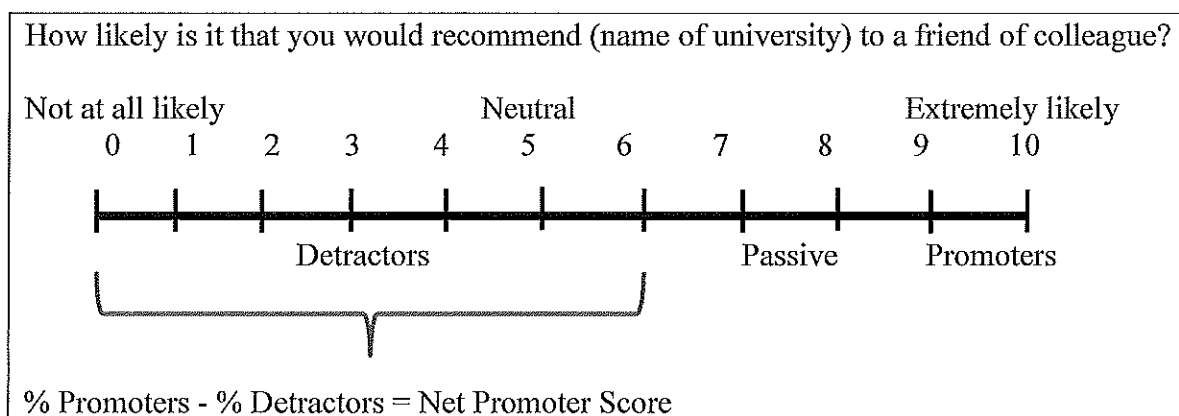
Note: Adapted from "Key information for evaluating OLA raw dataset scores for research purposes" (p. 6), by J. A. Laub (2011a).

Additionally, Laub (2011a) suggests that only non-managers (the workforce) be used for scoring the organization's level of servant leadership. Laub noted that 1) Organizations tend to have a gap between the OLA score of the managers and the OLA scores of the workforce (e.g., faculty and staff), and 2) that the greatest number of respondents to the OLA survey tend to come from the organization's workforce.

Net Promoter Score

The NPS measures customer satisfaction and loyalty. Using this instrument in an educational setting the student would be asked, "How likely is it that you would recommend (name of institution) University to a friend or colleague?" (Reichheld, 2006, p. 18). The student would then score the likelihood using a number from 0 to 10 (see Figure 4). If the student selects 0 to 6, he or she would be considered a detractor. If the student selects 7 or 8, he or she would be considered a passive. If the student selects a 9 or a 10, he or she would be considered a promoter or loyal enthusiast.

Figure 4. The Net Promoter Score and its Breakpoint



Note: Adapted from *Answering the ultimate question*, p. 2, by R. Owen & L. L. Brooks (2009).

The formula used for calculating the organization's NPS number is: %Promoters - %Detractors = Net Promoter Score. An institution with a +50 NPS number or greater, is considered an institution that provides world-class service. The university system being considered for this research currently uses the NPS instrument to measure student satisfaction and loyalty. This NPS data will be evaluated and applied ex post facto.

When Reichheld (2003) created the NPS instrument, his initial test encompassed 14 companies across six industries. A few years later he had his collaborators from Satmetrix perform a much larger data collection and investigation (Schneider et al., 2008) that collected NPS results from 12 different organizations between 2002 and 2004.

When these 12 organizations' NPS data were compared to the financial results of each organization for the years 2003 to 2005, the results from this study showed "that as NPS increased, revenue followed suit, and therefore demonstrated that NPS provides a leading indicator for revenue growth" (Owens & Brooks, 2009, p. 16). Their findings showed that the NPS instrument was "a strong correlate with indicators of growth. They

reported R^2 's range from .68 to .93" (Schneider et al., 2008, p. 8). This study thus provides a measure of convergent validity for the NPS. "Research has found that customer satisfaction has a measurable impact on purchase intentions (Bolton and Drew 1991), customer retention (Mittal and Kamakura 2001), [and] reduced customer defections (Anderson 1996)" (Aksoy, 2008, p. 106), and therefore organizations are now collecting data on customer satisfaction to improve performance.

For this research, the Net Promoter Score (NPS) instrument, which is currently administered by the university system in this study, was used to measure the student satisfaction rate. This survey is administered to half of the student population once every eight weeks. Since participation varies from location to location, some fluctuation in the response rate (from 35% to 50% of the total active student population) is normal. The NPS results for each location are reported six times per year by the university. The September 2011 results were used in this study because they were the most recent NPS numbers reported by the university and were closest to the OLA intake period. Each location leader provided his or her site NPS result, which was later confirmed by a regional leader for accuracy.

Figure 5 shows a summary of the study's variables. These include site location and employee type.

