TEACHERS’ PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPORTANCE OF IDENTIFIED SERVANT LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS FOR HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN TWO DIVERSE COMMUNITIES

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Keywords: Servant Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Leadership
The purpose of this study was to determine whether there are differences in the perceptions of the importance of identified servant leadership characteristics for high school principals held by teachers in schools located in two diverse communities. Servant leadership is a practical philosophy supporting people who serve first in their life and work (Frick, 2004, p. 8). Like other leadership philosophies, the practice of servant leadership may be influenced by variables that are particular to the environment in which it is employed (Howard, 2005; Kelly & Williamson, 2006; Lambert, 2004).

This research is a case study involving two purposively chosen communities. Participants in the study were teachers from high schools in two diverse communities, one located in urban coastal Virginia and the other located in rural southwestern Virginia. A similar number of participants were obtained from the two communities to assure appropriate representation for data analysis.

A 48-item questionnaire using a Likert-type scale was used as the research instrument. The questionnaire was constructed using the servant leadership characteristics and behaviors identified by Abel (2000). The questionnaire was offered to all teachers in both communities.

A confirmatory factor analysis was used to group the 48 items into 12 factors. The data secured were compiled and analyzed to determine differences in teachers’ perceptions of the importance of identified characteristics of servant leadership in
principals in the two communities. While all the identified characteristics were found to be important, the analysis indicated statistically significant (p< .01) differences did exist for the factor represented the servant leadership characteristics of building community, communicating vision, and empowering people. For this factor, the population from the urban community had a higher mean score (3.78 compared to 3.49) and smaller standard deviation (.29 compared to .49) than the population from the rural community.

The implications of the study are that current school leaders might be able to better manage and lead their school communities if they adapted their practice of servant leadership to the particular characteristics of their communities. Similarly, principal preparation programs might incorporate the findings into their curricula.
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to two of the strongest women I know. My wife, Tammy S. Brown; is a teacher at Macy McClaugherty Elementary School in Giles County. She has sacrificed for me as I have progressed from teacher, to assistant principal, to principal and now to securing this doctoral degree. I could not have made this journey without her being by my side.

My mother, Joyce G. Griffith; is a recently retired school bus driver of 26 years from the coal fields of Wyoming County, West Virginia. She knew the answer to breaking the vicious life cycle of working in the coal mines of southern West Virginia was a higher education. Growing up, she never let me know that raising a child as a single parent was a difficult task.
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

In today’s world there is a need for effective leaders in schools. Educational leaders are expected to identify and address barriers such as the ethnic and economic inequalities that exist in urban (Kozol, 2005) and rural (Barley & Beesley, 2007) school systems. To be effective, educational leaders would benefit from better preparation to deal with the specific and particular challenges that exist in these environments. Simply stated, school leadership is important (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005).

There is some evidence suggesting that leaders think and perform differently in urban and rural settings (Barley & Beesley, 2007). If this is the case, it seems logical to conclude that aspiring principals and superintendents could benefit from at least a conceptual working knowledge of the distinct differences found in those environments. It is not known whether the differences that might exist between school systems are a function of urban versus rural environments; or an issue of school size (Henkin, 1996). The differences might also be a result of economics (Vanderhaar et al., 2006), or associated with ethnic composition (Shields et al., 2002). If there are also differences in what stakeholders expect in their high school leaders in these various settings, then it would seem that principals should be prepared to deal with these expectations and the situations that exist in those schools. Educational leadership faculties might wish to include components in their preparation programs to assure consideration is given to the uniqueness of each school environment (Stephen, 2007).
Researchers and theorists hold various views of leadership. These views vary from Covey’s concept of “seek first to understand and then to be understood” (Covey, 1989, p. 236) to Blanchard’s *One Minute Manager* ideas (Blanchard & Sargent, 1984) to Collins’ *Level 5 leader* (Collins, 2005). Margaret Wheatley spoke of “Invisible fields that shape behavior” in *Leadership and the New Science* (Wheatley, 1994, p. 49). There are many styles or theories of leadership including transformational, transitional, authoritarian, democratic or participatory, and transactional leadership.

Another style of leadership is *servant leadership* (Greenleaf, 1970). This style is based on the concept of serving others first. The characteristics that define servant leadership are the basis for this study.

The hypothesis offered in this study is that there are differences in teachers’ perceptions of the importance of servant leadership characteristics for high school principals that may vary depending on the characteristics of the school (Hill, 2008). Glass (2004) concluded that women and minority groups made up a small percentage of the nation’s superintendents, however they were more often found in larger, more urban school districts. With that finding in mind, it is reasonable to ask if there might be salient expectations of school leaders in those settings that set them apart from each other, lending to this disparity. An approach to examining the differences that might exist in teachers’ views of servant leadership at the high school level is to compare the perceptions of teachers from different schools through the use of a case study. This case study examines the perceptions of the importance of servant leadership characteristics held by two populations of high school teachers from two diverse communities in order to explore this hypothesis.
Significance of the Study

The problem of preparing school leaders for the differences that might exist in diverse communities is important. Kozol (2005) suggested that urban school principals are inadequately prepared to lead their schools. If this is the case, then one implication of Kozol’s research could be that urban principals need specialized knowledge and skills to lead their schools. Additionally, one would assume there are similar needs for principals leading schools in rural environments (Barley & Beesley, 2007). The focus of this study was to look specifically at the servant leadership characteristics that teachers from two different school settings believe are important.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was three-fold:

(1) To determine whether there are differences in the perceptions of the importance of identified servant leadership characteristics for high school principals held by teachers in two diverse school communities;

(2) To inform practicing principals and other school leaders of the servant leadership characteristics that are perceived as valuable by teachers in rural and urban schools so they might use those findings to lead more effectively;

(3) To develop recommendations as to how any identified differences might suggest changes in principal preparation programs in order to better prepare school leaders for the unique environments in which they will serve.
Research Question

Are there statistically significant differences in the perceptions of the importance of servant leadership characteristics for high school principals held by teachers in two diverse school communities?

Definitions of Terms

Servant Leadership - Servant leadership is a practical philosophy supporting people who serve first in their life and work. As a way of expanding that service to individuals and institutions, they choose to lead, whether in a formal position or not. In either capacity, they encourage collaboration, trust, foresight, listening, and the ethical use of power (Frick, 2004, p. 8).

Stakeholders - For the purpose of this study the stakeholders are defined to be high school teachers.

Delphi Model - The Delphi method is a systematic, interactive forecasting method which relies on a panel of independent experts. The carefully selected experts answer questionnaires in two or more rounds. After each round, a facilitator provides an anonymous summary of the experts’ forecasts from the previous round as well as the reasons they provided for their judgments. Thus, participants are encouraged to revise their earlier answers in light of the replies of other members of the group. It is believed that during this process the range of the answers will decrease and the group will converge towards the “correct” answer (Cotton & Covert, 2007).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis - A confirmatory factor analysis is used to explore the underlying variance of a set of correlation coefficients and is useful for exploring and
verifying patterns in a set of data (Gorsuch, 1983). This type of analysis is used to reduce the number of items into factors for better and more manageable analyses.

**Delimitations**

The researcher chose to conduct this case study involving three high schools within the Commonwealth of Virginia. This study was limited to those teachers willing to participate and with Internet access. Stakeholders were limited to high school teachers.

**Limitations**

The study was designed to investigate the concept of servant leadership and how teachers view the importance of characteristics and behaviors associated with servant leadership in their particular school communities. This research is limited by the small number of participants (31 respondents from the rural community and 32 respondents from the urban community). Additionally, these three schools are governed by the same standards of accreditation, statutes, regulations, which might have the potential to influence the participants. This research may not be viewed as generalizable across the United States due to the use of schools within Virginia and because of its exploratory nature.

**Organization of the Study**

The study is organized as a traditional five chapter dissertation. Chapter I includes these sections: the introduction to the study, the statement of the research problem, the significance of the study, the purpose of the study, the research question, definitions of terms used in the study, delimitations and limitations of the study, the organization of study, and a chapter summary. Chapter II contains the review of literature and concludes with a summary of the chapter. Subheadings within chapter II include the structure of the
review of selected literature, the literature search methodology, an exploration of the history of servant leadership, a review of recent commentary and empirical literature influencing educational leadership theory and practice, an analysis of selected empirical studies of servant leadership and school leadership and a summary of the chapter.

Chapter III includes an introduction and an overview of the study, a description of the two school communities, and the participants, the selection of participants, the development and design of the research instrument, statements of reliability and validity, and the data collection process. There is a discussion the Chi-square analysis and a chapter summary. Chapter IV contains an overview of the study, a discussion on the independent items versus factors, the rationale for the use of factor analysis and a .400 level for item selection, the skewness of data, the use of Alpha = .01, Eigenvalues, the presentation of the data, the use of ANOVAs with Likert-type data, the findings of significance and an overview of the factors. There is an in-depth discussion on factors 10, 11 and 12 followed by a chapter summary. Chapter V provides an overview of the study and a discussion of the findings. There is also a discussion on the influence of factor 1, conclusions, implications for practice, recommendations for further research, and the author’s reflections on the study.

Chapter Summary

Chapter I introduced the topic of servant leadership in the scope of research in differing environments. The research question was identified to be are there statistically significant difference in the perceptions of the importance of servant leadership characteristics for high school principals held by teachers in two diverse school
communities. Terms were defined, limitations and delimitations were discussed, and the organization of the study was presented.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Structure of the Review of Selected Literature

The purpose of the literature review was to identify and analyze the extant literature related to the concept of servant leadership and how it is pertinent to school leadership. The literature review is organized into three sections. Section I focuses on the work of Robert K. Greenleaf (1970), who originated the idea of servant leadership and first used the term in his writings. Section II is a review of recent commentary and empirical literature influencing educational leadership theory and practice over the last 35 years and an examination of how that body of literature is related to servant leadership. Section III is an analysis of selected empirical studies of servant leadership and school leadership (Parolini, 2007; Washington, 2007). The selected literature was chosen for discussion based on the significance of the literature to school leaders’ practice (Howard, 2005; Lambert, 2004; Reed et al., 1997; Taylor et al., 2007), the prominence of authors in the field (Blanchard, 1984; Block, 1987; Collins, 2001; Covey, 1989; Fullan, 1997; Senge, 1994; Sergiovanni, 2005; Wheatley, 1994), and to provide historical context (Greenleaf, 1977; Frick, 2004). Research dealing with servant leadership involving the comparison of two different communities was difficult to locate. Therefore, this exploratory study attempts to address the perceived gap in the literature.

Search Methodology

Several search engines and databases were used to identify literature on servant leadership, including: ERIC, PsycINFO, EdResearch, Dissertation Abstracts Online, and International Theses and Dissertations. Searches were conducted from March, 2008
through January, 2009. Keywords for these searches included: Leadership, School Leadership, School Leaders, Servant Leadership, Transformational Leadership, and the names of various authors recommended by the dissertation committee and found in the literature.

Section I
Exploring the History of Servant Leadership

Due to the focus of the research being servant leadership, the decision was made to start the literature review with a discussion of Robert K. Greenleaf. Greenleaf is viewed by many (Collins, 2001; Frick, 2004; Fullan, 1997) as the originator of servant leadership. Greenleaf’s background and influences; and his formative experiences leading to his groundbreaking work on servant leadership are discussed.

Robert Greenleaf’s father, George, was a man of intense interest in politics, a man of many skills and various jobs, and a man who chose to include his son in his ventures in their home town of Terra Haute, Indiana. George Greenleaf felt that Robert did not need to be sheltered from society as he was growing up. George was viewed by some as being an overbearing husband to Robert’s mother. Some individuals question if these interactions between his parents may have been the catalyst for Robert’s thinking about his own interactions with others and may have eventually led to his ideas about servant leadership (Frick, 2004).

A 1926 graduate of Carleton College, Robert Greenleaf had a long career with communication giant American Telephone and Telegraph (AT & T) ending his career as the head of management research in 1964. Greenleaf worked his way through various jobs in both blue and white collar positions. He eventually would be viewed as the savior
of the company and as having placed AT&T atop the world of communications and the art of managing employees. After leaving AT & T Greenleaf founded the Center for Applied Ethics in 1964 and started a new career introducing his servant leadership theory to the leaders of America’s universities, corporations, and foundations (Frick, 2004).

Greenleaf’s wife, Esther was with him in Arizona in 1968 at a 10-day seminar at Prescott College in Prescott, Arizona. This series of seminars did not go well because the Prescott faculty was not in support of student seminars and exerted influence to sabotage the project. Robert did not take this experience well. He told Esther that the seminars were a total failure (Frick, 2004). He could not communicate to young people the value of their opportunity to lead. Consequently, he decided that he should just start to write and let his thoughts guide the writing where it needed to go.

For Greenleaf, reflection was not as much an active process of thinking about details of an issue as it was a mental emptying to make space for his whole self to contribute (Frick, 2004, p.15). As Greenleaf sat down to write his thoughts he recalled a book he had read titled *Journey to the East*, written by Hermann Hesse. The book is about Leo, a menial servant accompanying a group seeking a mystic group of nomads (Greenleaf, 1970). Leo was at the seekers’ beck-and-call as they relied on him for things they took for granted. The seekers struggled to continue their journey when Leo disappeared. Their journey eventually ended when they found the mystic order they had been seeking and discovered to their surprise that Leo was the order’s leader. At this point in his reflection Greenleaf coined a two-word phrase to describe people who lead by serving: servant-leader (Frick, 2004).
The essay that Greenleaf authored eventually became *The Servant as Leader* (1970). *The Servant as Leader* and Greenleaf’s other works led to his identification of certain characteristics in the practice of servant leadership. These characteristics are listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community (Greenleaf, 1970). These characteristics are the basis of this study.

Greenleaf’s concept of the servant leader has influenced numerous writers in the field of leadership (Collins, 2001; Senge, 1994; Sergiovanni, 2005) and has found wide acceptance in the field of school leadership (Frick, 2004; Kasch, 1995; Kelley, 2006). Whether intentional or coincidental, Greenleaf’s characteristics of servant leadership permeate much of the literature written about school leadership over the last 35 years (Hamilton, 2005). The membership of the Advisory Board to the International Journal of Servant Leadership at Gonzaga University includes Warren Bennis, Ken Blanchard, Peter Block, Stephen Covey, Max DePree, Ronald Heifetz, Jim Kouzes, Barry Posner, Peter Senge, and Margaret Wheatley. The works they have authored are widely studied in principal preparation programs, (Hess & Kelly, 2005).

Section II

Recent Commentary and Empirical Literature Influencing Educational Leadership Theory and Practice

*The Fifth Discipline:* Peter Senge

Peter Senge’s concept of learning organizations (1994) has become a template for organizations to use in their daily operation. His ideas span not only the business world,
but also the education world. The five disciplines covered in Senge’s work are systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision and team learning. At times in his work, Senge refers to these five disciplines as leadership discipline.

The first three disciplines; systems thinking, personal mastery and mental models are individual disciplines. The concept of systems thinking is based on system dynamics and focuses on business issues. Senge (1994) discusses systems thinking through particular types of cycles which can be referred to as archetypes. The concept of personal mastery is the discipline of clarifying and better defining personal vision, focusing energy, developing patience, and seeing reality objectively. The concept of mental models is the discipline that is influenced by the stimuli leaders are exposed to as they develop and form generalizations. This concept requires leaders to look at themselves as they interact with the world of business and leadership.

