FACULTY PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP AT CHRISTIAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES WITH MISSIONS OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP

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Abstract

This study examined differences in faculty perceptions of organizational leadership at Christian institutions with servant leadership missions. The study evaluated faculty members' perceptions based on the independent variables of employment status (full- or part-time/adjunct), number of years employed at the institution, and attendance at an orientation about mission. A sample of 860 faculty members from 11 institutions participated in the online Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) measuring the servant leadership dimensions of Values People, Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, Provides Leadership, Shares Leadership, and the Overall score. An independent samples *t* test indicated that part-time faculty participants hold significantly higher perceptions of organizational leadership's alignment with the six dimensions and overall. A one-way analysis of variance measured differences in three ranges of years employed at the institution: 0 to 5 years; 6 to 15 years; and more than 15 years. The ANOVA indicated that perceptions for faculty with the fewest years of experience were significantly higher than those with the greatest number of years of experience for all six dimensions and overall. For some dimensions, faculty perceptions in the range of 0 to 5 years were significantly higher than those in the 6 to 15 years range. For some dimensions, perceptions in the 6 to 15 years range were significantly higher than those in the range of more than 15 years. An independent samples *t* test indicated that attendance at an orientation about mission made no significant difference in faculty perceptions for any of the dimensions of servant leadership and overall.
Keywords: Christian college and university, mission, servant leadership, full-time faculty, adjunct, years employed

Dedication

This study is dedicated to my parents, Wesley and Darleen Dollahite, who never had the opportunity to attend college, yet they encouraged all their children's academic pursuits, trusted us to get things done, expected us to lead capably, and empowered us to serve. They introduced me to my Savior, the original Servant Leader who forgives and sustains. As role models, they taught me to evaluate issues and leaders carefully, forgoing the superficiality of position, personality, or preference. By assigning responsibilities and through conversations with substance, they conveyed confidence in my abilities, without allowing excuses but understanding of circumstances. My mother's and father's selfless examples of leadership in church, school, business, and community still teach our family much. Because of their resolute faith, wisdom, and guidance, many blessings and opportunities have been mine.

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It seems inadequate, but I wish to acknowledge the many adjunct faculty members who embody servant leadership as they teach tirelessly and admirably within institutions across the nation, keeping what is best for students as their foremost objective. Though the study was not begun with my committee chair in mind, I admire Dr. Norma Hedin and thank her for being both an adjunct and excellent professor.

Wonderfully dedicated full-time professors, motivated by missions of servant leadership and commitments of faith, are the stitching that holds the fabric of Christian higher education together. Thank you for befriending and mentoring part-time professors when your schedules are already full and your classes demanding. Your kind, exemplary lives always encourage me.

I respect and express appreciation for the time investment, care, and guidance of the busy administrators at Dallas Baptist University who served on my committee: Dr. Gail Linam, Provost, and Dr. Rick Gregory, former Dean of the Gary Cook School of Leadership and Graduate Studies.

To my daughter, and the many family members, friends, brothers, and sisters who encouraged me and asked often about my progress, I appreciate your concern and prayers for the person and the process. Sometimes, it is because others think we can accomplish something that we can. Thank you all.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

Foundational to the nature of a learning organization, institutions of higher education in the United States establish a mission, make decisions based on mission, and are accredited or found lacking, based on that self-identified mission. Traditional to higher education is the concept of the full-time, tenured faculty member who dedicates the entirety of his or her time and energy to the pursuit of academic scholarship, educating students for careers, and mentoring for success. Operational to institutions of higher education today, whether public or private, is the pressure to contain costs and deliver high quality academic programs. At the crossroads of the foundational, traditional, and operational, questions of efficacy arise. Is the trend of employing large numbers of adjunct faculty contributing to or detracting from the learning organization's ability to accomplish its mission?

Background of the Study

When the mission of an institution, which identifies itself as Christian, is one of servant leadership, then the import of mission congruence and credibility intensifies as a relevant topic for leadership studies. In 2000, Bass called servant leadership an "untested theory," but acknowledged that "its many links to encouraging follower learning, growth, and autonomy . . . will play a role in the future leadership of the learning organization" (p. 33). In 2008, Bass and Bass go so far as to recommend that servant leadership "can be a model for higher education" (p. 554). This study considers some of these concepts of mission alignment at postsecondary learning organizations which espouse servant leadership and which self-identify as Christian.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study is to determine if differences exist in faculty perceptions of organizational leadership, based on faculty employment status (full- or part-time), number of years employed at the institution, or participation in orientation about mission, at Christian universities which have servant leadership missions, visions, or foundational principles. Perceptions regarding how well an institution accomplishes its servant leadership mission might depend upon a number of independent variables, including the professor's employment status. Another independent variable, which might contribute to the professor's perspective on an organization being aligned with its mission, is whether or not the faculty member attended a time of orientation about the institution's mission. A third independent variable which might impact the faculty member's perspective about organizational mission alignment would address the length of time the professor has had to become acculturated to the institution.

Purpose of the Study

The objectives of this study are:

1. To determine faculty perceptions about organizational leadership's alignment with mission, based on their employment status (full-time or part-time), at Christian institutions which identify their organizational culture as valuing servant leadership.
2. To determine faculty perceptions about organizational leadership's alignment with mission, based on their number of years employed at the institution (0 to 5 years; 6 to 15 years; more than 15 years), at Christian institutions which identify their organizational culture as valuing servant leadership.