Figure 5. Summary of Variables

Variable	Type	Definition	Measurement
Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA)			
	Independent	Values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership	The level of servant leadership at each location will be measured using the aggregate score derived from the 60-question survey (OLA), which uses a Likert scale.
Employee Type			
	Independent	Employee type (Faculty, staff, or administrator)	Measured by a single item
Net Promoter Score (NPS)			
	Dependent	Student satisfaction	The degree of student satisfaction at each location will be determined from an ex post facto evaluation of the latest NPS results reported by the university for each location.
Site Location			
	Control	Which location in the Southeast region	Measured by a single item

Data Analysis

As previously discussed in this study, the independent variable was servant leadership at the organizational level as measured by the OLA. Since this instrument uses a Likert-type scale, the data were interval-level data. The data analysis used

included descriptive statistics, Pearson's one-tailed correlations, a one-sample t-test and analyses of variance (ANOVAs). PASW statistical software was used to run the analyses.

Research Question and Hypotheses Relating to Servant Leadership Score

The first research question deals with the level of servant leadership in the university system under study: is the level of servant leadership significant? According to Laub (2011a), a significant level of servant leadership is attained when an organization receives a score of 4.0 or higher on the Organization Leadership Assessment. The literature suggests that servant leadership must transcend the leader and merge with the organization to create synergy (Beckner, 2004; Page & Wong, 2000). Sergiovanni (2007) suggests that a more accurate viewpoint of servant leadership "is to view the expressions of leadership as being practiced together" (p. 81). For this study, the results from the OLA instrument should yield the answer to the first hypothesis:

H_{I0} : There is no statistically significant level of servant leadership at the organizational level in the university system being researched.

H_{I_A} : There is a statistically significant level of servant leadership at the organizational level in the university system being researched.

This hypothesis can be mathematically noted using the following equation:

$$H_{I0}: \mu < 4.00 \quad (\bar{x} - \mu = 0)$$

$$H_{I_A}: \mu \geq 4.00 \quad (\bar{x} - \mu > 0)$$

To test the hypothesis, a one-sample *t*-test was run to compare individual-level OLA scores collected from surveys to the known OLA breakpoint score of ≥ 4 . Descriptive statistics were used to report the average OLA level at the individual level and average

NPS at each location. Individual-level survey data were also analyzed using ANOVAs to see whether the OLA mean or job satisfaction differed according to employee role.

Determining the mean which “is simply the sum of all the values in a group divided by the number of values in that group” was important for this analysis (Salkind, 2010, p. 42). The standard deviation (*SD*) of the sample which “represents the average amount of variability in a set of scores” was also calculated (Salkind, 2010, p. 69) to reveal “how much each score in a set of scores, on the average, varies from the mean” (Salkind, 2010, p. 74). The formula for the *SD* is:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2},$$

Afterwards, the “test statistic value” was calculated using a one-sample *t*-test (Salkind, 2010, p. 214). The formula is:

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}},$$

It is important to remember that when “interpreting a *t*-test, we use the more accurate *t* distribution rather than the generalized normal distribution” (Steinberg, 2011, p. 201). After calculating the *t* value, the result was compared to the critical value found on a *t* table to determine whether the null hypothesis was accepted or rejected. If the calculated *t* value is greater than the critical *t* value, then the null hypothesis can be rejected. If the risk level is set at .05, the degree of freedom *n* - 1, and a one-tailed test used (since the hypothesis is directional), the *t* critical value is “1.796” (Salkind, 2010, p. 356). If the calculated *t* value ends up in the critical area (above the *t* critical value of 1.796), the null hypothesis is rejected. This denotes that since the risk level was set at .05, the researcher can be 95% confident that the results were not due to chance. The

researcher can state that he is 95% confident that the actual mean of Servant Leadership at the organization level (the OLA sample mean) is greater than the hypothesized OLA level of 3.99. Therefore, the null hypothesis “is not the most attractive explanation for any observed differences” (Salkind, 2010, p. 355). The six sub-scales found on the OLA survey and the items that pertain to each sub-scale variable are shown in Appendix C.

Research Question and Hypotheses Relating to Student Satisfaction Score

The second question in this research asked about any correlation between levels of servant leadership and student satisfaction in this university system. Hypothesis 2 was stated as follows:

H2₀: There is no correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and student satisfaction rate.

H2_A: There is a positive correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and student satisfaction rate.

This hypothesis can be mathematically noted using the following equation:

$$H2_0: \rho \leq .80$$

$$H2_a: \rho > .80$$

This study used servant leadership as the independent variable and student satisfaction rate as the dependent variable. It was expected that there would be a direct correlation between the OLA level and the NPS result at each site. The higher the OLA level, the higher the NPS result would be.

The Net Promoter Score data currently collected by the university system was evaluated to determine whether any correlation existed between student satisfaction and the independent variable of servant leadership. Data from the 12 locations under study

were examined for significant relationship using Pearson's r correlation coefficient. The equation for the raw score equation for Pearson's r is as follows:

$$r = \frac{n\sum xy - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{n(\sum x^2) - (\sum x)^2} \sqrt{n(\sum y^2) - (\sum y)^2}}$$

One must remember that the correlation coefficient represents the “amount of variability that is shared between two variables and what they have in common” (Salkind, 2010, p. 116). The more variables have in common, the stronger the correlation between them. By squaring the correlation one can determine the strength of the correlation. The mathematical formula for determining the coefficient of determination is: r^2 . For this research, the r is expected to be greater than .80, which explains about 64% of the correlation. The other 36% is the coefficient of alienation, which is the “amount of unexplained variance” (Salkind, 2010, p. 130).