The final two disciplines; shared vision and team learning are group or team disciplines. Senge (1994) views shared vision as the practice that involves the skills that are common to individuals that fostered commitment rather than submission to ideas. The discipline of team learning is the concept of individuals working together in contract to attempt to solve problems based on assumptions or on their limited knowledge. This discipline involves the recognition of those who work well together, as well as those who become defensive and can be counterproductive to the organization.

One might ascertain that Senge’s five disciplines are similar to the characteristics of servant leadership; especially the group disciplines. Senge acknowledges the influence of Robert Greenleaf’s ideas of servant leadership in his work. This acknowledgment extends to the point that Senge wrote the afterword to the 25th anniversary of Robert
Greenleaf’s *Servant Leadership* (1977). He states (p. 345) that he expects Greenleaf’s work to become more important in the future because it is one of the few books that illustrates the depth of commitment required to build truly innovative organizations.

*The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People:* Stephen R. Covey

In its June 17, 1996 edition, of *Time* magazine recognized Stephen Covey as one of the top 25 most influential Americans. Covey has sold over 20 million books on how individuals can attempt to control their future with his guidance. In the November 21, 2008 edition of *Time, The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People* (1989) was deemed the most influential business book of the twentieth century. In his book, Covey speaks to the concept of personality ethics that inundate the literature on leadership in the last half of the 20th century. However, Covey points out that character ethics were the predominate focus of the 150 years prior and directs readers toward characteristics such as integrity, courage, justice, and patience. Covey states that the elements of character ethics are primary and personality ethics are secondary; adding personality ethics might be more useful in the right situation, but long-term success requires both.

The concept of character ethics assumes that there are some absolute principles that exist in all human beings. These principles are fairness, honesty, integrity, human dignity, quality, potential, and growth. Covey presents his book from a character ethics focus, hence “inside-out,” where there is a shift from personality ethics toward character ethics.
The seven habits covered in Covey’s book are:

1. Be Proactive. Covey states that proactive people are driven by values that are independent. Proactive people use their resourcefulness and initiative to find solutions rather than just reporting problems and waiting for other people to solve them.

2. Begin with the End in Mind. Covey states that one should develop a principle-centered personal mission statement. One should extend the mission statement into long-term goals based on personal principles.

3. Put First Things First. People should identify the key roles in life, and make time for each of them. They should spend time doing what fits into their personal mission, observing the proper balance between production and building capacity.

4. Think Win/Win. Covey states that one should seek agreements and relationships that are mutually beneficial. In developing an organizational culture, be sure to reward win/win behavior among employees and avoid inadvertently rewarding win/lose behavior.

5. Seek First to Understand, Then to be Understood. Listen to the other person. Covey presents this habit as the most important principle of interpersonal relations.

6. Synergize. Covey states that through trustworthy communication, one should try to find ways to leverage individual differences to create a whole that is greater than the sum of its parts.
7. Sharpen the Saw. Take time out from production to build capacity through personal renewal of the physical, mental, social, and emotional dimensions (Covey, 1989, p.53).

One might observe that these seven habits are similar to Greenleaf’s servant leadership components. Covey, himself, stated that the work of Robert Greenleaf and his views of servant leadership helped form his views of leadership. In the foreword for the 25th anniversary edition of Greenleaf’s Servant Leadership: A Journey into the Nature of Legitimate Power and Greatness Covey wrote “It is a profound honor to have been asked to write the foreword to this Silver Anniversary Edition of Servant Leadership – a book that has had enormous influence over the last twenty-five years, both directly and indirectly. I am a first hand witness of its tremendous impact…(Greenleaf, 1977, p. 1)”

Leadership on the Line: Robert Heifetz and Marty Linsky

Ronald A. Heifetz and Marty Linsky (2002) are researchers in the John F. Kennedy Business School at Harvard University who offer a different look at leadership in this book. They discuss the concept of adaptive challenges. These are challenges that are not solvable through normal procedures. These challenges require a leader who is open to experimenting and adjusting in reaction to the community. Periodically, the benefits are not obvious and there is an acceptance of the possibility of loss. In response, Heifetz and Linsky recommend thinking politically. They believe leaders should find partners with similar interests and goals to create dynamic opportunities. They also offer recommendations on how leaders can survive through the tough times that will inevitably
arise. Heifetz and Linsky recommend keeping close to one’s opponents, even closer to them than to one’s allies.

Heifetz and Linsky (2002) also discuss concepts that align with some of the servant leadership concepts originated by Greenleaf. Heifetz and Linsky speak of a concept they coined called “getting on the balcony.” They elaborate by stating that ascending to a mental balcony allows one to see patterns, minimize emotional responses, and to determine ways that will help the community engage in adaptive challenge. They add that leaders need to find partners in authority figures and with members that will have the greatest difficulty with change. Additionally, leaders need to accept responsibility for poor decisions and model the type of behavior needed to progress through the change process.

Heifetz and Linsky (2002) state that in order for a leader not to take work away from the community, the leader should make only short simple interventions through observations, actions, interpretations, and questions. They warn that it is normal for the community to allow a leader to develop and for the community to follow the leader’s direction. A leader must be aware of this potential and realize it could have an adverse effect on the community. They also advise that a leader must be careful when dealing with allies because allies frequently cross boundaries with a leader. Instead they recommend keeping confidants, as confidants normally are outside of the community.

Heifetz and Linsky (2002) also discuss the fundamental question of why people choose to lead. They argue that love, caring, and the concern for other could be the reasons why leaders emerge in the face of adversity. In analyzing, Heifetz and Linsky’s work one could extract several of Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristics.
Listening, caring, empathy, awareness, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, and building community are all characteristics of Greenleaf’s servant leadership that resonate throughout Heifetz’s and Linsky’s book.

Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap…and Others Don’t: Jim Collins

Jim Collins (2001) and his research team evaluated companies to identify those companies that met the criteria for inclusion in their study. In this meta-analysis that took five years to complete, Collins and his research team examined companies that showed a fifteen-year cumulative stock return at or below the general stock market, punctuated by a transition point, followed by cumulative returns at least three times the market value over the next fifteen years. The 15 identified companies were compared to 15 other companies in a one-to-one comparison to a fellow company in the same industry. Collins describes the process as looking inside a magical box. A company that is following a path is viewed as being “good.” The company enters the magic box and out of the box emerges a company well on its way to being “great” (Collins, 2001, p. 9).

Collins’ research was not intended to focus on the Chief Executive Officers of the companies. However, the leadership of these fifteen companies became the focus as the research team looked at the similarities that existed in the leaders of these companies. Collins (2001) chose to divide the research into three main concepts: disciplined people, disciplined thought, and disciplined action. The concept of disciplined people and disciplined thought are examined here.

The concept of “disciplined people” speaks to two ideas. The two ideas are Level 5 Leadership and the staffing of the companies. As briefly stated above Collins’ research
team found similarities among the CEO’s of the 15 companies in this study. Their findings were not that the companies had recruited renowned upper-level management from other companies, who were individuals who had already made their mistakes and had proven that they had learned from these decisions. Rather, the individuals that made these companies were individuals who came up through the ranks within the companies. These individuals held various positions within the companies and evidently learned, not only from their mistakes, but from the mistakes of their leaders. Collins defined these leaders as Level 5 Leaders: leaders who were more than capable, more than contributors, more than competent, even more than effective; he deemed them to be executives who built greatness through a blend of humility and professional will. “Level 5 leaders channel their ego needs away from themselves and into the larger goal of building a great company. It’s not that Level 5 leaders have no ego or self-interest. Indeed, they are incredibly ambitious- but their ambition is first and foremost for the institution, not themselves (Collins, 2001, p. 21).” The selfless devotion of Level 5 leaders to their institution closely parallels the concept of servant leadership.

Collins describes his Level 5 leader as a leader who looks in the mirror to accept responsibility when things go poorly and who looks through the window to give appropriate credit when things go well. He defined Level 5 leaders as those individuals “who build enduring greatness through a paradoxical blend of personal humility and professional will (Collins, 2001, p. 35).” Two other findings about leaders from Collins’ meta-analysis are that the Level 5 leaders set up their successors for even greater success in the next generation and that these leaders possess a workmanlike diligence- more like a plow horse than a show horse.
The idea of disciplined people also deals with the people in the company and how they affect success. Collins makes the observation that the real issue is not the direction of the company, the real issue is who are the individuals involved in the process. Hence, “it’s not where the bus is going, but who is on the bus” (Collins, 2001, p. 44). These CEO’s were found to be successful by using means that were not overbearing. Collins describes these leaders being rigorous, not ruthless in their management of employees.

The idea of disciplined thought is based on Collins’ finding that the companies confronted the facts of their current reality. This confrontation yielded an environment where there is an opportunity for individuals to be heard and, ultimately, for the truth to be heard. A point that Collins makes is that all companies deal with diversity of circumstances that hinder their vision and growth; however the great companies confront this diversity. Collins found that these great companies had leaders who simplified a complex world into a single organized idea, a concept that unifies and guides everything (Collins, 2001, p. 91). He identified this thought process as the hedgehog concept in reference to the hedgehog’s slow and deliberate approach to life. This is in contrast to companies with leaders who pursue many ends at the same time and see the world in all its complexity. They are scattered or diffused, moving on many levels.

In comparing Collins’ work with the umbrella concept of Greenleaf’s servant leader, several components of Collins’ work appear similar to Greenleaf’s thoughts. Components of Collins’ meta-analysis validate five of Greenleaf’s characteristics of servant leadership. Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristic of listening aligns with Collins’ finding that team members need to be heard as organizations confront brutal realities. Awareness aligns with Collins’ belief that Level 5 leaders choose the right
people to be on the “bus.” Foresight, stewardship, and a commitment to the growth of people are validated by Collins’ metaphor of the Level 5 leader’s view of herself in the mirror and windows as well as the deliberate nature Level 5 leaders use to develop their “hedghog” concepts. Greenleaf’s concept of servant leadership was not conceived in the educational world; like Collins’ work, it is rooted in business. Collins’ research, completed over 30 years after Greenleaf’s *Servant as Leader*, could be viewed as something of a validation of Greenleaf’s work.

*What’s Worth Fighting for in the Principalship*: Michael Fullan

Michael Fullan (1997) discusses the state of educational leadership, conceptions of the principalship, and guidelines for how to improve school leadership for the future in his book, *What’s Worth Fighting for in the Principalship*. Fullan indicates that studies polling principals and vice-principals show the work load for school administrators has increased over time. The workweek has lengthened and resources are not meeting the new demands. This trend is causing principals to become more conservative and less likely to follow their own ideas in reference to change.

Fullan refers to principals as middle managers in that he sees them as being trapped between the teachers and the central office administration. This role is a difficult one as it requires balancing two potentially volatile groups. One might conclude that Fullan (1997) views this act of balancing to be the key to being a successful administrator. He views a successful administrator as the product of three components: (1) having the ability to critique management techniques, (2) being able to understand new concepts; and (3) having the ability to apply what is learned in a practical setting.
Fullan (1997) offers ten guidelines for principals. One of these guidelines is to start small, think big. This guideline parallels Greenleaf’s (1977) discussion of foresight, as a leader must constantly examine opportunities to improve, but these steps of improvement need to be made with the other members of the team having ownership in the decision. Embracing diversity and resistance while empowering others is a second guideline offered by Fullan which correspond to Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristic of building community. Fullan’s third guideline of knowing when to be cautious aligns with Greenleaf’s characteristic of awareness.

The Virtues of Leadership: Thomas Sergiovanni

Thomas Sergiovanni (2005) examines the four leadership virtues of hope, trust, piety, and civility in his work. He states that schools teach their culture best when they embody purposes, values, norms, and obligations in their everyday activities (Sergiovanni, 2005, p. 112). He goes on to say that school leaders know and focus on what is important, care deeply about their work, learn from their successes and failures, take calculated risks, and are trustworthy people.

Sergiovanni (2005) defines hope to be the most neglected leadership virtue, yet perhaps the most important. Leaders are programmed to look at data and to make critical decisions based on the data. He states “leaders can be both hopeful and realistic as long as the possibilities for change remain open” (p. 113). Being realistic is to calculate the odds with an optimistic eye. Evidence suggests that hope can actually change events for the better. Sergiovanni states that scientists have found compelling links between hopefulness and its positive effect upon illness.
According to Sergiovanni, hope and wishing are often confused. The distinction lies in reality as hopeful leaders react actively to what they hope for and deliberately strive to turn hopefulness into reality. Conversely, wishing is not embedded in reality, it is simply just wishing. A wishful leader takes no action, is passive, and has no faith to back up assumptions. As a result, normally no change takes place. However, a hopeful leader takes action, is active, has faith, and change takes place (Sergiovanni, 2005).

Faith and hope go together. Faith comes from commitment to a cause, from strong beliefs in a set of ideas, and from other convictions (Sergiovanni, 2005, p. 114). Faith is often communicated as a set of true assumptions. Leaders can hope that once these assumptions are shared, they will come alive, be accepted, and stir others to action. If leaders’ hopefulness is based on faith in a set of assumptions and, if these assumptions become shared by others in their school community, then a powerful force of ideas may be created.

Sergiovanni (2005) lists action as one of the key differences between a hopeful leader and a wishful leader. A hopeful leader creates pathways so that the assumptions of faith can become reality. The leader must have the determination to travel these pathways; otherwise the leader is just engaged in wishful thinking. Turning hope into reality is a deliberate process that requires questions to be answered. Sergiovanni poses these questions: “(1) What are our goals? (2) What are our pathways? (3) How committed are we? (4) Is efficacy in sufficient strength? (5) If efficacy is low, how can it be strengthened?” (p. 115). Hopeful leaders recognize potential in persons and situations. When hope, faith, and action are joined together obligations emerge. Such obligations encompass not only management commitments, but moral commitments.
The second virtue is trust. Sergiovanni states (2005, p. 117) that no single person has the power to make things work. Members of an effective team are held together by relational trust. Social capital and community are very similar to relational trust. Social capital is the support that students and teachers need to be more effective learners and doers. Relational trust refers to the quality and kind of social exchanges found in sets of role relationships (Rennaker, 2008). Trust is high when every individual feels supported and safe (Saunders, 2008).

Trust deficits have serious consequences for schools that seem to worsen over time (Hamilton, 2005). The less trust there is in a school, the more people keep to themselves; the more often ideas are not shared; the less likely people are to be helpful and open (Sergiovanni, 2005, p. 118). Theoretically, schools and school districts that succeed in bringing about change use a trust-first approach. Those school districts that use trust as an afterthought to imposed visions and strategies, which require increased performance monitoring and resistance, leave leaders trying to rebuild relationships and regain the trust of their stakeholders (Lucas, 2008). For schools to realize the kinds of positive transformation envisioned by school reform efforts, attention must be paid to issues of trust. Finding ways to overcome the breakdown of trust is essential if the goal is for schools to reach the aspirations held by the community (Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

Sergiovanni’s final two virtues are piety and civility. The concept of piety embodies showing loyalty, respect and affection such as is usually found among friends or close colleagues at work where caring and obligations characterize connections among people (Sergiovanni, 2005, p. 120). Piety is a leadership virtue that encourages people to look inward to their own narrow community affiliations. Piety cannot stand alone, as
leaders can become blinded to other views. This blindness encourages isolation and exclusiveness that seriously limit the ability to learn from others. Piety requires conformity, while civility welcomes diversity and encourages tolerance. Civility draws us outward to embrace differences. Sergiovanni (2005) describes these two virtues as bonding and bridging community (p. 121). Piety creates the bonding that allows members of a group to rally around a shared value system, while civility allows them to bridge with other groups and respect different views.