3. To determine faculty perceptions about organizational leadership's alignment with mission, based on whether or not faculty attended an orientation about mission, at Christian institutions which identify their organizational culture as valuing servant leadership.

Rationale

The competing demands of regional accreditation standards, which stipulate that an institution must employ adequate full-time faculty to accomplish mission, in juxtaposition to the current budgetary restrictions, necessitating the use of part-time faculty, offer an opportunity to gain new insight. Budget, however, is not the only reason for hiring adjunct faculty, since some are employed because their expertise might not be available in full-time faculty, there are too few sections to require a full-time faculty member, or the academic program would benefit from scholars practicing in their fields (Cohen & Brawer, 2003; Ehrenberg, 2010; Forbes, Hickey, & White, 2010). Why should the faculty be surveyed rather than administrators? Greenleaf (2002), the first to identify *Servant Leadership* (SL) as a type in his 1970 essay titled "The Servant as Leader," believed that administrators are "not good judges of their organization" (p. 70)—at least in terms of how well it is accomplishing its servant leadership mission. Greenleaf explained that administrators are so intrinsically tied to the operations of the organization as to have some inherent subjectivity. Herman's (2010) research seemed to concur and found a "gap in what top leaders perceive their leadership style and their organizational culture to be and what others within the organization perceive" (p. 98).

The professor is a significant lens through which the student's impression of the institution and its mission can be formed, and a faculty member's impression of leadership's congruence with mission can frame his perspective of the organization's ability to accomplish its mission. As such, a study to determine both full- and part-time faculty's perceptions of mission alignment might offer new insights into a central tenet within a central constituency group of a learning organization. As institutions employ increasing numbers of part-time faculty, it would be valuable to focus greater attention on some prevailing assumptions about full- and part-time faculty.

Research Questions

The questions guiding this research center on faculty members' perceptions of an institution's leadership. Do full-time faculty view their institution as exemplifying the characteristics of servant leadership? Do part-time faculty members view their institution's leadership as more or less exemplary of servant leadership characteristics than do full-time faculty? Are there differences in faculty members' perceptions based on the length of time that a faculty member has been employed at the institution? Would attending a time of orientation regarding the servant leadership mission of the institution make a difference in faculty members' perspectives of the organization's alignment with its mission? While the answers to these questions do not address the teaching effectiveness of full- versus part-time faculty, the results might offer insights into what these pivotal agents of the institution believe and, perhaps, convey in either subtle or overt ways to the students they teach.

Significance of the Study

From Kouzes and Posner's (2002) perspective, effective leadership may be construed as serving the organization's people in light of mission. Mazza (1999) suggested legitimacy is best determined by asking how "people feel about institutions"

(p. 150). Servant leadership studies have been conducted with diverse groups: K-12 leaders and teachers (Black, 2010; Metzcar, 2008; Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, & Jinks, 2007); at the college or university level in both public and private institutions (Anderson, 2005; Crippen, 2005; Iken, 2005; Jordan, 2006; Letting, 2004; McCuddy & Cavin, 2009; McDougle, 2009; Melchar, Bosco, & Cantrell, 2008; Thompson, 2002); with the volunteer boards of credit unions (Ghormley, 2009); with the sales staff of a variety of industries (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009a); at a financial services business (Kell, 2010); among elected county treasurers (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006); with Southern Baptist Church pastors and staff (Kong, 2007); in manufacturing contexts (Rauch, 2007); through the employees at a Christian-based for-profit (Arfsten, 2006); at a large nonprofit (Irving, 2005); within family businesses (Cater, 2006); and via volunteers at social enterprises (Klamon, 2006) to name a few. Kell (2010) made a recommendation of adding educational institutions but narrowing to those with a stated purpose of "instilling the principles of [Servant Leadership] SL" (p. 79), a sentiment also expressed by Iken (2005). Solsrud (2003) explored whether or not independent K-12 schools were mission driven, and Crippen (2004) reported that inquiry into "educational institutions" should be undertaken to discover "evidence of existing servant-leadership practices" (pp. 15-16). Letting (2004) interviewed four servant leaders at larger Christian institutions but recommended future sampling of multiple, and even smaller, Christian institutions. At a K-12 through college Latter Day Saints (LDS) institution, Anderson (2005) found "a higher level of servant leadership" and recommended "similar studies within populations involving different Christian sects" (pp. 102-103). Black (2010) studied a Catholic elementary school but recommended expansion to the postsecondary level, in order "to enhance understanding of the implications servant leadership has on education" (p. 462).

In addition, Thompson (2002) expressed interest in future research to discover why "faculty perceive the institution more negatively" (pp. 88-89). Umbach (2007) recommended another area of research to discern how often contingent faculty engage in orientation activities. Ingram (2003) considered servant leadership at five CCCU institutions with an SL mission and surveyed administrators, faculty, and students regarding their SL perceptions and definitions in his development and testing of his own servant leadership assessment, but he referenced the influence of Laub's (1999) Organizational Leadership Assessment (known then as the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment) and McMinn's (2001) Servant Leadership Readiness Survey. Ingram's conclusion recommended a similar study for faculty to measure their "attitudes about servant leadership . . . [to] examine the use of servant leadership in the governance and operation of higher education institutions" (p. 187).