After determining if a correlation exists, one must determine if the correlation coefficient is statistically significant. This would normally require one to compute a t value for the significance of the correlation. The equation would be as follow:

$$t = r\sqrt{\frac{n-2}{1-r^2}}$$

Salkind (2010) states that, “some smart statisticians have computed the critical r value for different sample size (and likewise, degree of freedom) for one- and two-tailed test at different level of risks (.01 and .05)” (p. 287). The significance level “is the risk associated with not being 100% confident that what you observed in the experiment is due to the treatment or what was being tested” (Salkind, 2010, p. 203). Consequently, for this study it was necessary to compute a test statistic because the calculated r value was the test statistic (Salkind, 2010, p. 287). One can easily determine whether the

calculated r value is statistically significant by comparing it to critical r value found on a correlation coefficient table.

In addition, the degree of freedom (df) must be known. Since this research has 12 pairs (the number used to compute the correlation coefficient representing the sample size), the degree of freedom was -2 in the degree of freedom formula, therefore, $12 - 2 = 10$ degrees of freedom (Salkind, 2010). This is seen: $df = N - 2 = 12 - 2 = 10$.

Lastly, the critical value of the correlation coefficient was used to determine whether to reject or accept the null hypothesis. As stated earlier, a correlation coefficient table was consulted to compare the calculated value of the correlation coefficient with the critical value listed on the table and to tell if there was statistical significance.

For this research, the degrees of freedom were 10, the level of risk was .05, and a one-tailed test was used since the research was using a directional hypothesis (Salkind, 2010). According to the correlation coefficient table, the critical r value is .497, which says that if the calculated r value of the correlation coefficient is greater than this number, the correlation is significant. However, this result may be significant but not meaningful, since it only accounts for 25% of the variance (Salkind, 2010). How does one explain the other 75%?

Attaining significance is not enough, one must also have meaningfulness. This is why the null hypothesis states that ρ must be $\leq .80$ in order to accept the null hypothesis—this means anything greater than .80 which accounts for at least 64% percent of the tested variance. Therefore, obtaining a calculated value greater than the critical value of .80 will allow for rejection of the null hypothesis, and if the attained calculated value is below the critical value of .80, then one must accept the null hypothesis. If one

rejects the null hypothesis, one will be affirming that there is a positive correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and student satisfaction. This means that the alternate hypothesis is the “most attractive explanation for the consistencies observed” (Salkind, 2010, p. 362).

Because the *N* for the locations was small, the correlation was also run at the individual level. Location-level NPS scores were imputed for each individual who completed the OLA, and NPS was correlated with individual-level OLA scores using a Pearson’s one-tailed correlation..

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

The focus of this exploratory study was to increase understanding of the level of servant leadership at the university under research and to determine whether the level of servant leadership at the organizational level correlated with the student satisfaction rate (as stated by the Net Promoter Score). This research asked the following two questions:

Is there a significant level of servant leadership in this university system?

Is there a correlation between the levels of servant leadership and student satisfaction in this university system?

This chapter will present characteristics of the sample, provide results concerning the hypotheses about servant leadership as measured at the individual and organizational level, and ask whether there was any correlation between servant leadership and student satisfaction rate.

Characteristics of the Sample

An invitation was extended to all employees at 12 locations of the university under study to participate in this research. Seven locations were in the southeast United States and five were in the northcentral United States. The population that could potentially participate in this research consisted of 691 employees from which a sample was drawn by using an email invitation issued in the university's email system.

A total of 110 consent forms were received, out of which 102 participants completed the OLA survey. The sample represented employees from all levels of the organization (Table 3). Location leaders—the deans of academic affairs, campus presidents and campus directors—represented 6.9% of the sample. The managers—

deans, directors, and managers—represented 22.5% of the sample. Those who were non-managers—faculty and staff—represented 70.6% of the sample.

Table 3

Employee Level of Participants

	Frequency	Percent
Location leaders	7	6.9
Managers	23	22.5
Non-managers	72	70.6
Total	102	

According to Laub (2011a) and Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a study with a population range of between 650 and 700 people requires the response rate to be between 242 to 248 so that the sample yields a p value of .05. Since this study had 102 participants (see Table 4), this study did not achieve the required response rate to address or answer the research questions and does not allow the researcher to accept or reject the null hypotheses. Therefore, the findings in this study can only be attributed to the participants who responded and not to the university under study. Table 4 also shows the average NPS score was 49.00 ($SD = 14.38$).