In comparing Sergiovanni’s work with the work of Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristics similarities can be seen and parallels can be drawn. Sergiovanni’s discussion of hope aligns with Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristics of awareness, foresight, building community and a commitment to the growth of people. Sergiovanni’s description of trust aligns with Greenleaf’s persuasion, listening and conceptualization. Piety and civility align with stewardship, empathy and awareness. Sergiovanni’s virtues of leadership echo many points made by Greenleaf in his discussions on servant leadership.

_School Leadership that Works; from Research to Results_: Marzano, Waters, and McNulty

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of 69 studies of the effect of school leadership on student achievement. Their conclusions stand in contrast to those suggesting that the research on school leadership provides no guidance as to specific leadership behaviors. They claim the research provides strong guidance on specific leadership behaviors for school administrators and that those behaviors have well-documented effects on student achievement.
The 69 studies involved 2,802 schools, approximately 1.4 million students, and 14,000 teachers (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 10). Their findings include a correlation between leadership behaviors of principals and the average academic achievement of students of \( r = .25, \alpha = .05 \). This correlation is based on the assumption that the principals in question are ‘average’ or at the 50th percentile and the achievement level of the students in these schools to be ‘average’ or at the 50th percentile. If a principal’s leadership abilities improve one standard deviation to the 84th percentile, the improvement would yield an increase in student achievement to the 60th percentile; a substantial improvement. They state that student achievement would increase to the 72nd percentile for the principal who improved from the 50th to the 99th percentile of leadership.

The research conducted by Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) was based on studies involving K-12 students in the United States or locations that closely mirrored the culture of United States schools. They examined the relationship between the leadership of the building principal and student achievement with the academic achievement measured by a standardized achievement test. The studies used were retrieved from standard databases such as ERIC, Psych Lit, and Dissertation Abstracts.

Marzano et al. (2005) acknowledge other leadership theories. They discuss Transformational and Transitional Leadership, Total Quality Management, Servant Leadership, Situational Leadership, and Instructional Leadership. Additionally, Marzano et al. discuss the work of leadership theorists Warren Bennis, Peter Block, Marcus Buckingham and Donald Clifton, James Collins, Richard Elmore, Michael Fullan, Ronald Heifetz and Marty Linsky, and James Spillane. Marzano and his colleagues emphasize
the work of Kathleen Cotton who identified 25 categories of principal behavior that positively affect the dependent variables of student achievement, student attitudes, student behaviors, teacher attitudes, teacher behaviors, and dropout rates. They chose to identify Cotton’s 25 behaviors because they are very similar to the list Marzano and his colleagues identify in their quantitative synthesis of the research.

Marzano et al. note that their research contrasts with the findings of Witziers, Bosker, and Kruger (2003) whose research on the relationship between student achievement and leadership behaviors of principals generated only a .02 correlation. Marzano shares three reasons for the disparity. First, the research conducted by Witziers, Bosker, and Kruger (2003) was a meta-analysis of 37 studies included 25 schools outside of the United States. The second reason deals with the way average correlations were calculated. Marzano et al. computed average correlations within and between studies using a process that excluded conceptual and statistical outliers. Finally, their study corrected for attenuation in both the measures of student achievement and the measure for principal leadership. Attenuation refers to the shrinkage in correlation coefficient due to the lack of precision in the measurement instruments used in a study.

The 21 leadership behaviors Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) noted in their study are:

1. Affirmation- the extent to which the leader recognizes and celebrates school accomplishments.

2. Change Agent- the extent to which the leader is willing to challenge and actively challenge the status quo.
3. Contingent Rewards- the extent to which the leader recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.

4. Communication- the extent to which the leader establishes strong line of communications with students and teachers.

5. Culture- the extent to which the leader fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.

6. Discipline- the extent to which the leader protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time or focus.

7. Flexibility- the extent to which the leader adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.

8. Focus- the extent to which the leader establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.

9. Ideals/Beliefs- the extent to which the leader communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.

10. Input- the extent to which the leader involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.

11. Intellectual stimulation- the extent to which the leader ensures faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a regular aspect of the school’s culture.

12. Involvement in curriculum, instruction, and assessment- the extent to which the leader is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.
13. Knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment- the extent to which the leader is knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.


15. Optimizer- the extent to which the leader inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.

16. Order- the extent to which the leader establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.

17. Outreach- the extent to which the leader is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.

18. Relationships- the extent to which the leader demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.

19. Resources- the extent to which the leader provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.

20. Situational awareness- the extent to which the leader is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.

21. Visibility- the extent to which the leader has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students. (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 42)
Marzano et al. (2005) conducted a factor analysis to determine if there were hidden relationships among these twenty-one behaviors. They discovered that the 21 behaviors could be divided into two groups; First-order change and second-order change. First-order change refers to the behaviors that are required to deal with the daily operation of the school. First-order change is incremental. Second-order change involves dramatic departure from the expected and alters the system in fundamental ways. They define all 21 behaviors identified in their study to be rooted, in some degree, in First-order change. This makes intuitive sense as all 21 should define the standard operating procedures in a school. Second-order change is related to seven of the 21 behaviors identified in their study. These seven behaviors are:

2. Optimizer
3. Intellectual Stimulation
4. Change Agent
5. Monitoring and evaluating
6. Flexibility
7. Ideals and beliefs (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 70)

These seven behaviors are listed by their rank when evaluated as second-order change.

Marzano’s team of researchers emphasized that picking the right work is as much a part of a successful school as any other component. Working “hard”, is not nearly as important as working “smart.” Critical factors of picking the right work dealt with a guaranteed and viable curriculum, to have challenging goals and effective feedback, getting parent and community involvement, creating a safe and orderly environment,
having collegiality and professionalism with strong classroom management using proven instructional strategies. The home environment is critical, in addition to having a strong background knowledge and be motivated.

Marzano et al. (2005) propose five steps to create a plan for effective school leadership. (1) Develop and maintain a strong leadership team where effort is made to create a purposeful community. (2) Distribute responsibility throughout the leadership team. (3) Select the right work. (4) Determine the order of magnitude for this work. (5) Match the management style to the magnitude of the change initiative.

In summary, Marzano et al. (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of 69 studies which spanned 35 years. They acknowledge the similarities between the 21 behaviors of educational leaders identified in their research and Kathleen Cotton’s 25 categories of principal behavior that positively affect student achievement. Marzano et al. generated a correlation of .25 between the behaviors of principals and student achievement. A factor analysis was conducted which grouped these twenty-one behaviors into two components. First-order change is incremental and expected, while second-order change is more radical and incorporates seven of the 21 behaviors. Finally, Marzano et al. offered a five step plan for creating a plan for effective school leadership.

Marzano’s research (2005) is cited to support the premise that school leadership is not accidental. There are school leadership practices that are effective and other school leadership practices that are ineffective. The emphasis on the importance of picking the right work for a leadership team parallels the idea that there are different ways to lead based on the characteristics of the community. The “right work” for one leadership team might not be the “right work” for another leadership team; just as there are unique
components of each environment that make individuals more successful in one environment over the other (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 97).

When the 21 school leadership behaviors Marzano et al. identified are compared with the characteristics of servant leadership Greenleaf defined, a number of similarities emerge. The servant leadership characteristic listening parallels the school leadership behavior of communications. Greenleaf’s empathy corresponds to their relationships. Healing relates to discipline. Awareness aligns with situational awareness. Conceptualization matches with ideas/beliefs. Foresight is analogous to intellectual stimulation. Stewardship is comparable with optimizer. Commitment to growth requires being a change agent. Building community is a form of outreach. Marzano, Waters, and McNulty’s work clearly has parallels with Greenleaf’s work on servant leadership.

The ISLLC Standards

In 1996, The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) via the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA, 2007) was charged with developing the blueprint to rebuild school leadership training in the United States. Forty-three states have used the ISLLC standards to develop their own standards (NPBEA, 2007) (Bryant, Hessel, & Isernhagen, 2002). Ohio and Kentucky are two states which have adopted these standards without adjustments. Most states have used these standards as the basis for assessment of the performance of candidates applying for licensure as school administrators. The School Leadership Licensure Assessment (SLLA) was constructed through a partnership with the Educational Testing Service and the states of Illinois, Kentucky, Missouri, Mississippi, and North Carolina and is used to measure the
ISLLC standards. This particular assessment tool became available in 1998 and has been adopted by 15 states (NPBEA, 2007).

The six ISLLC standards are:

**Standard 1:** A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.

**Standard 2:** A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.

**Standard 3:** A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.

**Standard 4:** A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.

**Standard 5:** A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.

**Standard 6:** A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context (Bryant et al., 2002).
Additionally, The Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) standards are used to assess principal preparation programs. The ELCC standards parallel the ISLLC standards except for a seventh standard that requires an internship for aspiring school leaders. The ELCC standards were developed for the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) under the support of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA, 2007).

The six ISLLC standards appear to include many of the same concepts as Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristics. The use of the word “stewardship” in standard one has an obvious servant leadership connotation as stewardship is one of the ten characteristics of servant leadership as defined by Greenleaf. In standard two, the term “nurturing” aligns with Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristic of healing, empathy and foresight. In standard four, “responding to diverse community interests,” parallels Greenleaf’s ideas of building community and awareness.

Other terms are used in the other ISLLC standards that also could be viewed as having servant leadership implications. Standards five and six arguably can be viewed as the standards most deeply rooted in servant leadership. In them the school administrator is expected to promote success of students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context while accomplishing these expectations by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.

All the standards include a stem statement that “A school administrator...promotes the success of all students...” The leader promotes success of all, not just for some students. He does not seek personal success either. It is clear that the standards are
intended to develop unselfish, caring school administrators who exhibit the servant leadership characteristics Greenleaf advocated. These ISSLC standards may be viewed as one of the most influential components in educational leadership over the last several years. It is apparent that the ISSLC standards resonate with Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristics.

Section III

Analysis of Selected Empirical Studies of Servant Leadership and School Leadership

In this section there is an examination of selected research studies of servant leadership and school leadership. Studies were chosen that investigated one or both topics. The selections are not intended to be viewed as an exhaustive list of research on the topics, but as representative of the state of research for each.


Ann Abel (2000) attempted to validate Robert Greenleaf’s 10 characteristics of servant leadership. She used a Delphi model to poll a panel of 28 experts (Appendix A) in the field of servant leadership. The instrument was administered in three phases. Phase one of the Delphi model incorporated an open-ended instrument where Abel instructed the panel of experts to list the characteristics and behaviors of servant leaders. She compiled all the responses from phase one of the Delphi model, created the second phase of the Delphi model using a Likert-type scale and gave the second instrument to the same panel of experts for them to rate each characteristic and behavior.

The results of phase two of the research generated an opportunity to rank all the characteristics with an overall mean score. Abel went on to a third phase dealing with
how these behaviors affect the work place. It is the second phase of Abel’s work that is of primary interest for the purposes of this study.

The second phase of Abel’s research instrument is valuable in two aspects. First, the individuals on the panel of experts represent servant leaders. Therefore, the use of the panels’ list of characteristics of servant leadership and the definition of a Delphi research model validate the characteristics as being those of servant leaders. Secondly, Abel’s research did verify six of Greenleaf’s 10 characteristics directly. They are listening, empathy, persuasion, foresight, building community, and commitment to the growth of people. Three characteristics were verified indirectly; they are awareness, conceptualization, and stewardship. Finally, one characteristic, healing, was not verified by Abel’s research.

*Leadership: Four Styles*

It is imperative to create a definition of educational leadership as we attempt to connect servant leadership, transformational leadership, and the other forms of leadership that exist today. Howard (2005) reports educational leadership can be divided into four leadership styles. These four leadership styles have unique characteristics and are discussed along with the individual’s struggle to achieve components of the leadership styles that are not their primary leadership style.

What is your preferred leadership style? How does your style impact others? What tasks are best assigned to members of your leadership team based upon their preferred leadership style? These are some of the questions Howard attempts to answer. After three decades of experience and research, Howard (2005) views educational
leadership as a process of communication that involves coaching, inspiring, guiding, and supporting others. In this study Howard (2005) states that effective leaders have four characteristics in common. First, they provide direction and meaning to the people they lead. Second, they generate trust. Third, they prefer action and risk taking. Finally, they are communicators of hope.

Howard (2005) described four leadership types. Howard’s Type-A leaders are comfortable with people, tasks, and environments that require facts, logic, theory, scientific applications, analysis, and quantitative, mathematical, and technical processes to resolve. They are constantly seeking facts and the logical order of things. They are very organized. They are research oriented, and are data driven decision-makers. Type-B leaders prefer problem solving techniques that involve artistic, flexible, imaginative, spontaneous, and holistic responses. They are open and direct to communicating with others.

Type-C leaders make decisions about how they feel about people, tasks, and environment, often ignoring research and facts that are contrary to their decisions (Howard, 2005). They are uncomfortable with data as a source for making decisions, unless the data are compatible with their feelings. They prefer intuition to science and are prone to think, act, and respond to stimuli in a fast-paced manner. Type-D leaders want to use power and control over people, tasks, and environment. They lack imagination and creativity and choose control, details, planning, and strict organization. They are inflexible, unimaginative, and lack spontaneity.

Howard (2005) states that, based on his research, only three percent of leaders have the ability to use all four styles. He states that the key to success is for leaders to
have a range of skills that allows them to use the appropriate leadership style according to the demands of the situation or to assign tasks to leaders based upon their preferred leadership style. All decisions made by leaders can be traced to their perceptions, and reasoning. However, Howard believes that it takes tremendous insight for leaders to examine their decisions with this kind of analytical thinking. The most successful leaders have developed the ability to assess the situation and apply the appropriate leadership style. Ideally, all leaders should aspire to acquire the ability to use all four leadership styles. Howard quotes educational scholar, John Dewey in saying, “To find out what one is fitted to do and to secure an opportunity to do it is the key to happiness” (Howard, 2005, p. 391).

In summary, based on this study, leaders and leadership are highly subjective; thus validating the idea that leadership is situational. One individual’s definition of leadership will vary from another’s definition. Consequently, the review will address multiple definitions and types of leadership in this study.

*An Investigation of Principals’ Leadership Orientations*

Reed, Smith, and Beekley (1997) conducted a study of leadership orientation. Their study focuses on the symbolic or practical components; and technical, or the policy, nature of a high school principal’s responsibilities. Specifically, Reed et al. examined a group of high school principals who were classified as unfocused in their orientation. Unfocused was operationally defined as a term that means they have a leadership orientation that was not symbolic or technical in nature; nor bifocal, which is defined to be a balance between these two ideas of symbolic and technical orientation.
The purpose of the study was to continue a previous study by Kasch (1995) which indicated that principals can be distinguished with respect to the extent to which they evidence a bifocal or balanced leadership orientation as compared to a technical or symbolic orientation. Kasch’s study suggested the existence of an additional orientation, which Kasch described as unfocused.