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) and Mayer, Bardes, and Piccolo (2008) recommended further research on organizational commitment. Among automobile salesmen, Jaramillo et al. (2009b) found links between servant leadership in the organization and a lesser intention to find another job. The OLA does not directly ask about organizational commitment, and it was not a component in this study, but to some extent longevity at an institution might influence this variable. Arfsten (2006) studied a Christian-based business with a SL mission. However, there appear to be no studies at present, which measure faculty perceptions alone, of organizational leadership's alignment with SL principles at Christian colleges and universities with an explicit SL mission; nor does it appear that part-time faculty's perception of SL in its organizational leaders has been considered.

Definition of the Terms

- Servant leadership (SL): **"**An understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader" (Laub, 2010e, para. 1). Laub adds that SL involves "valuing and development of people, the building of community, the practice of authenticity, the providing of leadership for the good of those led and the sharing of power and status for the common good" (para. 1) for all members of the organization, the people it serves, and the organization itself.
- Leadership: "Influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (Yukl, 2006, p. 8).
- Full-time (FT) faculty: Faculty which are employed according to the institution's definition as FT, on a contract for the year (9, 10, 11, or 12 months) and which receive benefits from the university, such as retirement contributions or health insurance. Typically, FT faculty are eligible for tenure and promotion by rank at the institution.
- Adjunct or part-time (PT) faculty: Faculty which are contracted to teach on a per course basis and not for the year. Typically, PT faculty do not receive a complete set of benefits and are not eligible for tenure or promotion by rank at the institution (AAUP, 1997; Boice, 1992; Carroll, 2001; Townsend, 2007). Another name for adjunct faculty is "contingent" (Umbach, 2007, p. 91). Non-

tenured, FT faculty are not considered adjuncts in the literature. Graduate assistants, for the purpose of this study, are not considered as adjunct or PT faculty members.

- Organizational or Top Leadership: Institutions use different terminology for leadership roles and even when the leadership titles might be the same, their functions and areas of responsibility can differ. For the purposes of this study and Dr. Laub's (1999) Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), these terms include:
    - Academic leaders, such as provosts, vice presidents for academic affairs, chief academic officers, deans, department chairs, and campus directors;
    - Administrative or cabinet leaders, such as executive vice presidents, vice presidents, chief information officers, chief enrollment officers, and chief student affairs officers, etc.; and
    - Executive leaders, such as the president, chancellor, or chief executive officer of the institution.
- CCCU College or University: An institution of higher education which exists for the primary purpose of educating students for undergraduate and/or graduate degrees, which has membership in the CCCU and adheres to the criteria for membership posted on the CCCU website at www.cccu.org.
- Mission: "Mission is the character, identity and reason for existence of an organisation" (Campbell & Yeung, 1990, p. iii). A mission statement goes beyond basic sentences to encompass a company's purpose, values, standards and behaviors, and could include its strategy (Campbell & Tawadey, 1990).

- Vision: “Vision is a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organization” (Crothers, n.d.).
- Foundational Principles: Language beyond the mission and vision statements which an institution publicizes as core to its purpose(s); words which the institution promotes as central to its values, ethos, or culture; statements which form the essence of what the institution values, honors, intends to be, or desires for its students to become.
- Organizational Values: The core beliefs of an organization which normally include its published mission, vision, and foundational principles, though the terminology might be used interchangeably.
- Length of Service: The number of years one has served at a single institution as either a full- or part-time faculty member.

Assumptions and Limitations

It was assumed that institutional mission statements, vision statements, or foundational principles gleaned from the universities’ websites are accurate and current in their representation of the institutions. Though the terms for mission, vision, or foundational principle might be used interchangeably at some institutions, these represent the core beliefs which the institutions identify as of value to their organizations. Another assumption was that faculty members would respond only one time to the survey and would be honest in their assessments, basing their answers on only one institution for which they currently serve. Further, it was assumed that Laub’s technological processes for collecting the data from the institutions directed to his website functioned as expected. A final assumption was that the faculty members who participated read and understood the differentiation of definitions for full- and part-time faculty members.

Since the convenience sampling was dependent upon whether or not the institutions wished to participate, limitations apply. With such circumstances beyond the researcher's control and because true random sampling was impractical and could further limit the sample, "there is no precise way of generalizing from a convenience sample to the population" (McMillan, 2004, p. 112). The sample was further impacted by the lack of a definitive population database that identifies which CCCU schools have missions, visions, or foundational principles embracing servant leadership; however, the researcher undertook a thorough search of the institutional websites to locate published missions, visions, or foundational principles of the institutions in the population. Further, there is no repository of information which would identify whether or not the institutions' SL missions have been a recent implementation or established a long time. Another potential limitation could have been present, if the individual faculty member who responded became curious and accessed the OLA website, which clearly indicates that the survey addresses servant leadership. Though the study has limitations for generalizability, it is expected to add to the scholarship that has been conducted on faculty members, particularly adjuncts, in CCCU institutions as relevant to SL missions. The study is timely in that the CCCU held a symposium, unrelated to this study, of eleven of its institutions on July 24-26, 2010, with the intent of defining Spiritual Formation and its components in order to be more intentional and to be able to assess the same, as a part of CCCU institutions' missions. Some of those eleven institutions embrace SL as a part of their core.