Table 4

Location Population, Respondents, and NPS Scores

Location and number fulltime employees	Sample <i>N</i> (Number of OLA taken)	% responses	NPS score
1 (<i>N</i> = 128)	13	10%	32.78
2 (<i>N</i> = 171)	6	4%	30.70
3 (<i>N</i> = 40)	4	10%	42.89
4 (<i>N</i> = 8)	3	38%	33.80
5 (<i>N</i> = 107)	6	6%	44.22
6 (<i>N</i> = 20)	18	90%	55.71
7 (<i>N</i> = 25)	5	20%	42.65
8 (<i>N</i> = 30)	9	30%	44.44
9 (<i>N</i> = 112)	15	13%	68.00
10 (<i>N</i> = 15)	3	20%	73.56
11 (<i>N</i> = 16)	8	50%	66.34
12 (<i>N</i> = 19)	12	63%	52.94
Total (<i>N</i> = 691)	102	15%	49.00

Results**Servant Leadership at the Organizational Level**

The first hypothesis pertained to individuals' perceptions of servant leadership at the organizational level of the 12 locations under research.

H1A: There is a statistically significant level of servant leadership at the organizational level in the university system being researched.

Laub (2011a) suggests that only non-managers (the workforce) be used for scoring the organization's level of servant leadership. Laub noted that 1) Organizations tend to have a gap between the OLA score of the managers and the OLA scores of the

workforce (e.g., faculty and staff), and 2) that the greatest number of respondents to the OLA survey tend to come from the organization's workforce. According to Laub (2003), a score of 4.0 is required (is the breakpoint score) to categorize an organization as a servant leadership organization.

At the individual level, after taking out two unusually low OLA scores, the level 3 staff (faculty and staff) from the university under study had an average OLA score of 3.95 ($SD = .68$). A one-sample t-test was run to compare the sample average with the score of 4.0 required to categorize an organization as a servant leadership organization. The score did not differ significantly from 4.0 (see Table 5), suggesting that the Level 3 university staff rated the university on a par with the ratings for a servant organization.

Table 5

One-Sample T-Test for Level 3 Faculty and Staff OLA Scores

Test Value = 4.00						
	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Mean Difference	95% CI	
					Lower	Upper
OLA Score	-.658	69	.51	-.05	-.21	.11

Note: The t-test compares OLA Reports of Level 3 non-managers to a break-point of 4.0

When survey data were analyzed at the individual level, the OLA mean for Level 2 managers was lower than the OLA mean yielded for the other groups (Table 6), $F(2, 97) = 3.79, p = .026$. The first servant leadership characteristic that lowered the OLA

mean for managers was shares leadership, $M = 3.32$ ($SD = .86$) compared to a mean of 3.95 ($SD = .87$) for leaders, and 3.86 ($SD = .82$) for faculty and staff, $F(2, 97) = 3.80, p = .03$. The second servant leadership characteristic lowering the OLA mean for Level 2 leaders was displays authenticity, $M = 3.41$ ($SD = .84$) compared to a mean of 4.10 ($SD = .66$) for leaders, and 3.90 ($SD = .75$) for faculty and staff, $F(2, 97) = 4.07, p = .02$.

Table 6

OLA and Job Satisfaction Scores, by Employee Level

Role	OLA			Job Satisfaction		
	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Level 1 Leaders	7	4.07 ^a	.64	7	4.17	.56
Level 2 Managers	23	3.51 ^b	.73	22	4.19	.61
Level 3 Non-managers	70	3.95 ^a	.68	72	4.26	.66
Total	100	3.86	.71	101	4.24	.64

Note: For OLA and job satisfaction, 3 = undecided, 4 = agree. Means marked ^a are higher than mean marked ^b in Tukey post-hoc contrasts.

Table 6 also shows that employees at all levels had a high job satisfaction score on the OLA instrument, with a mean of 4.24. There was no significant difference by employee level, $F(2, 98) = 0.13, p = .88$.

Correlation of OLA and NPS

The second hypothesis dealt with the correlation between servant leadership (as measured by the OLA) and the university student satisfaction rate (as measured by the NPS). The second hypothesis stated the following:

H2_A: There is a positive correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and student satisfaction rate.

In this study, servant leadership was used as the independent variable and student satisfaction rate was used as the dependent variable. It was expected that there would be a direct correlation between the OLA level and the NPS result at each of the sites tested. The higher the OLA level, the higher the NPS results would be.

Once the September 2011 NPS data was received (for each location under study), and the OLA score determined for each location, the two variables were examined for significant relationship using a Pearson's r one-tailed correlation coefficient. When the OLA data were averaged by location and correlated with the location NPS data, the correlation was not significant, $r(12) = 0.330, p = .15$. The coefficient of determination r^2 was 10.8%, showing that little of the NPS variation can be explained by the relationship between the NPS and OLA. Therefore, since $t < tc$ we cannot reject the null hypothesis that there was no association of servant leadership at the organizational level and student satisfaction rate. Because the N for the locations was small, the correlation was also run at the individual level. Location-level NPS scores were imputed for each individual at the location and correlated with individual OLA scores. However, this correlation was also not significant, $r(100) = .03, p = .38$.

Chapter Summary

This quantitative study was designed to measure the level of servant leadership at the organizational level of 12 organizations within the university system being studied. It was also designed to examine whether a relationship existed between the level of servant leadership and student satisfaction rate at these 12 locations.