Reed et al. (1997) examined a larger sampling of principals in two phases. Phase one of this study was the mailing of the Principal Behavior Inventory (PBI-R) questionnaire to all 865 principals of Ohio public and private schools housing any combinations of grade levels ten through twelve. The PBI-R consists of three sections, one section on demographic information, a second section stating instructions and offering examples, and a third section dealing with distinguishing symbolic and technical orientation.

The final data set consisted of 577 returned questionnaires. The respondents were high school principals of primarily (87.6%) public schools in mainly rural (45.8%) and suburban (35.8%) areas of Ohio. The enrollments of the schools respondents’ schools were grouped into three categories. The categories were schools with enrollments of 500 students or less, schools with enrollments of 501 to 1,000 students and schools with enrollments over 1,000 students. The percentages for these three categories were 38.5%, 39.2%, 22.3% respectively. Finally, the respondents were mainly White Caucasian (95.6%) and male (85.0%) (Reed et al., 1997).

Two-way ANOVAs were performed to determine if the technical and symbolic mean scores of the principals classified as having a bifocal orientation were significantly different from those having a symbolic, technical, or unfocused orientation. Where
significant differences were found, the Tukey test was used to determine the source of those differences. The data from Reed’s questionnaire were analyzed to determine the leadership orientation of the participants. The six participants chosen for phase two were chosen based on how well the participants generalized back to respondent group. These six principals were chosen based on their high unfocused leadership orientation and their ability to represent high school principals in the state of Ohio in terms of stratified demographics (Reed et al., 1997). The participants were individually interviewed for approximately one hour.

Phase two of the study involved an interview of selected respondents. Data gathered from these interviews ranged from the symbolic to technical leadership orientation. Few commonalities among these six participants existed with the exception of having difficulty articulating their leadership philosophies. Various behaviors, characteristics, and beliefs which emerged in the comments of the six principals suggested that the majority of the principals interviewed tended to emphasize certain roles and functions that are not representative of either a symbolic or technical orientation. While all these behaviors, characteristics, and beliefs were not represented in the comments of all six principals, all were represented in the comments of a majority of the principals. These roles include caretaker, collaborator, compromiser, conflict avoider, delegator, one who empowers, facilitator, helper, nurturer, and supporter (Reed et al., 1997). Using Leithwood’s (1997) rubric of transformational leadership behaviors, Reed et al. concluded that their findings may imply that unfocused principals are highly concerned with people but only minimally concerned with purpose, structure, or culture. It is possible that the majority of the unfocused principals interviewed in this study could
be characterized as demonstrating evidence of a leadership orientation more suggestive of the concept of “servant leader” rather than the symbolic or technical aspects of the work of the principal based on the descriptions of the researchers.

In summary, school leadership remains a complex and only partially understood phenomenon. The definition of leadership exists in many shades of gray. Fundamental choices for leaders are between maintenance and greatness, between caution and courage, and dependency and autonomy (Block, 1987). As society attempt to further define leadership into its different forms, the problem becomes even more complex.

*Leadership and Team Learning in Secondary Schools*

Leithwood, Steinbach, and Ryan (1997) conducted a study exploring the meaning of team learning and the conditions that foster or inhibit its development at the high school level. Their study was conducted in reaction to earlier work by Wohistetter, Smyer, and Mohrman (1994) dealing with the virtually undetectable effects of successful site-based management. The authors stated that the positive effects of site-based management are masked due to the tie to other important organizational conditions. Leithwood’s, Steinbach’s, and Ryan’s study (1997) was chosen for review because of its links to leadership in the principalship and the high school setting. The methods and procedures developed by the researchers and their findings and conclusions are reviewed and examined.

A total of 48 participants were chosen from pre-existing site-based teams from six high schools. The teams were designated A, B, C, D, E, and F by Leithwood et al. (1997). Teams A, E, and F had four members; Teams B, C, and D had from 10 to 20
members. Teams B and D functioned as their school’s main decision making body; Teams A and F had been assigned specific mandates which they had transformed into higher level goals related to the needs of the students. Team E assumed the role of helping their school become a learning organization. Finally, Team C was charged with a broad goal related to school improvement (Leithwood et al., 1997).

The researchers employed both qualitative and quantitative components. There were empirical data reported. However, the study reports mainly qualitative information as Leithwood et al. (1997) attempted to analyze the dynamics of these six teams. The research group conducted a formal two-hour interview with each team in the spring, as the teams’ work had started in September of the previous year. The participants then completed a one-page, 11 item survey. The interview and survey dealt with three concepts: (1) out-of-school variables, (2) in-school variables, and (3) school leadership. The interviews were audio taped and then transcribed. Three research team members worked together on the transcripts to develop and refine the application of a coding scheme. Transcript coding yielded a total of 963 idea units, with a range of 132-197 per transcript and a mean of 160.5. After coding was complete, the six study teams were grouped into two categories: low potential for site-based management success and high potential for site-based management success. These two categories were based on the number of negative conditions noted in their interviews as the low potential group shared approximately five-times as many negative responses.

The data from this study are similar to the work of other researchers in transformational leadership research (Vidic, 2008). The value of this study rests in the fact that a principal was a member of site-based Teams C and E. One specific point of
interest is in how successful the two teams were that had principals as team members. The ability of a group to interact freely when the members do not have an equal role outside of the group must be questioned. The expectations of the group members for the principal to take the role of “leader” and for the principal to view his or her role as the one to move the group along in the process of school decision-making should additionally be questioned (Leithwood et al., 1997). One team reported as a low potential team and one reported as a high potential team.

The study appears to validate the thought that there are many undetectable variables in site-based team success. These six teams, even though the authors reluctantly grouped them into low and high potential categories, are reported to have very little differences. While there is very little difference, they have no statistical consistency with the number of members of each team; nor with the rationale or motivation for their creation. These reported inconsistencies, in addition to the fact that socio-economic and other factors, differ as one compares the unique characteristics of the six high schools cannot be assumed to have been taken into consideration (Leithwood et al., 1997). The authors do suggest that small schools facilitate team learning through the proximity of members and the interaction that occurs among them as a result. A valuable component that is difficult to measure is the interaction and the feelings of the members of each team as they work through the issues that affect their school.

_Servant Leadership Qualities of Principals, Organization Climate, and Student Achievement: A Correlation Study._

Lambert (2004) chose to investigate secondary school leadership with school climate and student learning outcomes to ascertain whether there were correlations
between servant leadership behaviors and attitudes of principals and the overall success of their schools, as measured by student achievement on standardized tests. An invitation to participate in this study was mailed to 39 middle school and 25 high school principals in four Florida districts. Schools and their respective principals were chosen based on tenure. Principals who had at least three years of service were encouraged to participate. A minimal sample size of six middle schools and six high schools was the goal of this study; however eight middle school principals and only four high school principals agreed to participate. To utilize a participating school’s data, at least twenty percent of the faculty members, including the principal, had to complete and return the survey. With this requirement in place, seven middle schools and only one high school met the parameters set forth. Eight principals and 240 faculty members participated in Lambert’s study (2004).

Lambert attempted to answer nine research questions. They were:

1. To what extent do school principals exhibit servant leadership behaviors and attitudes in their leadership based on their own perceptions and as perceived by their respective faculty members?

2. How do principals and teachers perceive the organizational climate at their respective schools?

3. What correlation, if any, is there between the principal’s servant leadership and organization success, as measured by student achievement?
4. What correlation, if any, is there between the principal’s servant leadership and organization success, as measured by student achievement as measured controlling for SES?

5. What correlation, if any, is there between principal’s servant leadership and principal and teacher perceptions of organizational climate?

6. What correlation, if any, is there between principals’ servant leadership and principal and teacher perceptions of organizational climate when controlling for SES?

7. Are there significant correlations between principals’ and teachers’ perceptions of organizational climate and organizational success, as measured by student achievement?

8. Are there significant correlations between principals’ and teachers’ perceptions of organizational climate and organizational success, as measured by student achievement when controlling of SES?

9. Have those schools with higher Servant Leadership Scores shown significant improvement in organizational success (student achievement as measured by the FCAT) over the previous 3-year period during the principal’s tenure (Lambert, 2004, p. 46)?

The Organizational Leader Assessment (Laub, 1999) was selected to measure servant leadership and organizational climate. The focus of the OLA is the nature of principals’ leadership and the climate in each school, as perceived by both the principal and teachers. The OLA was chosen for several reasons. First, its development involved
a three-part Delphi survey conducted with 14 authorities in the field of servant leadership. The OLA is comprised of 60 questions on a five point Likert scale, with the first 54 questions comprising the Servant Leadership Score and questions 55 through 60 comprising the School Climate Score. A reliability of .98 was reported (Lambert, 2004).

Principals and their faculties completed the OLA, providing data regarding their perceptions of school leadership and school climate. FCAT scores were obtained for the Florida Department of Education for the spring administration of the test in 2002, 2003, and 2004 to enable Lambert (2004) to analyze gains in student achievement. To assist with the research questions involving SES, the eight schools were placed into two groups; one for those with less than 25% free and reduced lunch and another for those schools with more than 25% free and reduced lunch.

Significant relationships were revealed in this research study. Servant leadership clearly correlated with both student achievement and school climate. Further, school climate correlated with student in schools with lower SES. The analysis of data yielded the following:

Research question #1: To what extent do school principals exhibit servant leadership behaviors and attitudes in their leadership based on their own perceptions and as perceived by their respective faculty members? Servant Leadership scores in the eight schools ranged from 190.04 to 219.34 out of a possible 270.00 points.

Research question #2: How do principals and teachers perceive the organization climate at their respective schools? Climate scores ranged from 22.16 to 26.36 out of a total possible score of 30.00.
Research question #3: What correlation, if any, is there between the principal’s servant leadership and organization success, as measured by student achievement? The data depicted a positive relationship between the servant leadership of the principal and organizational success as represented by student achievement on the 2004 FCAT ($r = .348, p < .05$).

Research question #4: What correlation, if any, is there between the principal’s servant leadership and organization success, as measured by student achievement as measured controlling for SES? The data showed a significant correlation between the Servant Leadership Score and the 2004 FCAT Sum Score for those schools with more than 25% of their students receiving free or reduced-price lunch ($r = .660, p < .05$). In participating schools with a student population receiving free or reduced-price lunch of 25% or less, the correlation was also significant ($r = .610, p < .05$).

Research question #5: What correlation, if any, is there between principal’s servant leadership and principal and teacher perceptions of organizational climate? When analyzing the data without controlling for SES, the data showed a strong correlation between the Servant Leadership Score and the School Climate Score ($r = .712, p < .05$).

Research question #6: What correlation, if any, is there between principals’ servant leadership and principal and teacher perceptions of organizational climate when controlling for SES? In schools with more than 25% of their students receiving free or reduced-price lunch, the data indicated a strong correlation between Servant Leadership Score and School Climate Score ($r = .664, p < .05$).
The data also revealed a strong correlation between servant leadership of principals and school climate in schools with 25% or fewer students receiving free or reduced-price lunch (r = .794, p < .05).

Research question #7: Are there significant correlations between principals’ and teachers’ perceptions of organizational climate and organizational success, as measured by student achievement? When analyzing the data for all schools without controlling for SES, the data indicated a moderate correlation between School Climate Score and 2004 FCAT Sum Score (r = .188, p < .05).

Research question #8: Are there significant correlations between principals’ and teachers’ perceptions of organizational climate and organizational success, as measured by student achievement when controlling of SES? For schools with 25% or more students receiving free or reduced-price lunch, the data indicated a strong correlation between School Climate Score and 2004 FCAT Sum Score (r = .760, p < .05). However, the data indicated no significant correlation (r = .003, p < .05).

Research question #9: Have those schools with higher Servant Leadership Scores shown significant improvement in organizational success (student achievement as measured by the FCAT) over the previous 3-year period during the principal’s tenure? The school with the highest Servant Leadership Score posted an overall change in the FCAT Sum Score of -0.5%.

Lambert (2004) reports this study yielded valuable insights. Although no clear evidence existed to show that servant leadership had a direct relationship to increases in student achievement over the three years in the sample schools when examining
classroom performance, there were strong correlations between servant leadership and the 2004 FCAT results in these schools. Lambert (2004) recommends that longitudinal studies of secondary schools might provide data that would prove useful in understanding whether servant leadership correlates to student achievement and whether such correlations consist of direct or indirect relationships.

In analyzing this study (Lambert, 2004) the limited sample of only eight schools, seven middle schools and one high school, used as the participants in this study must be questioned. Secondly, there is no information shared in reference to the normal academic improvement that will be made as teachers gain experience and students improve their study skills. It is clear that the study could not be interrupted as representative of schools in Florida. However, the study has merit as an exploratory study and demonstrates the need for added analysis relevant to servant leadership practices in other settings.

**Examination of Leadership Practices of Principals Identified as Servant Leaders**

Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, and Jinks (2007) examined the similarities and differences that existed in principals who identified themselves as servant leaders and principals who did not identified themselves as being servant leaders. The researchers used a stratified random sampling to select three principals from each county in Missouri to participate in this study. One elementary principal was chosen, one middle school or junior high school principal was chosen, and one high school principal was chosen. A total of 112 principals, represented by 74 males and 38 females, participated in the study. One hundred eight principals were reported to be Caucasian, while the others participants did not identify their ethnicity.
Utilizing the leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner in their book, *The Leadership Challenge* (1987), Taylor et al. (2007) used two phases to answer five research questions. The five research questions were as follows. Does the utilization of servant leadership by public school principals impact the perceived effectiveness of principal’s leadership in the behaviors of (1) challenging the process, (2) inspiring a shared vision, (3) enabling others to act, (4) modeling the way, and (5) encouraging the heart?

Phase one the study incorporated the use of a Self Assessment of Servant Leadership (SASL) instrument to divide the sample of principals into two groups. Taylor et al. used the results of phase one to create phase two of the study. Those principals who identified themselves as servant leaders composed one group for phase two, while those principals who did not identified themselves as servant leaders composed the second group for phase two (Taylor et al., 2007).

In phase one of this research a multivariate test was conducted to determine if the demographic variables of prior educational experience, administrative experience, gender, ethnic background, school building level and personal level of education were significantly related to the overall self-assessment rating. A Chi-Square test revealed that no demographic variable was significantly related to the overall Self Assessment of Servant Leadership (SASL) rating.

In phase two of the study Taylor et al. utilized Kouzes and Posner’s (1997) Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Teachers from their respective schools evaluated both the group self-assessed as servant leaders and the group self-assessed to be non-servant leaders using the LPI. Once the assessment was complete, an analysis comparing
and contrasting the effective leadership practices of the servant leaders and those who did not identify themselves as servant leaders was conducted.

In phase two of this research Taylor et al. (2007) conducted an analysis of the data of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) administered to both servant and non-servant leadership groups in an attempt to answer the five research questions. The LPI analysis demonstrated that the servant leader group’s mean scores were higher than those of the non-servant leader group for each of the five research questions. The highest mean rating for the servant leader group (54.40) was modeling the way, and the lowest mean was (50.90) in the area of inspiring a shared vision. For the non-servant leader group the highest mean (51.00) was enabling others to act, and the lowest mean was (45.40) inspiring a shared vision. The greatest mean difference was (5.50) in inspiring a shared vision and the lowest mean difference (2.60) was enabling others to act.