Another limitation lies in the differences in the organizational structures and terminology for organizational leaders as well as what areas fall within their title and responsibilities at the various institutions. However, Dr. Laub and others have utilized the OLA in numerous studies, with only the prefacing information:

Indicate your present role/position in the organization or work unit:

___ Top Leadership (President, Vice Presidents, Cabinet Level)

___ Management (Asst. VPs, Deans, Department Chairs, Division Chairs, Managers, Directors, Supervisors)

___ Workforce (full-time or significantly involved University faculty/adjunct & employees)

These prefacing questions at the entrance to the OLA help add definition to the instructions for Section Two which states: "In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to the leadership of the organization (or organizational unit) including Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership." Other than these parameters to define the leadership of the organization, respondents have been allowed to self-define the meaning of "organizational leadership" and "top leadership."

Though the data might only be generalizable to CCCU schools with mission, vision, or foundational principle commitments to SL, it has the possibility of uncovering trends and possibly inspire additional studies involving FT and PT faculty.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

Leadership Approaches

Leadership has been defined and redefined in many ways by a plethora of authors and a few scholars. Some grain of truth, whether statistically proven or implicitly known, may be found in most leadership theories, which connect in recursive ways, making discrete categorizations complex. That concept is not uncommon within the academic disciplines, since knowledge is gleaned in pieces, and clarification of “emerging propositions” (Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 7), by definition, scaffolds onto another piece, creating new meaning. *The Bass Handbook of Leadership* is referred to as the “indispensable bible for every serious student of leadership” (Bass & Bass, 2008, inside cover). It has been issued in four editions, the most recent consisting of over 1,500 pages to cover the expanse of leadership, and speaks to the challenges of a succinct review of leadership theories. Bass and Bass (2008) lamented that “theories about leadership sometimes obscure the facts” (p. 47), as they decried the faulty research associated with some theories. Such a comment could easily apply to a recent *Irish Times* (Spot the Difference, 2010) article identifying a leadership theory that claims “the best CEOs are just like toddlers” (para. 3). Yukl (2006) characterized leadership approaches rather than theories, which are used for this discussion.

Trait approach. Until post-World War II, leadership theories could all be grouped into the category of traits. The ideal was admirable, logical, and expeditious, since “if the traits that differentiated leaders from followers could be identified, successful leaders could be quickly assessed and put into positions of leadership” (Neera, Anjanee, & Shoma, 2010, p. 19). Bass and Bass (2008) cited Bird’s 1940 work titled *Social Psychology* as compiling the first list, which identified 79 traits. Trait theory continued at some level of dominance because over six decades later, Kouzes and Posner surveyed 75,000 around the globe and identified over 225 traits of a leader (2002). Even classical philosophers such as Plato in *The Republic,* promoted teaching the ideal traits of leadership, thereby arriving at the utopian society where education could qualify the chosen for leadership more than defaulting to birthright. Perhaps the most familiar trait theory is that of the Great Man, designated by Bass and Bass (2008) as a type of Biological-Genetic Theory, one which relies on the concept of simply being born well suited to leadership. The idea that one's traits derive from inherited familial DNA is a historical one that contributed to the social and economic class systems where aristocrats ruled and plebeians followed, *de facto* thinking by people who wished to maintain a monarchy. In one of trait theory's interesting facets, the implicit theories of leadership, Bass and Bass (2008) suggested that self-reported traits in respondents correspond with traits they ascribe to leaders. Yukl (2006) suggested that implicit leadership is influenced by followers' expectations which can involve bias or stereotyping. Trait theories resonate with societies that look for a heroic leader to save the day, exemplified as well in the warrior leadership model (Bass & Bass, 2008). But in modern times some of the vestiges of the model might still be used to "justify large salaries for chief executives" (Yukl, 2006, p. 449) based on the assumption that they can get the job done as no one else can. Trait theory studies eventually led to the conclusion that there is no prescribed list of leadership characteristics (Yukl), though not before it explored whether or not even physical traits such as height could be correlated to leadership (Bass & Bass, 2008).

Leadership theory eventually expanded beyond the trait mentality, but the theorists were on to something. The value of trait theory is that it began the conversation on leadership, and traits still appear quite naturally as a component of other leadership theories. The challenge is that much about leadership depends on the situation as to which traits are required. Plus, an exception can be found in the successful leader who does not fit the norm or who does not possess the typically attributed traits of leadership such as intellect, dependability, interpersonal skills, initiative, tenacity, confidence, communication skills, integrity/honesty, inspiration, and flexibility, to name a few (Neera et al., 2010; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Yukl, 2006). When one finds such leadership qualities in an individual who is not a leader, it naturally prompts questions about trait theory's sufficiency. Nevertheless, tests are still used to measure traits of leaders often prior to appointment in a new leadership position or at a minimum to increase the leader's self-awareness of strengths and weaknesses. Consider the *Global Executive Leadership Inventory* (Kets de Vries, 2006) or the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (Kouzes & Posner, 2003), to mention only two. Bass and Bass (2008) situated servant leadership within the trait approach.

Behavior approach. In the 1950s, when gaps surfaced in the trait approach, studies focused on leadership behaviors within the actual organizational culture: how leaders spent their time, including "the activities, responsibilities, and functions" in addition to how leaders addressed the "demands, constraints, and role conflicts" (Yukl, 2006, p. 13) of the job. Yukl agreed there are difficulties with studying behavioral leadership, due to the variances in "number . . . range . . . and the level of abstraction of the behavior concepts" (p. 63). Bass and Bass (2008) acknowledged that some theorists categorize leadership based on behaviors, and they identified two subordinate categories as purposive and persuasive (p. 17). Heifetz' work in *Leadership Without Easy Answers* (1994) would fall into the category of both purposive and persuasive behavioral leadership. In 2010, the behavioral approach still garnered attention, as in a recent article advising how it can be used with improving teams' performance (Hobson, Strupeck, &

Szostek, 2010). In the early 1970s, Blake and Mouton (1972) originally developed a managerial grid which identified the point of intersection between concern for people and concern for production. They concluded that the most successful leaders are “high-high” on both scales—in being focused on people and focused on tasks. While directive leaders focus on tasks, *Participative Leaders* (Blanchard & Hersey, 1972) focus on the person. Bass and Bass (2008) explained that it is possible for the leader to be both people-focused and task-focused, depending on the need and the situation.