The first hypothesis investigated the level of servant leadership and found a statistically significant level of servant leadership at the organizational level in the university system being researched, as reported by level 3 non-managers. The second hypothesis investigated the correlation between servant leadership and student satisfaction and found no correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and student satisfaction rate.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study focused on servant leadership at an organizational level. It examined the level of servant leadership at a university system in the United States—focusing at the faculty and staff level which is the level where employees and students are most engaged—and explored whether any relationship existed between the level of servant leadership and student satisfaction rate. The results found in Chapter Four of this study helped the researcher provide summaries and conclusions and extend recommendations for future investigations.

Research Findings

Level of Servant Leadership

The results from the sample measuring the level of servant leadership at the organizational level yielded a 3.95 OLA score, which did not differ significantly from the 4.0 score required to be considered a servant organization (Laub, 2003). Therefore, hypothesis number one $H1_A$ was confirmed.

However, the study found areas of concerns with middle managers. Among Level 2 managers (those who are managers and operate as mid-level leaders), their perceptions of servant leadership in the organization yielded a lower OLA mean than for any other group. This finding was a surprise to the researcher because this group is composed of supervisors who oversee faculty and staff. In the organization they tend to be perceived as leaders who are preparing for the next level. These individuals are the in-between leaders, those managers who report to top management but yet have hands-on supervisory responsibility over faculty and staff.

The university under study operates in over 95 locations throughout the United States. The institution is regionally accredited and has a large number of faculty, staff, and administrators. The large number of employees and locations denotes complexity, and to compensate, the university accentuates rigidity through its organizational structure, procedures, and guidelines. This intricacy may make it difficult for the university to institutionalize a servant leadership culture across all levels. This inelasticity may have prevented Level 2 leaders from perceiving a servant-leadership culture.

In particular, the lower OLA mean for this group than for other groups can be attributed to two specific areas of servant leadership characteristics measured by the OLA instrument, on which this group had relatively lower scores. The first was the shares leadership characteristic, which encompasses items involving sharing vision, sharing power, and sharing status. The second characteristic lowering the OLA mean for the Level 2 leaders was displays authenticity, which includes items relating to the organization's being open and accountable, willing to learn, and showing honesty and integrity.

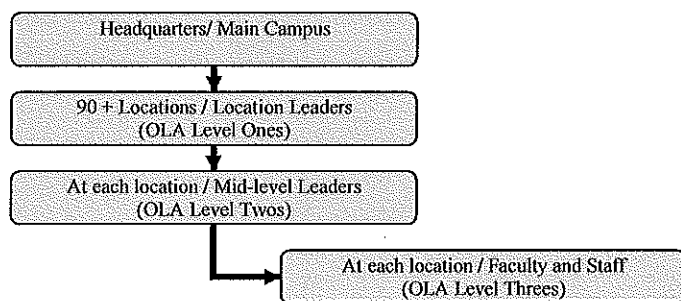
Shares leadership. As noted above, the large number of university employees and the large number of locations may be indirectly influencing the Level 2 leaders, and promoting a lower score in the shares leadership characteristic. One of the items scored by the OLA instrument under the shares leadership characteristic is shared power. Shared power suggests that the organization uses “persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force” (Laub, 2011a). It indicates that the organization empowers its employees to participate in the decision-making process. The fact that the mid-level leaders scored these items lower than the other two groups did suggests that they may

perceive that the organization does not promote the input of mid-level managers but forces decisions downward.

Second, because of the large number of locations throughout the United States the university may need to centralize and leverage resources, such that local Level 2 leaders may become implementers of decisions but not influencers of decisions. Greenleaf (2002) describes this as an obstacle for large organizations, which tend to believe that “one-person leadership” is the best model for them (p. 124). The university’s current communication channels may not be capturing the feedback of those in Level 2 leadership, and therefore, their opinions may not be included in the decision-making process, such that Level 2 leaders may feel left out and as if they are not sharing the power in the organization.

Displays authenticity. The “displays authenticity” servant leadership characteristic also lowered the OLA mean for Level 2 leaders. After studying the university under research and observing its interactions between all group levels, the investigator suggests the following reasons (or drivers) for the low score on this leadership characteristic among the Level 2 leaders. First, servant leadership organizations require that their leaders be authentic. Being authentic is understood to mean that leaders will “admit mistakes openly” and “discuss what went well during the week and what needs to change” (McGee-Copper & Trammell, 2002, p. 150). The university under research is still evolving in the area of authenticity, not because the leaders aren’t purposely being authentic and open, but instead, the current topdown organization model (Figure 6) may be driving some of this perceived lack of authenticity.

Figure 6. Illustration of a Top-Down Communication Model



On occasion, because of the size of the organization (90-plus locations), decisions are handed down and kept sealed from Level 2 leaders. This absence of information at times could be perceived as lacking authenticity, but in actuality, it may be that it is the size of the organization and the complexity involved in having many locations that prevent excellent communication flow. Greenleaf (2002) acknowledged this complexity when stating that “the power structure of any large institution is a complex network of forces, both seen and unseen” (p. 115). The lack of perceived authenticity among the organizations under research particularly for Level 2 leaders could perhaps be attributed to the size of the organization and not necessarily to lack of leadership authenticity.