Taylor et al. (2007) state that it is too bold a statement to say that servant leaders are more effective leaders (p. 124). Taylor and his team of researchers acknowledge that the initial response, or lack of response, to the Self Assessment of Servant Leadership (SASL) is a limitation to this study as the respondents and non-respondents might not be equally representative across the servant-nonservant leadership spectrum.

Taylor et al. (2007) offer five recommendations for further study. Recommendation two states: While the present study was conducted in the context of the leadership of principals in public schools in Missouri, future research of this work could examine the leadership of principals, school superintendents and/or other business leaders, not only in Missouri but across the nation (p. 126).
This study is limited, but supports servant leadership as an effective leadership style for school principals to consider. Taylor et al. (2007) recommend additional studies to explore the characteristics of servant leadership more thoroughly.

The Relationship between Servant Leadership Behavior or High School Principals, School Climate and Student Achievement

Kelley and Williamson (2006) conducted a study to determine those principal behaviors that positively affect school climate. They believed identifying these behaviors might influence selection of principals, improve mentoring for principals, and enhance the training and preparation of principals (Kelley & Williamson, 2006). They chose to investigate one leadership style, servant leadership.

Kelley and Williamson (2006) designed their study to examine the relationship between servant leadership, school climate and student achievement involving 42 rural or suburban high schools in western Michigan. Data were collected through the use of two survey instruments. The Organizational Climate Questionnaire for Secondary Schools was used to assess perceptions of school climate. The Servant Leadership Profile: 360 was used to assess perceptions of servant leadership. Teachers were randomly selected from each of the 42 high schools to take Servant Leadership Profile: 360. Student achievement data were obtained from the Michigan Department of Education using 11th grade MEAP (Michigan Educational Assessment Program) tests.

The data secured from the teachers were used to calculate an openness index. A total score for servant leadership for each principal was calculated (Kelley & Williamson, 2006). Statistical tests were conducted to determine the relationship between the variables and to test the strength of the relationship of the independent variables of
servant leadership, openness of school climate and student enrollment and the dependent variable of student achievement.

Kelley and Williamson (2006) found that an open school climate and servant leadership behavior from high school principals positively impacted student achievement. Individually, each factor had an impact but when both were present, the effect was greater. Principals who fit a servant leadership model emphasized service to others, a holistic approach to work, a sense of community and shared decision-making. As the value of servant leadership increased, student achievement increased slightly (Kelley & Williamson, 2006). The research also identified a relationship was also identified between school climate and student achievement. Kelley and Williamson went on to examine the combined influence of servant leadership of the principal and openness of school climate on student achievement. The results indicated 7.4% of the variability of student achievement could be explained by the combined variables of servant leadership and openness of school climate.

The implications for high school principals include that the leadership style of the building principal is an integral factor in the development of an open school climate (Kelly & Williamson, 2006). There is a relationship between development of an open school climate and an increase in student achievement. The study found that the size of the school was not related to the development of an open school climate or to student achievement.

Kelly and Williamson’s study raises potential questions for further research. They indicate that school size was not considered. Their study did not address differences in servant leadership behaviors in rural and urban school settings either. They
do not take into account the possibility that leadership is situational, it appears that an investigation into differences in servant leadership practices in those settings would add needed information to the existing body of research on servant leadership in schools.

Summary and Analysis of the Review of Selected Literature

This literature review incorporated pertinent research in leadership, servant leadership, and school leadership from the last 35 years. The purpose of the literature review was to identify and analyze the extant literature related to the concept of servant leadership and how it is pertinent to school leadership. The work of Robert Greenleaf was the basis for comparison and contrast when reviewing the literature. Greenleaf’s work is often viewed as the foundation for servant leadership. He determined 10 characteristics that were the root of his work on servant leadership. These characteristics were listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community.

One might view Greenleaf’s 10 servant leadership characteristics as the key elements for many different leadership behaviors. These characteristics might even be understood as the key components in describing a good person, or a good neighbor, or the essence of a well balanced person. However, in this research, these universal traits are the focus of servant leadership.

Listening was identified as a key behavior to successful school administrators by Marzano et al. (2005). Sergiovanni (2005) discussed listening in his work on the virtues of school leadership while exploring his concept of trust. Collins (2001) emphasized that team members need to be heard as an organization confronts the reality of obstacles in their pursuit of success. Howard’s (2005) described a Type-B leader as someone who is
open and direct in communicating with others and who hears their concerns. Leithwood’s (1994) six principals in his study took on the leadership role of compromiser. One might ascertain these researchers are discussing the same idea. Peter Senge (1990) made the argument that in a learning organization, leaders may start by pursuing their own vision, but as they learn to listen carefully to others’ visions, they begin to see that their own personal vision is part of something larger. This does not diminish any leader’s sense of responsibility for the vision, if anything it deepens it (Senge, 1990, p. 352). Heifetz and Linsky (2002) emphasized listening and suggest that one needs to “make the provocative step of making an interpretation that gets below the surface” (Heifetz and Linsky, 2002, p. 65) in an attempt to better understand the meaning of the spoken word.

Empathy was the ability to understand another person’s feelings; as defined by Sergiovanni (2005) in his discussion of the leadership virtue of civility. Marzano et al. (2005) examined the importance of relationships to successful school leaders. Howard’s (2005) Type-C leaders make decisions about how they feel about people while often ignoring research and facts contrary to their decision. Leithwood (1994) determined from his research that caretaker is one of 10 key roles for school leaders.

Healing was discussed in Leithwood’s (1994) research as he explored his concept of nurturer. Type-C leaders make decisions based on how they feel about people according to Howard (2005). Marzano et al. (2005) defined discipline in a similar manner. Fullan’s (1997) offered 10 guidelines for principals. Guideline number five is, “Embrace diversity and resistance while empowering others. This is part of an effective principal’s agenda” (p. 45). The obvious conclusion is that positive interactions have a
disproportionate effect on relationships when compared to negative interactions. Donald Clifton and Tom Roth (2004) argue this concept is the essence of not only a healthy organization, but a healthy person.

Sergiovanni’s (2005) discussion of civility parallels Greenleaf’s characteristic of awareness. Marzano et al. (2005) determined situational awareness to be a key component of a successful school administrator. Additionally, Collins speaks to picking the right people to be on the bus. Howard (2005) discusses awareness in his description of the Type-C leader. The conflict avoider is Leithwood’s (2005) corresponding term as he describes the various roles found in school leadership.

Persuasion was discussed in Howard’s (2005) work as he described the Type-D leader and their need to use power and control over people and tasks. Sergiovanni (2005) addresses the importance of trust in leadership in his work. Both concepts parallel components of Greenleaf’s work.

Greenleaf’s conceptualization is similar to Marzano’s et al. (2005) work on ideals and beliefs. Howard (2005) defines his Type-A leader as one comfortable with people, tasks, and environments that require facts, logic, theory, and scientific applications.

Marzano’s et al. (2005) term of intellectual stimulation parallels Greenleaf’s (1970) discussion of foresight. Getting the right people on the bus was a key phrase for Collins (2001) and he discusses foresight in his definition of the Level 5 leader.

Stewardship parallels Sergiovanni’s (2005) term of civility and Marzano’s et al. (2005) defined role of optimizer. Stewardship is a key discussion point with Collins (2001) and his work as he discusses getting the right people on the bus. Howard’s (2005) Type-C leader references stewardship as this leader make decisions based on how they
feel about people and tasks, often ignoring research and facts that may be contrary to
their decisions. Leithwood (1994) discusses the role of helper in his work on
transformational leadership. Additionally, one can easily discern stewardship as an
essential component of the ISLLC standards.

Greenleaf’s (1970) “commitment to growth” parallels Howard’s (2005) Type-A
leader. This leader makes decisions based on fact and is more of a data-driven decision
maker. Marzano et al. (2005) determined a characteristic of a successful school leader to
be a change agent. Collins’ (2001) discussion on the slow, deliberate and focused
approaches of the hedgehog, hence the hedgehog concept, draws similarities to
Greenleaf’s views on having a commitment to growth.

Building community is Greenleaf’s (1970) final characteristic of servant
leadership. Howard’s (2005) work on the Type-B leader parallels Greenleaf’s work as
the Type-B leader prefer problem solving techniques that involve flexible, spontaneous,
and holistic responses. They are open and direct to communicating with others as they
solve issues. Outreach is a term of Marzano et al. (2005) that aligns with building
community.

A comparison of several of the prominent authors on leadership discussed in the
review of the literature was useful to compare and align their results (Table 1). The
matrix in Table 1 compares Greenleaf’s characteristics of servant leadership with the
characteristics, behaviors, virtues and roles described in several major sources in the
literature.
Table 1
Comparison Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greenleaf’s Characteristics of servant leadership</th>
<th>Abel’s Characteristics of servant leadership used in this research</th>
<th>Marzano, Waters, &amp; McNulty’s twenty-one leadership behaviors</th>
<th>Sergiovanni’s four leadership virtues</th>
<th>The ISLLC Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Listening respectfully</td>
<td>Communication</td>
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</table>

Standard 5: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success all students by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.
Table 1 (continued)
Comparison Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greenleaf’s Characteristics of servant leadership</th>
<th>Abel’s Characteristics of servant leadership used in this research</th>
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<th>Sergiovanni’s four leadership virtues</th>
<th>The ISLLC Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Compassion</td>
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<tr>
<td>Honest</td>
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<tr>
<td>Humble</td>
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<tr>
<td>Caring</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Joyful in her/his own work</td>
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<tr>
<td>Authentic</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Integrity</td>
<td>Ideals/Beliefs</td>
<td>Piety</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greenleaf’s Characteristics of servant leadership</td>
<td>Abel’s Characteristics of servant leadership used in this research</td>
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<td>The ISLLC Standards</td>
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<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Healing</td>
<td>Value-driven</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
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<tr>
<td>A belief in the goodness of individuals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Principle-centered</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 (continued)
Comparison Matrix
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Comparison Matrix

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<th>Sergiovanni’s four leadership virtues</th>
<th>The ISLLC Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open to others</td>
<td>Contingent rewards</td>
<td>Knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Zeal</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A sense of humor</td>
<td>Monitoring or evaluating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insight</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>Communicating vision to everyone involved</td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standard 3: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
### Table 1 (continued)

**Comparison Matrix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greenleaf’s Characteristics of servant leadership</th>
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<th>Marzano, Waters, &amp; McNulty’s twenty-one leadership behaviors</th>
<th>Sergiovanni’s four leadership virtues</th>
<th>The ISLLC Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conceptualization</td>
<td>Taking risks to get results</td>
<td>Involvement in curriculum, instruction, and assessment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wisely utilizing skills of others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creative</td>
<td>Resources</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Focus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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Table 1 (continued)

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<th>Sergiovanni’s four leadership virtues</th>
<th>The ISLLC Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foresight</td>
<td>A sincere desire to make a difference</td>
<td>Intellectual stimulation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Standard 1: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>An effective communicator</td>
<td>Change agent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A feeling for being called to the work</td>
<td>Order</td>
<td>Hope</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 (continued)

Comparison Matrix

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Marzano, Waters, &amp; McNulty’s twenty-one leadership behaviors</th>
<th>Sergiovanni’s four leadership virtues</th>
<th>The ISLLC Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stewardship</td>
<td>A collaborative planner</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subordinating his/her own interests to the common goods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making decisions with participation from others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empowering people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>An ethic of service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modeling a lifestyle of service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trustworthy</td>
<td>Input</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 (continued)

Comparison Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greenleaf’s Characteristics of servant leadership</th>
<th>Abel’s Characteristics of servant leadership used in this research</th>
<th>Marzano, Waters, &amp; McNulty’s twenty-one leadership behaviors</th>
<th>Sergiovanni’s four leadership virtues</th>
<th>The ISLLC Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persuasion</td>
<td>Leading by example</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Standard 6: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural contest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using persuasion rather than coercion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivating people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communicating persuasively</td>
<td>Situational awareness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 (continued)

Comparison Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greenleaf’s Characteristics of servant leadership</th>
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<th>Sergiovanni’s four leadership virtues</th>
<th>The ISLLC Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Providing training to help others succeed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to the growth of people</td>
<td>A collaborative decision-maker</td>
<td></td>
<td>Civility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Standard 2: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 (continued)

Comparison Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greenleaf’s Characteristics of servant leadership</th>
<th>Abel’s Characteristics of servant leadership used in this research</th>
<th>Marzano, Waters, &amp; McNulty’s twenty-one leadership behaviors</th>
<th>Sergiovanni’s four leadership virtues</th>
<th>The ISLLC Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building community</td>
<td>A view of the organization as a part of a larger community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Standard 4: A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of all students by collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuing differences</td>
<td>Building community</td>
<td>Culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting cooperation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Outreach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing recognition with the entire group</td>
<td></td>
<td>Affirmation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

66
In reviewing the literature on servant leadership and school leadership it was difficult to locate literature that addressed how differences in school communities’ expectations might influence the practice of servant leadership in diverse settings. It appears that there is need for an exploratory study to investigate whether there might be such differences. How teachers in different communities perceive the importance of servant leadership characteristics for high school principals seems worthy of study. The research study proposed in Chapter 3 is intended to fill that gap in the literature.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter the structure of the review of literature and the search methodology was discussed. The review is organized into three sections; one section deals with an exploration of the history of servant leadership. The second section is an examination of recent commentary and empirical literature influencing educational leadership theory and practice. The third section is an analysis of selected empirical studies of servant leadership and school leadership. The chapter concluded with an analysis of the review of the selected literature and a chapter summary.
CHAPTER III

METHODODOLOGY

Overview of Study

This research was designed to examine teachers’ perceptions of the importance of identified characteristics of servant leadership for principals in a case study using two diverse communities. The selected literature was examined in terms of the history, recent commentary and empirical literature influencing education leadership theory and practice, and an analysis of selected studies of servant leadership and school leadership.

This chapter includes: (a) an overview of the study and a description of the schools in the two communities, (b) a description of the participants, (c) the selection of participants, (d) a discussion of the research instrument development, (e) a description of the research design, (f) a discussion of the validity and reliability of the instrument, and (g) a discussion on the data collection, a review of the (h) Chi square analysis and (i) the use of ANOVAs with Likert-type data. The purpose of this study was three-fold:

(1) To determine whether there are differences in the perceptions of the importance of identified servant leadership characteristics for high school principals held by teachers in two diverse school communities;

(2) To inform practicing principals and other school leaders of the servant leadership characteristics that are perceived as valuable by teachers in rural and urban schools so they might use those findings to lead more effectively;

(3) To develop recommendations as to how any identified differences might suggest changes in principal preparation programs in order to better prepare school leaders for the unique environments in which they will serve.
With this research being exploratory in nature, a case study was chosen as the best means of investigation in this research (Yin, 2008).

The Schools in the Case Study

The two school systems chosen for this research were chosen due to the convenience of their location to the researcher and the perceived differences that existed between them. The first community involved a school system with two small high schools in rural southwest Virginia. These two high schools combined have approximately 360 students with 35% of these students receiving free or reduced lunch and a special education population of 21% (Virginia Department of Education, 2010). The minority student population (African-American) is less than 3% and English is the primary language of all students. The schools have a very low transient student population. The area has a very low crime rate with mountains and fields being the primary feature of this community. No traffic lights are located in the community, only infrequent stop signs (Principal, personal communication, July 6th, 2009).