Blake and Mouton’s (1972) conclusion was that effective leadership depends upon the leader’s ability to apply the correct behavior to the situation at hand, which effectively blurs the lines with *Situational Leadership* (Gates, Blanchard, & Hersey, 1976). In the1989 and 1991studies by Ekvall and Arvonen, “change-oriented behavior” appeared as a third dimension, “which they found factorially independent of task and relations orientation” (cited in Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 501). Great leaders such as Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. exemplified behavioral leadership because his nonviolent struggle for civil rights paid attention to people as well as tasks in order to effect change. In addition, his methods were adjusted as needed for the opportunity at hand.

A few of the nuanced varieties of behavioral leadership promoted by various leadership gurus would also include the invitational and the consultative styles of leadership. Bass and Bass (2008) found them all to be interrelated. The behavioral approach takes into consideration more than a static list of traits. Its value to leadership studies seems to lie in a dynamic operational focus on leadership, which considers all of the components of the organizational culture, its people, as well as the demands of the task at hand. Further, it empowers the leader with choosing the appropriate behavior, rather than putting them into the leadership-by-birth box or the leadership-by-list mentality. On the other hand, behavioral leadership is more complex, as indicated by the lack of definitive studies, bemoaned by Yukl (2006) who commented that it suffers from the "tendency to look for simple answers to complex questions" (p. 75). In addition, he noted that there is no one-size-fits-all formula for selecting the right behavior for the leadership need, since various leadership behaviors for different situations could result in the same outcome. Finally, Yukl noted the approach's highly subjective nature, since behavioral leadership involves biased and often illogical humans in the process. Though Bass and Bass (2008) positioned servant leadership within the trait approach, Yukl tended to view it as more dynamic, perhaps behavioral, when he notes that "it is only by understanding followers that the leader can determine how best to serve their needs" (p. 420). Though servant leadership clearly leans to the person-oriented rather than task-oriented behaviors, it prompts the question of whether or not leadership is really leadership if it cannot motivate people to accomplish a task.

Power-Influence approach. Perhaps more than any other leadership approach, the power-influence category is recognizable, based on cultural familiarity with positional leadership. Machiavelli as "the father of power politics" (Rejai & Phillips, 2002, p. 45) understood power and attempted to gain influence when he penned *The Prince* (2004) centuries ago in Italy. Yukl (2006) defined authority as "rights, prerogatives, obligations, and duties associated with particular positions" (p. 146). Bass and Bass (2008) clarified that "power is not synonymous with influence" (p. 264), and one might add that influence is not synonymous with power. Influence without princely or positional power has been a subject of examination in the more recent past of the last two decades. Despite this examination, Heifetz (1994) commented that “analysts have generally neglected the distinctive problems and opportunities of mobilizing work from positions of little or no authority” (p. 184). That is not to say that leaders have not been able to exert influence without any positional power, since Heifetz remarked that women have been doing so for years. Bass and Bass’s (2008) aside that “despite the examples of Joan of Arc, Elizabeth I, and Catherine the Great, great women [leaders] were ignored” (p. 49) paralleled his explanation that power “correlates with authority and may be coercive” while “influence is more likely to depend on persuasion” (p. 269). Followers can choose whether or not they identify with the leader of influence but at least nominal responsiveness to the leader of position is seldom optional.

Influence is termed as personal power and the *Charismatic Leader*, one of the first leadership types named by sociologist Max Weber in 1947 (cited in Bass & Bass), is “the ultimate in personal power” (Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 267). Heifetz termed the personal power concept as informal authority, or what one gains by virtue of being viewed as a person of “trust, respect, [and] moral persuasion” (p. 185). Citing French and Raven’s 1959 Power Taxonomy, Yukl listed the five types of power as: reward, coercive, legitimate, expert, and referent. In 1989, French and Raven’s power types were further refined by Hinkin and Schriesheim. As such, an informal leader’s influence is often found in his or her referent power because it is “based on the internalization of common norms or values” (Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 271). Bass and Bass (2008) found flaws in the French and Raven model because the five categories overlap, particularly in the multiple interconnections of power in the real world.

Hofstede (1980) pointed out that the *Power-Distance Orientation* is greater in some instances, due to the “collective mental programming of people in different national cultures” (p. 42). Hannay (2009) averred that “servant leadership is best applied in a culture with low power distance” (p. 1). There are still places where a position of leadership equates unequivocally to power and influence, much as it did in the days of Hitler’s positional power. Bass and Bass (2008) further clarified such leadership within the psychoanalytic theories when “leaders arise during crises out of a sense of their own grandiosity and the group’s sense of helpless dependency” (p. 56). The value of the power-influence approach to leadership is that it places some control in the domain of the person who is not in positional leadership—at least that is true if the non-positional leader is deemed to have expert or referent power. So, while an individual might not get elected to public office, he or she can influence people and impact public opinion, particularly in a democracy, as has been proven time and again. Yukl (2006) concluded that “position power . . . depends on the nature of the organization, task, and subordinates” (p. 176).