Even when the organization makes every effort to maintain a more authentic environment across all locations, location leaders are still responsible for creating an environment of authenticity at their locations. However, at times these leaders cannot be open because the message cannot be communicated or made public. Therefore, the leaders are unable to communicate messages that would help portray trust and authenticity. To achieve a greater perception of authenticity across the organization, Level 1 leaders might mentor and devote time to Level 2 leaders, thus building a more solid working relationship between them. Working together is what servant leadership is

about, and having Level 1 leaders devote time to Level 2 leaders is likely to improve trust and increase opportunities to build on authenticity. This suggestion is affirmed by Sergiovanni (2007) when he comments that “a more realistic perspective is to view the expression of leadership as being practiced together” (p. 81).

Correlation between Servant Leadership and Student Satisfaction

Although the anticipated outcome of this research was to find a direct correlation between the OLA level and the NPS result, the findings showed no correlation between servant leadership at the organizational level and student satisfaction rate. Therefore, the null hypothesis $H2_0$ was confirmed. One explanation could be that student satisfaction was related to something other than servant leadership. Such things as class schedule, course work, financial aid, faculty engagement, and sense of community may all have played a more important role at influencing student satisfaction. According to Horstmanshof and Zimitat (2007), students who perceived their course work as valuable to their future tended to be more intrinsically motivated. This motivation—and not the level of servant leadership—may influence student satisfaction. Students may not necessarily be evaluating the level of service provided by the professor or the level of engagement as displayed through servant leadership characteristics; instead, they may be evaluating how well their courses prepared them for their future.

Likewise, in a study of K-12 education, Leithwood et al. (2004) suggested that “affective bonds between students and teachers associated with a sense of community are crucial in engaging and motivating students to learn” (p. 53). At the university at which this study was conducted, the bond between teachers and students may also have influenced student satisfaction more strongly than the level of servant leadership did.

Job Satisfaction Score

Another encouraging finding highlighted in this study dealt with job satisfaction. Employees at all levels reported a high job satisfaction score on the OLA instrument, which showed that employees felt good about working for the university. The findings may speak to the way employees felt that their work helps the organization succeed or may reflect that employees are happy and enjoy being allowed to be creative (Laub, 2011a).

In general, the high job satisfaction score speaks to the organization's effectiveness with its employees, particularly in allowing them to be creative. Marx (2006) also commented that "to be effective, schools and colleges need to be interdependent knowledge organizations" (p. 32). This happens when organizations engage employees at a higher level, as instruments and producers of knowledge. The greater the ability of an organization to tap into the creative power and problem-solving skills of their employees, the more effective the organization will be in confronting challenges. Senge (2006) affirms this principle when he stated "this then, is the basic meaning of a 'learning organization'—an organization that is continually expanding its capacity to create its future" (p. 14).

Another area where the university has excelled in engaging its employees is with its vision statement and value proposition. It is not just a vision statement or a set of values that engage employees, they need to be words that are alive and lived each day by everyone in the organization. Employees are clear about where the organization is heading. They understand the purpose of the institution and the role they play within the organization. Senge (2006) affirms this shared vision when he states, "when there is a

genuine vision (as opposed to the all-too-familiar ‘vision statement’), people excel and learn, not because they are told to, but because they want to” (p. 9).

Implications of the Study

Supplementary training for leaders on the topic of servant leadership ideologies may help them embrace servant-leader attitudes and help reduce differences among the levels. Our society tends to promote individualism and reward hierarchical organizational structures; training on servant leadership would compensate for these effects. Servant leaders understand that there is value in working as a team (McGee-Cooper, 2003). They comprehend that team members offer wisdom that benefits the long-term goals of the organization in a much greater way than the traditional organizational models do.

Moreover, training on the topic of servant leadership ideologies could assist Level 2 leaders with their servant attitudes, and help the university under study promote a more authentic environment. Such training should help Level 2 leaders more effectively manage those complexities that come from working in a larger organization.

The training must incorporate some type of assessment, one that measures the influence the training is having on Level 2 leaders. As stated earlier, some Level 2 leaders perceive the environment to be lacking in trust and authenticity. The assessment ought to measure the progress these leaders are making towards understanding and incorporating those servant-leadership components.

Limitations

The current study had some limitations. Since the study had 102 participants, out of which 70.6% were Level 3 non-manager faculty and staff, the empirical support for generalizing some of the findings related to Level 1 and Level 2 leaders was limited.

Also, one month after the OLA survey intake phase was initiated, the researcher had to change some of the participating locations due to an unexpected situation. These new locations were given access to the OLA instrument for about one month before closing the data intake phase, while the other locations had two months to promote and take the OLA survey. This likely prevented the new locations from achieving a larger number of participants.