The second community involved an urban high school in the coastal area of Virginia. The school has approximately 2000 students with 54% of these students receiving free or reduced lunch and a special education population of 18% (Virginia Department of Education, 2010). The minority population is approximately 64% with less than 1% classified as having English as a second language. The high school has a high transient population. The area around the high school has a concentration of various federal housing programs with a relatively high rate of criminal activity (Principal, personal communication, July 7th, 2009).
Some similarities existed, as both communities have schools governed by the same laws and regulations enforced by the Virginia department of education. Both communities have schools that have met the requirements of adequate yearly progress for the last three years as determined by the federal No Child Left Behind legislation. Additionally, these schools have met the state requirements for state accreditation in the Commonwealth of Virginia (Virginia Department of Education). This state accreditation is based on the schools successfully securing a minimum of 70% of the students passing state developed assessments in each of the four core areas of mathematics, history, science, and English.

The purpose of this study was three-fold:

1. To determine whether there are differences in the perceptions of the importance of identified servant leadership characteristics for high school principals held by teachers in two diverse school communities;
2. To inform practicing principals and other school leaders of the servant leadership characteristics that are perceived as valuable by teachers in rural and urban schools so they might use those findings to lead more effectively;
3. To develop recommendations as to how any identified differences might suggest changes in principal preparation programs in order to better prepare school leaders for the unique environments in which they will serve.
Participants

Participants for this research were teachers in a larger urban high school in coastal Virginia and the teachers in two high schools in a small rural school system. The rationale for selecting these two communities was to have teachers from communities with diverse characteristics. The diversity between the communities of the coastal Virginia community and the population of southwest Virginia group is described at 2000 to 360, respectively. The surroundings being urban versus rural were the basis for the two school systems being chosen for this research. One might conclude the crime rates as being a diverse component in the relationship of these two communities. The socio-economic situation is diverse with the populations being 54% to 35%, for free or reduced lunch rate, and minority populations at 64% to 3%, respectively. Yet, the special education populations at 18% to 21% did not have a noticeable difference.

Selection of Participants

The goal of the selection process was to have approximately 35 participants for each community. Even though mean scores are the ranking instrument; it is important to have a similar number of participants in each community (McCall, 2001). Using similar numbers of participants from each community assured no singular entry has more influence on the data in any one community. There were 35 teachers available to represent the two rural high schools of southwest Virginia; with 31 of the 35 high school teachers participating in this research. There were approximately 100 teachers available to represent the urban high school of coastal Virginia; with 32 of those teachers participating in this research.
Research Instrument Development

The research instrument was an electronic survey that was designed based upon the research of Abel (2000). Abel’s research was conducted in an effort to validate Greenleaf’s characteristics of servant leadership. She approached her research using the Delphi technique to secure her data. In the first iteration of her study a panel of experts offered their list of the characteristics of servant leadership. Abel synthesized the individual lists from the experts into one document. This document was used for the second phase of her Delphi activity and was offered to the experts with the directions to rate the importance of each characteristic on a Likert-type scale with the options of (1) a poor descriptor, (2) a fair descriptor, (3) a good descriptor, and (4) an excellent descriptor. Abel analyzed the results of the second phase of the Delphi model using a statistical analysis to determine the rankings of the characteristics. In Abel’s research she specifically validated six of Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristics; three of Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristics (awareness, conceptualization, and stewardship) were not specifically identified but were implied, and Able was unable to validate Greenleaf’s servant leadership characteristics of healing. Greenleaf’s work focused on 10 characteristics, while other researchers have suggested a different number of servant leadership characteristics (Dennis, Bocarnea, Reynolds, Woods, & Baker, 2007).

Research Design

The result of phase two of Abel’s (2000) research was used to construct the research instrument for this study in that the items on the instrument were validated by Abel’s research on servant leadership. The participants in this study were not informed
they were rating servant leadership characteristics, specifically. To guard against participant bias, the participants were informed they were participating in research dealing with leadership, in general, and not servant leadership. The instructions on the questionnaire were for the participant to rate each characteristic on a Likert-type scale as they viewed the communities’ view of its importance for high school principals to possess. The options for rating each of the items on the questionnaire were: (1) Not important, (2) Not very important, (3) Somewhat important, or (4) Very important. The questionnaire was first administered to 20 high school teachers not associated with either community as a field test of the questionnaire to determine if any of the items on the questionnaire appeared to be unclear or confusing. This was done by interviewing the 20 teachers and asking them to define each of the 48 items on the questionnaire. No items were deemed ambiguous at this point in the research (Yin, 2008).

Reliability and Validity

Validity refers to the extent the measurement procedures assign values that accurately reflect the conceptual variable being measured (McCall, 2001). In this study the content validity of the survey instrument was established through Abel’s research (2000). Abel used a Delphi model to secure open-ended responses from a panel of experts in their field of leadership. Abel then took those responses and constructed a second instrument, a Delphi II, on a Likert-type scale. It was the experts’ responses to Abel’s Delphi II that were used to construct the survey instrument for this study. These responses were the characteristics and behaviors that the panel of experts believed defined servant leadership. Using McCall’s definition of validity, the structure of the
Delphi model, and the responses of the panel of experts in their field of leadership to secure the items used in this instrument, content and face validity may be addressed.

Reliability is refers to whether the measurement procedures assign the same value to a characteristic each time it is measured under essentially the same circumstances (McCall, 2001). The reliability of the instrument was tested using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 16.0 (SPSS 16.0). The researcher conducted the reliability analysis using the actual data secured from the two communities and not the trial data secured from the 20 participants who were not associated with either community. The reliability test generated a Cronbach’s Alpha of .930. George and Mallery (2003) suggest this Cronbach’s Alpha value of .930 represents a good measure of reliability.

Data Collection Process

Approval for this research was secured from the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) in April of 2009 (Appendix E). Upon receiving IRB approval, the central office for each of the schools was contacted. This researcher spoke directly with the division superintendent of the two rural high schools for the southwest Virginia communities and followed by an email detailing the request to conduct the study (Appendix B). The request was approved on April 23, 2009 (Appendix F). For the urban high school of the coastal Virginia community, the researcher spoke to the assistant superintendent assigned to evaluate such requests. Again, following a review of an email (Appendix B) detailing the request, the request to conduct the study was approved on May 18, 2009 (Appendix G).
The principals of the three high schools were contacted to explain the survey methodology and to request their approval and assistance in securing the data for the survey instrument. After speaking to the three principals, an informational email (Appendix C) was sent to the principals for their final approval. Once approved by the three high school principals on May 18th, 2009; the same informational email (Appendix C) was sent to the teachers of the three schools. The survey instrument, generated through survey.vt.edu, was then opened for the high school teachers participating in this research. The survey instrument was closed on July 1st, 2009 with 31 participants in community one (the rural group) and 32 participants in community two (the urban group) responding. The goal was to secure 35 participants from each community. The actual level of participation represents nearly 90% of the established goal. No reason was given by the principals in the case study for those teachers who chose not to participate.

To review, the research instrument was offered to the teachers of a larger urban high school in coastal Virginia. This school’s teachers provided the data for one community in this research. The research instrument was also offered to the teachers of two small rural high schools in southwest Virginia. These teachers provided the data for the other community in this research.

The responses were collected and separated into the two groups by the participants’ response to the first question on the questionnaire, which asked them to identify their employing school system. The questionnaire items were grouped into their factors and analyzed to construct a ranking for each community based on mean scores. Finally, the two rankings were compared and analyzed by means of a one-way ANOVA
to determine if there were statistically significant differences between the ranked factors of the two communities.

The use of ANOVAs with Likert-type Data

There has been discussion in the educational research field on the appropriateness of using ANOVAs with Likert-type data. The issue is that data generated from Likert-type instruments are not interval scaled. Data generated from Likert-type instruments are categorical.

Jamieson (2004) claims, that as ordered categories, the intervals between the scale values are not equal. To use this research as an example, one might reason the distance between “Not important” and “Not very important” is not the same distance as the distance between “Not very important” and “Somewhat important.” Following that rationale, some would argue that means, correlations, or other numeric operations would be invalid (Jamieson, 2004).

Another view maintains that while technically the Likert-type scale item is ordered, using it in parametric tests is valid in some situations where skewness and number of categories were taken into consideration (Lubke & Muthen, 2004). Likewise, Glass (1972) found that $F$ tests in ANOVA could return accurate $p$-values on Likert-type items under certain conditions. To guard against these potential issues, some researchers have (Glass, 1972) suggested running equivalent nonparametric tests to support the ANOVA, (such as Chi-Square) and to use a more stringent alpha level, which is the rationale for selecting an alpha level $= .01$ in lieu of more traditional Alpha $= .05$ to claim a significant finding.
Chi Square Analysis

There are differing views to using ANOVAs with data secured from Likert-type instruments. ANOVAs are primarily used with parametric statistics using interval data. The data secured from Likert-type instruments are categorical (Jamieson, 2004). Some researchers (Glass, 1972; Lubke & Muthen, 2004) contend that ANOVAs can be useful statistical calculations under certain conditions. Such conditions include using a more stringent alpha level and to run nonparametric equivalent tests such as Chi Square. To support these recommendations, a Chi Square test was conducted on the data from Factor 7. The findings of this Chi Square were: \( \chi^2 (1, N=63) = 5.65, p<.05 \). Note this statistic was performed at alpha =.05, the level needed for significance at alpha = .01 was 6.64 and not met. The likely reason for this outcome relates to the combination of an ANOVA with Likert-type scale data and because of the heavy skew of the distribution in Factor 7.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter the following were discussed: (a) an overview of the study and a description of the schools in the two communities, (b) a description of the participants, (c) the selection of participants, (d) a discussion of the research instrument development, (e) a description of the research design, (f) a discussion of the validity and reliability of the instrument, and (g) a discussion on the data collection, (h) a discussion on the Chi square analysis and (i) the use of ANOVAs with Likert-type data.
Chapter IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In this chapter there is an overview of the study and a discussion of the independent items on the research instrument, factor analysis, and using a .400 level for item selection. The skewness of the data is discussed. In addition, the use of .01 for Alpha is explained and the use of Eigenvalues as a measure of variability is described. The retrieval of the raw data and findings of significance are discussed. Additionally, there is an overview of the factors and a discussion of factors 10, 11 and 12. Tables are used to illustrate the empirical calculations of the factors and there is an additional table for the findings of the one-way ANOVA. A figure is used to compare the means of each factor for the communities.

Overview of Study

The purpose of this study was three-fold:

(1) To determine whether there are differences in the perceptions of the importance of identified servant leadership characteristics for high school principals held by teachers in two diverse school communities;

(2) To inform practicing principals and other school leaders of the servant leadership characteristics that are perceived as valuable by teachers in rural and urban schools so they might use those findings to lead more effectively; and

(3) To develop recommendations as to how any identified differences might suggest changes in principal preparation programs in order to better prepare school leaders for the unique environments in which they will serve.
The literature review was examined in three sections: the history of servant leadership, recent commentary and empirical literature influencing educational leadership theory and practice, and an analysis of selected empirical studies of servant leadership and school leadership. The methodology for this study incorporates the use of a questionnaire that was constructed based upon the research of Abel (2000). The questionnaire was administered to high school teachers in two diverse communities, one rural and one urban. The results of the high school teachers’ ratings of characteristics of servant leadership are shared in this chapter.

Independent Items Versus Factors

The raw data demonstrate how the teachers in the rural community and the teachers in the urban community rated the importance of the individual servant leadership characteristics and behavior for high school principals. The focus of this chapter will be on twelve factors (Table 4). Each of these twelve factors is discussed. Factor means are shared in addition to the statistical analysis used to determine if the perception of the teachers from the rural community differed from the perception of the teachers from the urban community for each of the 12 factors.

Factor Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 16.0 (SPSS 16.0) was used to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis on the teachers’ responses to the individual items on the questionnaire to determine the items that loaded in a similar manner (Table 2). The confirmatory factor analysis is used to reduce data to a more manageable format by determining the items that may be grouped based on underlying correlations. Items that scored at least a .400 met the requirements of this loading (Gorsuch, 1983). Using
factor analysis determines the characteristics and behaviors that the teachers rated in like fashion. This allowed the focus of the study to be on a smaller number of grouped items, or factors, instead of 48 items being viewed independently. Table 2 displays the factors that were identified and the 48 items with the score shaded to indicate the factor(s) in which they loaded.

The confirmatory factor analysis determined that 12 distinct factors surfaced (Table 3). The highlighted area of Table 3 indicates the amount of the variance accounted for each factor. These 12 factors (Table 4) account for 82.526% of the total variance. This does not necessarily mean that the factors caused the variance (Field, 2009). Factor 1 was the largest factor with eight items from the survey instrument loading into this factor. Factor 1 had an Eigenvalue of 20.803 and accounted for over 43% of the variance. Factor 2 had four items from the survey instrument that loaded into it and had an Eigenvalue of 2.793 and accounted for nearly 6% of the variance. Factors 3 had an Eigenvalue of 2.575 and accounted for over 5% of the variance. Factors 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 had Eigenvalues of 2.107, 1.964, 1.830, 1.565, 1.340, 1.243, 1.174, 1.125 and 1.92; respectively. These final 9 factors represented approximately 33% of the variance when combined.

Some research instrument items loaded in multiple factors; these items were excluded from this research. Some research instrument items did not load or accounted for less than 2% of the variance, and again, were excluded from this research. All totaled 10 of the 48 items were not used in this research.

To summarize, the 48 items on the instrument were analyzed to determine those items that could be grouped together to form factors (Table 2). The factors that were
generated by the confirmatory factor analysis (Table 3) using SPSS 16.0 generated 12 such factors of items from the instrument (Appendix D). There were 48 items on the survey instrument. These 48 items were reduced to 12 factors by performing a confirmatory factor analysis on the data. This procedure allowed those items that participants responded to in a similar manner to be grouped, thus allowing the examination of items that appeared to belong together in factors instead of conducting 48 individual analyses on all 48 items. The requirement for individual items from the questionnaire instrument to be placed in a factor was that they had to have at least a .400 level for factor selection. Ten items from the survey instrument met the .400 loading requirement for more than one factor and were excluded from the research. These ambiguous items were the characteristic or behavior of: (1) being an effective communicator, (2) being humble, (3) being honest, (4) being value-driven; (5) having a sense of humor, (6) listening respectfully, (7) valuing differences, (8) providing training to help others succeed, (9) modeling a lifestyle of service, and (10) using persuasion rather than coercion.

Using a .400 Level for Item Selection

The factor analysis generated the correlations that exist for all the items on the questionnaire. There are various guides to follow in determining the level of selection for a factor analysis. One guideline in confirmatory factor analysis is that selection should be .700 or higher to confirm that independent variables are represented by a particular factor. However, this is a high standard and functional data generated from realistic sources may not meet this criterion. Researchers, particularly for exploratory purposes,
will use a lower level such as .400 for the central factor and .250 for other factors (Gorsuch, 1983).

Skewness of Data

This research incorporates some of the characteristics and behaviors of servant leadership. The very nature of the research will create a degree of skewness with the responses. In other words, the items on the survey would normally be viewed as positive characteristics for most anyone. Therefore the number of responses to “Not important” and “Not very important” is expected to be fewer than the number of responses to “Somewhat important” and “Very important.” This expectation was validated in the data as all 12 factors had a greater number of responses to selections 3 and 4 than they did to selections 1 and 2. In examining the data, if the data were normally distributed the mean score for each factor would be 2.5 with a standard deviation of 1.0. The factors in this research have mean scores that vary from 2.88 to 3.78 out of a possible 4.0; and the standard deviations range from .29 to 1.04.