While the two can be treated separately for research purposes, as is the instance with other constructs, they are related. For example, both transactional and transformational leadership could fall within the power and influence approach, even though the transactional focuses on the exchange of usually lower level and incremental rewards to achieve one’s goal while the transformational focuses on the more laudable and ambitious goal of moving people to an improved situation. Some of the challenges to assigning leadership studies to the power-influence approach are found in the complexity of the power-distance orientation. While leadership studies on power and influence can add to the existing body of scholarship, the culture of the organization or the country renders such studies specific to the local rather than universal or global in application, a topic which is addressed within the situational approach, identified by Yukl.

Situational approach. Multiple iterations of situational leadership have branched out over the years. Extending the work of Blake and Mouton (1972), Hersey and Blanchard first wrote in 1969 of what they termed the *Life Cycle Theory of Leadership*. However, they continued developing the life cycle concept into situational leadership (Gates et al., 1976). The idea is that the maturity level of the subordinate dictates the appropriate mixture of task- and relations-oriented behaviors with the goal of structuring interventions that move a subordinate or a group’s maturity from low to high (Bass & Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2006). Similar to path-goal theory, the continuum of situational leadership approaches (delegating, participating, selling, or telling) are based on the intersection of the leader’s concern with the task and the subordinate’s level of willingness and ability, both components of maturity. High willingness combined with high ability of subordinates allows for delegating leadership. High unwillingness combined with inability requires more directive attention.

When leaders emerge as “a result of time, place, and circumstance” (Bass & Bass, 2008, p. 52), the theory is said to be situational. Bass and Bass (2008) cited Plutarch’s *Parallel Lives* which described situations where leaders emerged in both Rome and Greece at similar times, due to “revolutionary upheaval, chaotic politics, social and economic distress, and a weakening of traditional institutions” (p. 52). Regardless of the era, it is true that leaders emerged, but was that due to their naturally endowed leadership traits which allowed them to exert influence or promoted them to positions of power? Or, did they emerge as leaders because their behaviors were well suited to address both the tasks at hand and the needs of the people? The variability in human leadership might be so intrinsic to the nature of the leader that it interferes with determining cause and effect. Bass and Bass (2008) agreed that a crisis alone is not sufficient to create a leader—otherwise all persons in the middle of crises would become leaders. But situational leadership is not limited to a hindsight review of great historical figures. Current tomes on leadership contain at least some measure of promotion or analysis regarding the situational. For example, Bolman and Deal (2003) advised that reframing organizations is best accomplished according to the culture of the organization—the situation at hand. In addition, Collins in *Good to Great* (2001) included assessing the situation of the company before applying the leadership strategies to make it successful. Even Bass and Bass (2008) attributed a situational focus to servant leaders who "are influenced by what their organization and followers need" (p. 55).

Contingency theories fall within the situational approach. Fiedler developed the *Least Preferred Coworker* (LPC) scale in the mid 1960s to explain how a given situation can contribute to the leader's success or failure. The idea was based on Fiedler's (as cited in Bass & Bass, 2008) work regarding the effectiveness of psychotherapists, which he built into a scale to evaluate an individual with which the leader deems he can work the least well. Though it has been tested and found lacking by many, including Yukl (2006) who deemed it had "serious conceptual weaknesses" (p. 217), Bass and Bass (2008) described that it measured "interpersonal versus task orientation" (p. 524). The question of the LPC's helpfulness lies in whether or not the resulting score is a consistent representation of one's personality over time or if and how it can improve one's leadership.

Path-Goal theories developed in the early 1970s, first by Evans and later House (as cited in Yukl, 2006), include motivation as a component of “how a leader can influence subordinate satisfaction and effort” (Yukl, p. 218). This approach identifies leader behaviors and situational variables, plotting causal relationships. Path-goal theory recommends directive leadership for poorly defined, complicated tasks in an environment with few operational guidelines and inexperienced workers, suggesting that the workers will exert greater effort and be better satisfied with the results. In the early 1970s, Vroom and Yetton (as cited in Bass & Bass, 2008) defined questions which a leader should ask himself to determine if directive or participative leadership was most appropriate for the decision at hand, identified by Bass and Bass (2008) as the rational-deductive model. However, directive leadership does not appear to have a place in the “Foster Collaboration” culture recommended by Kouzes and Posner (2002), nor does it align with the chaos theory and self-organizing structures of leadership found in Wheatley’s (1992) *Leadership and the New Science* which explains that disequilibrium is to be embraced as a healthy stage of some organic reformatting of the organization to accomplish its goals, rather than a path-goal choice directed by a leader.

Bass and Bass (2008) critiqued Hersey and Blanchard’s situational leadership as having both positive and negative studies to support and refute the approach, due to lack of internal consistency. Yet, they acknowledged that “the model has intuitive appeal” (p. 519) and may have fans, because it “provides freedom from principles” (p. 522) and due to its simplicity. Yukl (2006) credited its contribution as “the emphasis on flexible, adaptive behavior . . . a central tenet of some recent theory and research” (p. 225).