The university under study has also been established for many years and has developed well-founded guidelines pertaining to its representation and public image. At times, the investigator felt limited by these guidelines. Every so often, the researcher had to rephrase comments to conceal the identity of the organization under study. This was not due to some negative finding that would tarnish the institution, but instead, it was due to the current representation guidelines used by the institution.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research should use a larger dataset to examine perceptions of servant leadership among Level 1 and Level 2 leaders and reasons for disparities in perceptions of servant leadership among the different levels. Having a larger dataset could also help determine whether an organization's size and complexity affects its adoption of a servant leadership model.

Additionally, future research could investigate the relationship between servant leadership and employee commitment or engagement. Engaging employees at a deeper level (with a higher purpose) needs to be a fundamental characteristic of all learning organizations (Senge, 2006). Such research could help educational institutions determine the level of influence servant leaders and servant ideologies have over organization culture and outcomes. The new study could also investigate the level of trust created by active listening. Active listening is vital to servant leadership because “true listening builds strength in other people” (Greenleaf, 2002, p. 31). Another area for further study could be measuring how much true and active listening servant leaders do, and how it correlates to employee engagement or employee satisfaction.

Summary

This study expanded on the topic of servant leadership, providing empirical evidence that perceptions of servant leadership in an organization vary by employee level. McGee-Cooper and Trammell (2002) suggest that “servant-leadership is one model that can help turn traditional notions of leadership and organizational structure upside down” (p. 142). Members of these organizations are often contributors in the decision process. Their voices are heard, and their inputs are taken into consideration when decisions are made. This creates value and increases buy-in for these employees. Their leaders are active listeners too, they are individuals who focus on hearing what these employees have to say. This allows for the promotion of a community mindset, where everyone feels important and appreciated (Braye, 2002). Yet in large organizations, it may be a challenge to implement servant-leadership across all employee levels. However, it is important to do so. As Covey (1998) suggests, “If you really want

to get servant leadership, then you've got to have institutionalization of the principles at the organizational level” (p. xvii).

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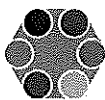
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Permission letter to use the OLA Instrument

To: Joshua Padron



OLAgroup

From: Jim Laub, OLAgroup

Date: 7-18-11

Re: Permission to use the OLA in your research

With this letter I give permission for Joshua Padron to use the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument for the sole purpose of his dissertation research. With this permission we agree to the following:

OLAgroup will provide the use of the OLA instrument online for the purpose of this specific study and will provide all information needed for the successful implementation of the OLA. OLAgroup will provide the raw dataset once all data has been collected in the www.olagroup.com site. This raw data will be provided in an Excel format. OLAgroup can also provide the OLA reports at an additional cost of \$50/report if desired.

Mr. Padron agrees to use the OLA only for the purpose of this specific dissertation study. He agrees to provide necessary information and permission to post the results of his study on the www.olagroup.com site once the study is complete. He agrees to provide a digital copy of the completed dissertation. It is agreed that a payment will be made to OLAgroup of \$100/organization set up for this study, with a minimum payment of \$300 for the use of the OLA.

I wish you well with your study and trust that it will bring new learning for the field of servant leadership.

APPENDIX B: Approval Letter from University

July 20, 2011

Joshua Padron
23 [REDACTED] Avenue
Mi [REDACTED] FL 33 [REDACTED]

Dear Mr. Padron:

This letter is in response to your request to collect data at [REDACTED] University for your doctoral research. Your request has been reviewed and has been approved. Such permission is expressly conditioned upon your adherence at all times to the attached [REDACTED] Student Data Use Policy Statement.

I look forward to hearing about the results of your research.

Sincerely,


[REDACTED] Ed.D.
Associate Provost

APPENDIX C: Participant Consent Form

HIGHER EDUCATION LEADERSHIP: SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND THE EFFECTS ON STUDENT SATISFACTION

I have been asked to participate in a research study to determine the level of servant leadership at the university, and to identify if any correlation exists between the level of servant leadership and the level of student satisfaction. This research study is to fulfill the degree requirement of Doctor of Education at Argosy University.

I was asked to be a possible participant because I work as a Full-time/Part-time employee (Faculty/Staff/Administrator) at the university. A total of 532 employees have been asked to participate in this study. The purpose of this study is to determine the level of servant leadership at the university, and to identify if any correlation exists between the level of servant leadership and the level of student satisfaction. For this study an online Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument will be used to measure the level of servant leadership across the university system. The Net Promoter Score (NPS) will be used to measure the student satisfaction across the university system. The OLA and NPS are important to this study because it is hoped that there exists a correlation between the level of servant leadership and the level of student satisfaction within the organization.

If I agree to be in this study, I will be asked to take part of the OLA survey online. My participation will take approximately 15 to 20 minutes total, and will be strictly voluntary. The information/data I provide for this research will be treated confidentially, and all raw data will be kept in a secure file by the researcher. Results of the research will be reported as aggregate summary data only, and no individually identifiable information will be presented.

I have the right to review the results of the research if I wish to do so. A copy of the results may be obtained by contacting the researcher at the address below. There will be no direct or immediate personal benefits from my participation in this research. The results of the research may contribute to finding core leadership behaviors and values that increase NPS results at the university.