The use of Alpha = .01

An ANOVA was chosen as the primary statistical procedure to be performed on the factors in this research. As noted previously, there is some debate as to the appropriateness of ANOVA analysis when using data secured from a Likert-type instrument. There is disagreement in that data from Likert-type instruments are categorical and not interval. The argument is the distance between selection options is not consistent (Jamieson, 2004). The distance between “Not very important” and “Somewhat important” may vary from the distance between “Somewhat important” and “Very important.” Basically, the argument is that using parametric statistics is not
appropriate and nonparametric statistics such as Chi Square should be used (Jamieson, 2004).

A differing view is that an ANOVA can be used on data secured from Likert-type instruments. It is possible to find true parameter values in factor analysis with Likert-type data if skewness and number of categories are taken into consideration when designing the research (Lubke & Muthen, 2004). Glass (1972) found that $F$ tests in an ANOVA could return accurate $p$-values on Likert-type items under certain conditions.

Recommendations to compensate for the potential concerns for findings generated by an ANOVA where the data were secured through an instrument using a Likert-type scale include (1) using a nonparametric statistical procedure such as Chi Square to validate the ANOVA and (2) using a more stringent alpha level such as .01. Additionally, the use of .01 for Alpha follows the reasoning of the Bonferroni technique where the thought is repeated use of an Alpha of .05 will weaken the effect of the statistic by inflating the Alpha when using the same data set.

Eigenvalues

An Eigenvalue (Table 3) of one was used in the confirmatory factor analysis. An Eigenvalue is a measure of the variability. A value of less than one indicates those data combined do not represent even one item. The 12 factors with an Eigenvalue of at least 1.0 were examined. These 12 factors ranged from Factor 1 having 8 items from the research instrument loading with a total Eigenvalue of 20.803, to Factors 10, 11 and 12 having only 1 item from the survey instrument loading, but yet yielding Eigenvalues of 1.174, 1.125 and 1.092, respectively. Thirty-eight items from the survey instrument were distributed across these 12 factors based on the factor loading.
### Table 2

**Characteristic Loading**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Characteristic 01</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.358</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.271</td>
<td>0.356</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.647</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>0.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristic 02</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.335</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>-0.066</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.272</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.411</td>
<td>0.187</td>
<td>0.443</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.136</td>
<td>0.395</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.732</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.149</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.157</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.174</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.798</td>
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The Data

To review, the participants in this research were high school teachers. In one community the participants represent a rural school system in southwest Virginia with two high schools. Teachers from both high schools were participants in this study. In the other community the participants represent one high school in an urban school system in coastal Virginia.

On May 18th, 2009 the research instrument was made available for all participants and on July 1st, 2009 the research instrument was closed for the start of data analysis. In total, 31 high school teachers from the community representing southwest Virginia and 32 high school teachers from the community representing coastal Virginia participated in this research. The raw data were retrieved from Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University’s secured program and site (survey.vt.edu) for graduate students.

The data were first sorted by item number one of the instrument which indicated school employment of the respondent. The remaining data were then evaluated to determine the number of responses for each of the available selections for each item on the survey instrument. The total number of participants who rated the characteristics or behaviors as “Not important, Not very important, Somewhat important, and Very important” for each of the items for each factor was secured. For example; Factor 8 encompassed the characteristics or behaviors of the importance of the principal (1) being self-confident and (2) promoting cooperation. These are the only two items from the research instrument that loaded in Factor 8. In Factor 8, out of 126 possible selections (63 total participants rated these two items for a total of 126 entries on this factor) no participants chose “Not Important” and only three participants chose “Not very important” on either one of the two items from the survey instrument. The remaining two
selections yielded different results; 30 participants chose “Somewhat important” and 93
participants chose “Very important” when they rated these two characteristics or behaviors.

These data (Table 5) were used to construct the analysis for each factor. For each of the
12 factors, the total number of responses for each factor for each of the four possible choices the
participants could select was calculated. Each of the selections was given a number value, as
“Not important” was given a rating of “1,” “Not very important” was given a rating of “2,”
“Somewhat important” was given a rating of “3,” and “Very important” was given a rating of
“4.” The total mean and standard deviation was calculated from these ratings of each item on the
research instrument.
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The data for the twelve factors were extracted to form a comparison of the two communities in this research by using an ANOVA. The mean scores and standard deviations were reported for each of the communities for each factor in addition to the $F$ ratio and $p$-value (Table 6). The mean for each community for each factor being displayed in addition to the standard deviation allowed for a comparison of means. Additionally, the comparison of standard deviations assisted in understanding the level of disagreement within each community for each factor. The greater the standard deviation, the greater the spread of responses from the participants; therefore if there is disagreement as to the importance of an item it will manifest in a larger standard deviation (Gorsuch, 1983). Conversely, the smaller the standard deviation, the less the spread of responses from the participants; therefore if there is agreement as to the importance of an item it will yield a smaller standard deviation. For example, Factor 8 generated a mean score of 3.65 with a standard deviation of .43 for the community of rural southwest Virginia and a mean score of 3.78 with a standard deviation of .38 for the community of urban coastal Virginia. When compared, these two communities generated an $F$ ratio of 1.767 with a $p$-value of .189 for Cluster 8.
Table 6

Summary of Analysis of Variance for Each Factor

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*Significant using alpha of .01
Findings of Significance

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the data. The results of the one-way ANOVA conducted on the 12 factors revealed a significant difference on Factor 7; $F(2, 63) = 8.167$, $p < .01$, with an effect size of .118, based on the criteria for ANOVA effect sizes as values of .01, .06, and .14 representing small, medium, and large effect, respectively. This finding essentially means that the effect of some characteristics on Factor 7 (building community, communicating vision to everyone involved, and empowering people) is large (Field, 2009).

A second finding is the universal nature of Factor 10 which represents the characteristic of having a sincere desire to make a difference. When comparing the responses of both communities the standard deviations are identical at .46, and the mean score for the two communities are 3.71 and 3.72. Factor 2 has similar qualities with standard deviations of .44 and .41, and means of 3.50 and 3.53 respectively. Factor 1 has mean scores of 3.55 and 3.63 with standard deviations of .30 and .32 for the southwest Virginia and coastal Virginia communities, respectively. A graphic comparison of the means of the two communities is displayed in the following figure. This illustrates the similarities of mean scores for each factor.

An Overview of the Factors

There were 48 items on the survey instrument. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the data and reduced the 48 items into 12 factors. In this process ten items on the survey instrument loaded in multiple factors and therefore were excluded from the research due to the ambiguous nature of the item. These ten items represent the characteristics or behaviors of being or having (1) being an effective communicator, (2) being humble, (3) being honest, (4) being value-driven, (5) having a sense of humor, (6) listening respectfully, (7) valuing
differences, (8) providing training to help others succeed, (9) modeling a lifestyle of service, and (10) using persuasion rather than coercion. The end result was 12 factors contain the remaining 38 characteristics or behaviors identified in Abel’s (2000) servant leadership behavior study. The 38 items were not evenly distributed across the 12 factors. The distribution of items ranged from Factor 1 with eight of the 38 items, to Factors 10, 11 and 12 with only one of the 38 items loading in each of these factors (Table 4). Factors 10, 11 and 12 are examined because they have an Eigenvalue strong enough to meet the requirements of this research.

**Factor 10**

Factor 10 had an Eigenvalue of 1.174. The comparison of mean scores and the standard deviation of the two communities show mean scores of 3.71 and 3.72 with an identical standard deviation of .46. The singular item from the survey instrument that represents this factor is the characteristic or behavior of having a sincere desire to make a difference (Table 4). In examining this item one needs to determine the amount of homogeneity in the survey participants’ interpretation of this item. In other words, most participants may have had a similar interpretation of “having a sincere desire to make a difference” when they rated the item.

**Factor 11**

Factor 11 had an Eigenvalue of 1.125. The comparison of mean scores and the standard deviation of the two communities show mean scores of 3.10 and 2.88 with standard deviations of .79 and 1.04 respectively. The singular item from the survey instrument that represents this factor is the characteristic or behavior of being spiritual (Table 4). The strength of this item is noteworthy in that a singular item was strong enough to meet the minimal requirement for the Eigenvalue.
Factory 12

Factor 12 had an Eigenvalue of 1.092. The comparison of mean scores and the standard deviation of the two communities show mean scores of 3.26 and 3.41 with standard deviations of .68 and .592 respectfully. The singular item from the survey instrument that represents this factor is the characteristic or behavior of taking risks for results (Table 4).
Figure 1

Population Mean Comparison by Factors

Factors

- Rural
- Urban
Chapter Summary

In this chapter there is an overview of the study and a discussion of the independent items on the research instrument, factor analysis, and using a .400 level for item selection. The skewness of the data is discussed. In addition, the use of .01 for Alpha is explained and the use of Eigenvalues as a measure of variability is described. The retrieval of the raw data and findings of significance are discussed. Additionally, there is an overview of the factors and a discussion of factors 10, 11 and 12. Tables are used to illustrate the empirical calculations of the factors and there is an additional table for the findings of the one-way ANOVA. A figure is used to compare the means of each factor for the communities. Finally, the result of a one-way ANOVA conducted on the 12 factors determined Factor 7 was significantly different $F(2, 63) = 8.167, p < .01$ with a $p$-value of .006 using an alpha value of .01 and with an effect size of .118.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter includes an overview of the study, a discussion of the findings, conclusions, implications and recommendations for further research. The characteristics of building community, empowering others and communicating vision to everyone involved are examined. These three characteristics comprise Factor 7, the only factor for which a statistically significant difference was found when responses from the two groups were compared. Additionally, an overview of the 12 factors is included in this chapter with a separate discussion on the influence of factor 1. A section incorporating the researcher’s reflections concludes the study.

Overview of the Study

Robert Greenleaf spent the latter part of his life refining the concept of servant leadership (Frick, 2004). Other researchers have used his work as the template and inspiration for their own work (Collins, 2001; Covey, 1989; Fullan, 1997; Senge, 1994). Yet, after reviewing their differing perspectives, one might conclude that leadership in general, and servant leadership in particular, is often situational and an elusive concept. With that perspective in mind, strong and appropriate leadership in the ever-changing landscape of public education remains difficult to understand and even more difficult to secure. In exploring this idea, the purposes of this study were three-fold:

(1) To determine whether there are differences in the perceptions of the importance of identified servant leadership characteristics for high school principals held by teachers in two diverse school communities;
To inform practicing principals and other school leaders of the servant leadership characteristics that are perceived as valuable by teachers in rural and urban school settings so they might use those findings to lead more effectively; and

(3) To develop recommendations as to how any identified differences might suggest changes in principal preparation programs in order to better prepare school leaders for the unique environments in which they will serve.

Teachers from the high schools selected for this study were the participants. In this study a questionnaire was the instrument used to secure the data. The participants were not informed that they were rating the characteristics of servant leadership; but rather simply asked to rate leadership characteristics and behaviors described in the instrument. This was done in an effort to avoid leading the participants to “right” answers. The concern was that if the participants knew they were rating characteristics of servant leadership, they might react in ways not truly representative of their personal views.

Initially, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the data to determine whether a smaller number of factors existed. The result of this statistical procedure grouped the 48 items into 12 factors. Ten of the 48 items loaded in multiple factors, and for that reason were not included in the final analysis due to their ambiguous nature. Additionally, those items that accounted for less than 2% of the variance were not included in the final analysis.

Findings

The means and standard deviations for each of the twelve factors in each of the two groups were calculated. Finally, the mean of each factor for both groups were compared using a one-way ANOVA (alpha = .01). This analysis determined that differences in the responses of the two groups on 11 of the factors were not significant.
The major finding of this study is that teacher respondents in both school settings seem to be in agreement that nearly all the servant leadership characteristics and behaviors of principals examined in this study are important. While the purpose of this research was to determine whether teachers in two different settings (rural and urban) would have different views regarding the importance of identified servant leadership characteristics for high school principals in their communities, the findings indicate that is not the case.

As noted earlier, the analysis did produce one factor with statistically significant differences in the responses of participants from the two groups. This Factor (Factor 7) included three characteristics of servant leadership from among the 48 possible characteristics that were a part of the survey instrument.

One would likely conclude that the eleven factors that were not determined to be significantly different indicate that the respondents in these two diverse communities agree that these factors are important. These 11 factors represent 35 characteristics or behaviors of servant leadership.

In summary, while the three characteristics representing Factor 7 suggest there might be a difference in the views of urban and rural teachers who participated in this study, 11 factors that include 35 characteristics suggest there is no difference in the beliefs of the teachers from the two school systems who participated in the study. While there is some limited evidence to suggest there may be differences in the views of teachers about the importance of servant leadership characteristics or behaviors in their high school principals, the evidence is much more in favor of there being few, if any, differences attributed to the rural/urban characteristic of the school division. While the latter conclusion is most likely the proper one, a short review of the
characteristics that comprise Factor 7 and some speculation as to why those differences exist, may be helpful.

As noted earlier, responses to the three items that make up Factor 7 yielded a comparison that was statistically significant at the .01 level with an $F$ ratio = 8.167. These three characteristics included in Factor 7 were:

1. Building community
2. Communicating vision to everyone involved
3. Empowering people

In Factor 7, the group representing the urban school system had a higher mean and a smaller standard deviation when compared to the participants from the two rural high schools in southwestern Virginia. The question then became, “What is it about these three characteristics that would make it more important to teachers in one community?” The higher mean for respondents in the urban setting is a result of participants in that setting rating the three characteristics within Factor 7 higher than their counterparts in the rural community.

Given that this research has done more to validate the importance of a wide range of principal characteristics/behaviors (very high mean scores form almost every item by both groups of participants) in the eyes of teachers in both settings, it is probably worthwhile to examine some of the characteristics that constitute the eleven factors for which there was general agreement among those surveyed.

The Influence of Factor 1

The factors are sequenced based on the Eigenvalues generated from the analysis of the data (Table 3). As one examines the research with this knowledge of the ordering of the factors, the expectation should be Factor 1 will be the largest factor with the greatest Eigenvalue and
potentially have the most influence on this research. The result of the analysis does indicate
Factor 1 not only has the greatest Eigenvalue, but it is considerably larger than any other singular
factor as Factor 1 has an Eigenvalue of 20.803 and the next largest factor, Factor 2, has a
Eigenvalue of only 2.793. The fact that there must be one factor with the greatest Eigenvalue is
understood, however traditionally one would not expect to have such a large difference between
the largest and the next largest factor in an analysis. With this unexpectedly large difference
noted, Factor 1 and its influence warrants discussion.

Factor 1 is comprised of eight items from the survey instrument. These eight
characteristics or behaviors that are represented by eight items on the survey instrument are
being trustworthy, leading by example, building relationships, wisely utilizing skills of others,
persistent, being principle-centered, zeal, and having integrity. The underlying correlation
coefficients from the factor analysis determined the loadings in Factor 1. The minimum factor
loading used for membership in a factor was .400, these eight items loaded at .594, .758, .756,
.621, .590, .624, .475, and .702.