Integrative approach. Yukl (2006) described the integrative approach as one which addresses two or more variables of leadership. In other words, an integrative approach could consider both traits and behavior in terms of a particular organizational situation. Though Bass and Bass (2008) viewed situational leadership as oppositional to trait theory, they view servant leadership as being both situational and trait-oriented, thus, an integrative approach. Giberson et al. (2009) found correlations for leaders with specific traits within the context of the situational corporate culture. As research advances, it recognizes that variables such as the leader's traits, the followers' behaviors, and the situation combine to form different levels of power and influence, making isolated examination difficult. Yukl's example of one integrative model was "the self-concept theory of charismatic leadership" (p. 15). While not all *brand name* leadership models have been placed within one of Yukl's approaches for the purpose of this review, the academic approaches have been reviewed with the understanding that a new name coined for a leadership style does not mean an entirely new or a singular approach to leadership studies.

Psychoanalytic approach. Bass and Bass (2008) viewed the psychoanalytic as a separate type of leadership theory. Of course, Freud led the way on the psychoanalytic, despite the fact that he was not studying leadership per se. Yukl (2006) would group the psychodynamic processes, used to explain charismatic leadership, within the traits approach, yet the psychodynamic focuses on personality, and multiple instruments have been developed to evaluate personality. The Five Factor Model is the dominant and widely accepted pattern for investigation of personality found in such instruments as the NEO Personality Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 2000). The NEO-PI measures normal personality traits of persons 17 years or older. The categories of the NEO include: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, which with the exception of neuroticism may be found within most leadership lists derived from the traits approach. It is worth mentioning, particularly since so much of successful leadership depends upon the balanced ego of the leader and so many psychoanalytical measures address personality. The value of using the personality profiles in leadership has been applied to specific contexts such as the military. For example, Johnson and Hill (2009) used the NEO-PI and confirmed the expected—that effective leaders in the military rated lower on neuroticism and significantly higher on extraversion. What some might construe as perfectly balanced leaders are given attention by Collins (2001) in the *Level V Leader's* personality, "a paradoxical blend of personal humility and professional will" (p. 20). Collins studied real humans, yet such idealized leader attributes are implied in the personality types of servant leaders.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

Chapter one has identified the purpose of the study, to gain insights regarding the perceptions of full- and part-time faculty regarding organizational leadership's alignment with the institution's mission and to explore if there is a difference in perception that length of time at the institution or orientation to mission might make. In addition, applicable definitions for the the study have been established and leadership's theoretical aproaches reviewed. Chapter two examines foundational literature and results of recent studies which are relevant to the topic and the variables being examined. In addition, the literature review offers insights into the measure of assessment and methodology to be used in the study, which are covered in chapter three.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational Leadership and Commitment

Bolman and Deal (2003) convey a leadership conundrum when they ask: “Do leaders shape culture, or are they shaped by it” (p. 244)? They spoke to the power that a culture, developed over time, can have on the organization. Their examples show how culture can be learned by new employees with an orientation from long-term employees who exhibit a commitment to the organizational culture. But what if the employees are temporary and only employed on a course-by-course or contract basis, as is the case for adjunct faculty, yet they have responsibility for conveying the “distinctive beliefs, values, and patterns” (Bolman & Deal, p. 244) of the organization to its primary stakeholders, the students? If an organization’s stated mission is one of servant leadership and “values define what an organization stands for” (Bolman & Deal, p. 252), one of the problems with employing adjunct faculty is determining how the values will be inculcated by them. In his widely hailed book about learning organizations, Senge (1990) said that leaders shape the culture as “one of the oldest domains of leadership” (p. 351). Kouzes and Posner (2002) commented that employee loyalty increases if they “believe that their values and those of the organization are aligned” (p. 78). When employees, particularly essential employees like faculty, deem that organizational leadership aligns with the organizational mission of servant leadership, the servant mindset is prevalent and the organization is considered in “excellent health” or “optimal health” by Dr. Jim Laub (2010a, para. 6), creator of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (1999).

What does mission contribute to an institution’s organizational culture and its people? Greenleaf (2002) describes two types of leaders and the balance that should exist between *operators* and *conceptualizers,* warning that an organization can lose its conceptual leadership if it is “not guided by an organizational principle” such as servant leadership (p. 32). Without an identified mission, an institution is left to drift, without any anchoring principle for conceptualizing the vision nor a foundational premise for guiding decisions. In another early book on leadership, Schein (1992) identified role modeling as one of the best ways in which leaders can impart values, particularly when it comes to selflessness, a characteristic implicit in servant leadership and conveying concern for followers first. If it is true that “leaders help shape organizational cultures or subcultures by providing direction and coherence, and maintaining values and behavioural patterns” (Lok, Westwood, & Crawford, 2005, p. 492), then it is valuable for an organization’s leadership, as mission-embracing role models, not only to be guided by a mission but also to measure their leadership according to that same mission. In their research of almost 400 nurses in Australia, Lok et al. found a statistically significant correlation between a consideration leadership style and employee commitment. Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) developed and tested a servant leadership questionnaire among a large group of students and arrived at results which “suggest that servant leadership may enhance both job performance and commitment to the organization” (p. 174).