I understand that my participation is strictly voluntary. My decision regarding my participation will not affect my current or future relations with Argosy University or the university under study. If I decide to participate, I am free to refuse to answer any of the questions that may make me uncomfortable. I can withdraw at any time without my relations with the university, job, benefits, etc., being affected. I can contact Joshua Padron, at 954-499- [REDACTED] with any questions about this study.

I understand that this research study has been reviewed and Certified by the Institutional Review Board, Argosy University, Sarasota, Florida. For research-related problems or questions regarding participants' rights, I can contact the Institutional Board at:

Argosy University, Sarasota
5250 17th Street
Sarasota, FL. 34235
Phone: 1.941.379.0404, Toll Free: 1.800.331.5995. Fax: 1.941.371.8910.

I have read and understand the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this consent form. By signing this document, I consent to participate in the study.

Name of Participant (printed) _____

Signature of participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Principal Investigator: _____

Date: _____

Joshua Padron
Researcher
954-499- [REDACTED]

Fax you signed consent form pages 1 and 2 (signed and dated) to 954-499- [REDACTED]. Once your consent form is received, you will receive via your university email address an online link to the OLA survey, an ID, and a Password that will allow you to access the survey. If you have any questions, do not hesitate to contact the researcher.

APPENDIX D: First Email to Employees Who Submitted Their Consent Forms

Dear University Co-Worker,

We desire to know what you think about our organization and leadership. To get your honest and candid feedback, we need you to complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) on-line. It will only take 15 minutes of your time but will provide us all with valuable insights that will help us to improve how we work together. Please know that the answers you provide are completely confidential and anonymous. We will only be receiving back the averaged responses of the total group taking the assessment. Thank you for completing this as quickly and thoroughly as possible.

TO TAKE THE ASSESSMENT

Go to: <http://www.olagroup.com> and click "Take the OLA" on the upper right of the screen.

Type in **1581** as the organizational code

Type in **██████** as the pin

Choose the "Standard Version" of the OLA survey

Choose the "English" language

Click "Start"

Read the brief Introduction

Select your Present Role/Position in the organization

Click "Take the OLA"

Thank you again for taking time out of your busy work day to respond. I believe that the feedback from this assessment will help our organization improve for the benefit of us all.

Regards,

Joshua Padron

APPENDIX E: Second Email Reminding Employees to Take the OLA

Dear Fellow University Employee,

The OLA Survey is about to close and your feedback has not been received.

We desire to know what you think about our organization and leadership. To get your honest and candid feedback, we need you to complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) on-line. **It will only take 15 minutes** of your time but will provide us all with valuable insights that will help us to improve how we work together. Please know that the answers you provide are completely confidential and anonymous. We will only be receiving back the averaged responses of the total group taking the assessment. Thank you for completing this as quickly and thoroughly as possible.

TO TAKE THE ASSESSMENT

Go to: <http://www.olagroup.com> and click "Take the OLA" on the upper right of the screen.

Type in **1581** as the organizational code

Type in XXXXXX as the pin

Choose the "Standard Version" of the OLA survey

Choose the "English" language

Click "Start"

Read the brief Introduction

Select your Present Role/Position in the organization

Click "Take the OLA"

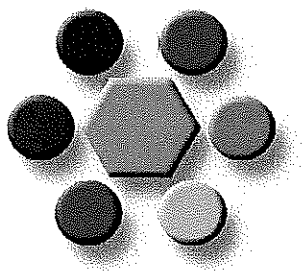
Thank you again for taking time out of your busy work day to respond. I believe that the feedback from this assessment will help our organization improve for the benefit of us all. Also, your answers will provide data for my Ed.D. dissertation research.

Please complete the online OLA Survey by Friday, September 30, 2011.

Thanks so much!

Joshua Padron

APPENDIX F: The OLA Instrument



4243 North Sherry Drive
Marion, IN 46952
OLA@OLAgroup.com
(765) 664-0174

Organizational Leadership Assessment

General Instructions

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

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

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

IMPORTANT please complete the following

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

Organization (or Organizational Unit) Name: _____

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

- 1 = Top Leadership (top level of leadership)
- 2 = Management (supervisor, manager)
- 3 = Workforce (staff, member, worker)

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

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

Section 1

In this section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to the entire organization (or organizational unit) including workers, managers/supervisors and top leadership.

In general, people within this organization

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

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

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

Section 2

In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to the leadership of the organization (or organizational unit) including managers/supervisors and top leadership

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

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

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

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

Section 3

In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it is true about you personally and your role in the organization (or organizational unit).

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

Scoring key

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| 1. Values people | 1, 4, 9, 15, 19, 52, 54, 55, 57, 63 |
| 2. Develops people | 20, 31, 37, 40, 42, 44, 46, 50, 59 |
| 3. Builds community | 7, 8, 12, 13, 16, 18, 21, 25, 38, 47 |
| 4. Displays authenticity | 3, 6, 10, 11, 23, 28, 32, 33, 35, 43, 51, 61 |
| 5. Provides leadership | 2, 5, 14, 22, 27, 30, 36, 45, 49 |
| 6. Shares leadership | 17, 24, 26, 29, 34, 39, 41, 48, 53, 65 |