The question that surfaces with this examination might be, “What is it about the eight
characteristics or behaviors in Factor 1 that generate such an exceptional difference when
compared to other factors?” If one examines these eight characteristics or behaviors one might
divide them into two categories, those characteristics and behaviors that are intrinsic and those
that might be viewed as extrinsic. Leading by example, building relationships and wisely
utilizing skills of others might be viewed as extrinsic characteristics; in other words, those that
are learned behaviors that are more observable than their counterparts. Being trustworthy,
persistent, and having zeal and integrity are not as easy to detect and might be more intrinsic in
nature. Additionally, one might examine one’s own definition of “Principal.” This research
stems from the potentially differing views of the work principals do and how different functions are emphasized in different circumstances. Might these characteristics or behaviors that are represented by Factor 1 be somewhat universal traits? If not, what would justify such superiority when compared to the other eleven factors.

Conclusions

This study was an attempt at determining if two different communities would benefit from different styles of leadership at the high school level to satisfy their expectations. The communities selected for the study have diverse environments. People are drawn to these communities for various reasons. One might speculate that these same reasons would result in preferences for some leadership characteristics over others.

Clearly, different environments call for different leadership styles. Much research has been devoted to which styles are most effective in which environments and whether these characteristics can be matched in advance or whether “the right fit” is situational. This study examined a particular set of leadership characteristics or behaviors called “servant leadership” in an effort to determine whether the characteristics generally associated with that concept are more desirable in certain locations. While many settings could have been examined, this study was undertaken in an effort to determine whether those “servant leadership” characteristics or behaviors are more valued in a rural or urban setting.

As previously shared, the data showed only one factor of twelve (three characteristics of 38) was statistically different. Conversely, the responses for the other eleven factors did not yield statistically significant difference. Therefore, it must be concluded that the characteristics and behaviors associated with servant leadership are likely more similar when compared across rural and urban environments.
Implications for Practice

There were three purposes in this research. The discussion to this point has explored the first purpose: to determine whether there are differences in the perceptions of the importance of identified servant leadership characteristics for high school principals held by teachers in two diverse school communities. The characteristics of building community, communicating vision to everyone involved, and empowering others were viewed differently by the participants in both communities.

The second purpose was to inform practicing principals and other school leaders which servant leadership characteristics are perceived as valuable by teachers in rural and urban schools so they might use those findings to lead more effectively. This can be achieved through publishing this research and other research of a similar nature. Current practitioners might be able to better manage and lead their communities and schools with the synergy that this knowledge might bring forward. It would be beneficial to know those characteristics that are universal regardless of the environment, and those characteristics that are highly reliant on the community.

The third purpose was to develop recommendations as to how those differences might indicate the need for changes in principal preparation programs in order to prepare school leaders for the unique environments they will serve. This study’s finding can lead to principal preparation programs that differentiate between demographic characteristics, such as urban versus rural, or potentially affluent versus low socio-economic. The faculty of principal preparation programs might consider having courses dedicated to the diversity of communities. The faculty of principal preparation programs could incorporate components in pre-existing courses which would encourage aspiring administrators to have a better understanding of their
own leadership style. Additionally, principal preparation programs might have components that examine the universal behaviors and characteristics of servant leadership. In addition to the above commentary on the characteristics of building community, communicating vision to everyone involved, and empowering others; principal preparation programs can benefit from those factors that were deemed to be more universal-like. The characteristics of having a sincere desire to make a difference, insight, making decisions with participation for others, subordinating his or her own interests to the common good, and sharing recognition with the entire group were found to be more universal. Therefore, principal preparation programs might incorporate these findings into the program.

Recommendations for Further Research

A desired outcome of this study was to fill a gap in the literature on servant leadership. However, with this study being an attempt at exploring what might be deemed as situational leadership, there is a need for further research. The first recommendation would be to replicate this research using two communities with greater diversity; the fact that the two school systems represented in the case study are both governed by the Commonwealth of Virginia is a variable that should be acknowledged. It is difficult to control the influence of this variable; therefore using two communities representing two different states might be beneficial. An obvious recommendation would be to replicate this research using a larger group of participants from each community. The stakeholders and participants of this research were defined to be high school teachers. Replicating this research using a different group such as elementary teachers, parents of high school students, or possibly retired teachers would yield additional insight and might produce differing results. Replicating this study using a public school and a private school could be a valuable study in view of the more sharply defined differences in the schools. In
addition, current federal and state policies promoting the establishment of charter and voucher schools suggest that research on perceptions of servant leadership in those settings would be of value. The second purpose was to develop recommendations as to how those differences might suggest changes in principal preparation programs in order to better prepare school leaders for the unique environments in which they will serve.

How can a principal struggle in one school and succeed in another? There are examples of this being true (Glass, 2004; Barley & Beesley, 2007). There are many variables that come into play with the level of success with a principal. One might ascertain that a set of these variables is related to the characteristics and expectations of a particular community. Once replicated and validated, principal preparation programs might improve the knowledge base of participants, hence producing an individual better suited to succeed in more environments.

Reflections

This experience was one that I will never forget. I predict this is a common statement from others who have undertaken such a task. I am very passionate about the concept of servant leadership and this research was therapeutic at times. In attempting to validate a leadership style to which I am especially committed, this work became very personal as the research grew. I learned that my hypothesis was correct; at least on the surface. There are recommendations that need to be considered that hopefully will validate this work.

Earlier I asked why some principals experience success in one environment while not experiencing success previously. I would venture to guess all seasoned administrators can recall a peer who pursued opportunities elsewhere due to an unsuccessful experience as a principal. They secure a job doing the same thing in a different area, and we frequently hear stories of those who prosper. You might assume they learned from their previous mistakes. Or, could they
have been hired as a principal in an area that “fits” their leadership style; or maybe a combination of both?

The hope is that those colleagues who read this study will be stirred to examine their own views of servant leadership. Specific to this research is the question of are there characteristics of servant leadership viewed differently in communities with diverse demographics? Do communities have different priorities when it comes to their perceived needs in a leader of their local high school? Conversely, might there be characteristics that are universal, regardless of the demographics? These are three questions that might never be fully answered.
References


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APPENDIX A

Panel of Experts from Abel’s Delphi Model
1. Joseph P. Johnson, of Abingdon, Virginia, had served as a member of the Virginia House of Delegates.

2. Judge Jim Rausch, of San Antonio, Texas

3. Ruby Rogers, of Gate City, Virginia, had served on the Virginia State Board of Education.

4. Edward J. Sullivan, of Fredricksburg, Virginia, had served as a member of the school board for Stafford County Public Schools.


6. Nancy C. Huber, of the University of Arizona, had served as the developer of several leadership courses and has completed a book on leadership entitled *Leading from Within: Finding Personal Direction*.


10. Jack Lowe, of Dallas, Texas, is CEO of TD Industries.


13. The Reverend Max Case, of Indianapolis, Indiana.
17. Gary Doyle, Superintendent of Bloomfield Hills Schools.
18. John Draper, of Montgomery, Alabama is Executive Director of The Council of Leaders of Alabama Schools.
21. Bill Jamieson, of Asheville, North Carolina, was the director of the Institute of Servant Leadership in Asheville.
22. Jeanne McCarty, of Silver Springs, Maryland was the director of Roots and Shoots, and educational branch of the Jane Goodall Institute.
23. Roy Peterson, of Orlando, Florida, had been trained in servant leadership and lead the Wycliffe Bible Translators.
25. De De Damschroder, at the Virginia Office of Volunteerism in Richmond.
26. Mary Foley, of Manassas, Virginia, coordinated volunteer efforts through her work at the Voluntary Action Center of Prince William County.
27. Rita Gettman of Houston, Texas, is national director of Inter-faith Community Ministries.
28. James A. Laub, of Wellington, Florida, is the director of World Servants.
APPENDIX B

Informational Letter to Superintendents
April 20, 2009

Dr. XXX XXXXXX
Superintendent
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXX

Dr. XXXXXXX,

I am Gregory Brown, doctoral student in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in Blacksburg, Virginia. My advisor is Dr. Wayne Tripp, Clinical Assistant Professor and Program Leader for Educational Leadership.

I graciously request your assistance in securing data for my dissertation. The focus of my research is teachers’ perceptions of their community’s view of the importance of characteristics and behaviors of servant leadership for high school principals. The data for this research will be secured through the use of an electronic survey. The participants will be given a web-site for the survey. Completion of the entire process should take no more than 10 minutes. The participants for this study will be high school teachers.

If my request is approved, I would like to then contact the principals of the high schools in your school division to share this information and secure their assistance in soliciting teachers to complete the survey.

Please feel free to contact me at (540) 599-8447 as you evaluate this request. I will be more than open to answer all the questions you might have.

I have included a copy of the questionnaire for your review.

Thank you for considering my request.

Respectfully,

Gregory A. Brown Dr. Wayne Tripp
Clinical Assistant Professor Program Leader for Educational Leadership Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
APPENDIX C

Informational Letter to Participants
Hello,

I am a doctoral student at Virginia Tech and I am conducting a research study for my dissertation that includes a sampling of high school teachers. I am interested in your perceptions of various characteristics of school leadership. I believe the information that you can provide to this study will help principals and those who are responsible for administrator preparation programs better understand the leadership role of the high school principal.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please click on the attached link to complete the electronic survey. Completion of the survey should take no more than ten minutes of your time. Please assist me by returning the data by June 5th, 2009.

Your participation is entirely voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. Your decision whether or not to participate will involve no penalty or loss to benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your responses are anonymous as no identifying information is collected. There is no risk or cost to participate in this study. There are no direct benefits for participants, but it is anticipated that the results of the research will add to the current body of knowledge on the topic.

If you have any questions about this research, please call Greg Brown (student investigator) at (540) 921-1867. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in a research project, please contact the Virginia Tech Office of Research Compliance at 2000 Kraft Drive, Suite 2000 Blacksburg, Virginia 24060.

The link is: XXXXXXXXXXX

Thank you for your time and, again, I would greatly appreciate your participation in this study.

Sincerely,

Gregory A. Brown
APPENDIX D

Electronic Instrument
High School Leadership

In what school system are you currently a high school teacher?
☐ XXXXXXX
☐ YYYYYYY

Directions:
Please choose the response that represents your first impression as you read the questions. Try not to think of your current or past administrators or school leaders as you proceed through the survey.

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'empathy' for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'compassion' for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is being 'an effective communicator' as a characteristic for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important
In your community, how important is 'a view of the organization as a part of a larger community' as a characteristic for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is being 'a collaborative decision-maker' as a characteristic for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is 'a sincere desire to make a difference' as a characteristic for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is 'a belief in the goodness of individuals' as a characteristic for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the ability to be 'open to others' for a characteristic for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important
In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'zeal' for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'humble' for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'spiritual' for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'selfless' for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'honest' for a high school principal to possess?
☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important
In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'trustworthy' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'value-driven' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'caring' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'joyful in his or her work' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'a collaborative planner' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important
In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'authentic' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of having 'a feeling for being "called" to the work' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of having 'a sense of humor' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of having 'insight' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of having 'self-confidence' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important
In your community, how important is the characteristic of having 'an ethic of service' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'listening respectfully' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'building community' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'making decisions with participation from others' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'mediating conflict' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important
In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'communicating vision to everyone involved' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'leading by example' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'encouraging people' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'valuing differences' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'providing training to help others succeed' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important
In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'taking risks to get results' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'building relationships' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'modeling a lifestyle of service' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'using persuasion rather than coercion' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'motivating people' for a high school principal to possess?

- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important
In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'subordinating his or her own interests to the common good' for a high school principal to possess?

☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'wisely utilizing skills of others' for a high school principal to possess?

☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'promoting cooperation' for a high school principal to possess?

☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'empowering people' for a high school principal to possess?

☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'sharing recognition with the entire group' for a high school principal to possess?

☐ Not important
☐ Not very important
☐ Somewhat important
☐ Very important
In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'communicating persuasively' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'creative' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'persistent' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of being 'principle-centered' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important

In your community, how important is the characteristic of 'integrity' for a high school principal to possess?
- Not important
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important
APPENDIX E

Institutional Review Board Approval
DATE: April 20, 2009

MEMORANDUM

TO: Wayne Tripp
    Gregory Brown

FROM: Carmen Green


I have reviewed your request to the IRB for exemption for the above referenced project. The research falls within the exempt status. Approval is granted effective as of April 20, 2009.

As an investigator of human subjects, your responsibilities include the following:

1. Report promptly proposed changes in the research protocol. The proposed changes must not be initiated without IRB review and approval, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects.

2. Report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

cc: File
APPENDIX F

Approval from Administration for Population One
Mr. Brown,

Just for your information, Kevin Siers wanted me to deny your request without even looking at it. As usual, I didn't listen to him and did review the survey. I approve your request to contact our principals to disseminate the survey to our high school teachers.

----- Original Message ----- 
From: Greg Brown
To:
Sent: Tuesday, April 28, 2009 10:53 AM
Subject: Greg Brown-Request-Survey

Thank you for your consideration of my request. Please feel free to call with any questions at 540-921-1711 or 540-599-8447.

Respectfully,

Gregory Brown
Principal
Giles High School

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APPENDIX G

Approval from Administration for Population Two
Mr. Brown,
I received your phone message. I am proctoring for SOL testing in the schools, so I am in and out of the office.

I sent an email to confirm HS agreement to participate (voluntary--not mandated and she would schedule at convenience to send survey), with the documents you sent. Its a very important time in the schools! Do you want to give her a call?

Note: The survey should be a fast turnaround...
I think she could send your survey link by email to her faculty. However, it is a one-shot deal--no follow-ups or problem-adjustments allowed. is not responsible/nor guarant response--what you get is it--you simply report what you got...
Recommend you insert Tech logo to add "college" effect.

>>> Greg Brown <gbrown@gilesk12.org> 05/12/09 4:49 PM >>>
Dr. ,

I hope this Email finds you well. Find below the answers to your questions. Please let me know of any other questions I might be able answer.

The survey will be web-based through Va. Tech's secured system.

The 10 characteristics are: Listening, Empathy, Healing, Awareness, Persuasion, Conceptualization, Foresight, Stewardship, Commitment to the growth of people, and Building Community.

Even though some teachers might not live in the community they work with the students, parents, and businesses in the school's
community. That gives them a unique insight into what the community wants/needs, and that is what I'm hoping to uncover. But, I can make any change you request to make you feel more comfortable with the instrument. I plan to share more details with [REDACTED] and she might be able to champion any questions that might occur.

At 03:23 PM 5/12/2009, you wrote:
> Hello Mr. Brown,
> Received your phone message, and sorry for delay. You may have told
> me the answers to questions below,
> but I didn't note earlier, please respond to each question.
> 
> Survey will be web or paper/pencil?
> 
> What are the Abel? characteristics for servant leadership measured
> by this hs survey?
> 
> "In your community"--could mean various (plus, we have a lot of
> teachers who live in other cities but work in [REDACTED]; can you change to
> "in your school" or how will you explain--intro to survey?
> 
> Thanks for your help,
>
> [REDACTED], Ph.D.

> >>> Greg Brown <gbrown@gilesk12.org> 5/5/2009 5:03 PM >>>
> Dr. [REDACTED],
>
> Thank you for considering my request. Find attached the instrument
> for my research, a cover letter, and my Chapter 3 for my
> research. The IRB approval number is: IRB00000667. Let me know if
> there are any questions I might be able to answer at 540-599-847 or
> 540-921-1711.
> 
> Respectfully,
> Gregory Brown
> Principal
> Giles High School