Yukl listed “supporting as the core component of consideration” (2006, p. 72) and his attributes of supportive leadership closely parallel the Values People component of servant leadership which the Organizational Leadership Assessment by Laub (1999) measures. When a culture is deemed to value its people, the people’s commitment to the organization increases. On the other hand, Lok et al. (2005) found that when a subculture was perceived as bureaucratic, it related to commitment in a negative way, making it more difficult to retain employees and creating more work for organizational leaders due to increased turnover. Van Vianen (2000) characterized "human development" as a factor of a "concern for people dimension" (p. 127), which is an OLA question found within the Develops People component. Van Vianen explained that alignment between the person's and organization's values influences employee retention, commitment to the organization, and performance in the role. Similar to Lok et al., Van Vianen found when there was a match between the leader's "*concern for people* dimension" (p. 127) and those of the new employee, the intent to leave the organization quickly was diminished. When new employees are retained, it means that the institutional mission or culture resides within those employees who have had greater exposure to and understanding of mission and culture (Van Vianen, 2000). If those employees evaluate the organization's leadership as operationally aligned with the institutional mission, employee retention can be one positive outcome. If employees become disillusioned with mission alignment, their remaining on the job has the potential of an equally negative effect on the organization's culture and the leadership's ability to accomplish its goals.

Affective commitment is the variable used to measure "employees' perceptions of their emotional attachment to or identification with their organization" (Williams, 2004, para. 5). Straiter (2005) found "a significant positive correlation between the two dependent variables: job satisfaction and affective organization commitment" (p. 92) among sales managers. For part-time faculty, affective commitment is one component to consider within the length of time teaching at one institution, because long-term faculty members contextually convey some level of support of the institution and its mission. Among voluntary part-time, involuntary part-time, and full-time faculty, Maynard and

Joseph (2008) unexpectedly found that affective commitment proved to be greater among both types of PT faculty over the affective commitment of FT faculty. When the responses of voluntary and involuntary part-time were combined, the difference proved to be significant (Maynard & Joseph). Such results are plausible when one considers that the rewards and remuneration for part-time teaching are seldom persuasive, in and of themselves, to remain with the institution. Straiter found similar surprises regarding affective commitment as negatively associated with supervisors' length of time at the organization.

Surprising results in the confidence exhibited by adjunct faculty in their academic leaders has been found in community colleges, where 82% of part-time faculty find their department chairs "useful" for "teaching advice" (Cohen & Brawer, 2003, p. 88), as contrasted to only 74% of full-time faculty. Statistically significant results were similarly found by Smith and Shoho (2007) with adjuncts exhibiting a greater level of trust in their colleagues and their deans, over the level of trust exhibited by tenured professors at either the associate or full professor level, though assistant professors rated more closely with the adjunct in level of trust. Smith and Shoho concluded that the results were "unsettling" (p. 136) and point out that trust is essential to an organization's health and productivity. How is trust related to servant leadership? Within the category of Displaying Authenticity, two of the questions of the Organizational Leadership Assessment measure the trust in the organization's leadership. If Smith and Shoho's explanation of the findings proves true—that trust for new, lower level employees is based on the leader's position, more than the leader's "motives, intentions, and capabilities" (Smith & Shoho, p. 133)—then it prompts the question of whether or not PT faculty members would evaluate the organization as servant-like to a greater extent than FT professors would do so.

Number of Years Employed

When Jaeger and Eagan (2010) cited a limitation, indicating that the number of years of adjunct faculty service was unavailable in their dataset of six state institutions, it suggested that they viewed the variable as one which could influence results. Though dissertations have studied the variable of length of time employed, it has not appeared to be a factor significant to the employees' evaluation of servant leadership at the organization in studies using the OLA. Herman's (2010) responses from employees of predominantly nonprofit (72.5%) institutions of education found length of service not significantly related to the "respondents' perception of organizational servant leadership" (p. 89). In Australia, at another type of institution, a hospital, with another type of measure, Lok and Crawford (2001) found that the longevity of the employee in the position actually "has a small negative influence on commitment" (p. 607). Nevertheless, in Lowhorn's (2009) dissertation, he found that tenure alone (length of time at the institution) was correlated to job satisfaction. Bozeman and Gaughan (2011) found that tenured faculty express greater job satisfaction than do non-tenured faculty.

In 2002, Conley and Leslie in cooperation with the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) analyzed the comprehensive data set from 1993 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF) and found that part-time instructional faculty and staff had held their current job an average of 6.6 years with four-year institutions, while full-time instructional faculty and staff had been with the institution an average of 11.1 years. The average number of years FT faculty (excluding staff) have been associated with the organization overall, at all levels of institutions, is 14 years at the same place (Anderson & American Council on Education-ACE, 2002). The Center for the Education of Women at the University of Michigan found that PT non-tenure-track faculty had been affiliated with the institution an average of five and one-half years (2006, p. 26). Using the 2000 Center for the Study of Community Colleges data, Schuetz found similar results with adjunct faculty most often identifying their years of experience within the “1-4 years” range and FT faculty most often self-identifying as having “11-20 years” (2002, p. 43) of experience teaching. Leslie and Gappa (2002) reported that the average number of years for PT faculty at community colleges is between 5 and 6, while FT faculty average 11 to 12 years. For all institutions reporting in the 2004 NSOPF data collection, the average years at current institution were 7.0 for PT faculty and 17.8 for FT (Eagan, 2007, p. 9). Among adjunct professors, who were superintendents and members of the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), Schneider and AASA (2003) reported that the majority (45%) had been teaching between three and nine years, with only 24% teaching longer. Studies suggest that FT faculty have greater longevity with an institution than do PT faculty. For many PT faculty, length of service is not reported to be a factor in terms of compensation at public and private institutions, since only 60% responded that salary adjustments were “always” or “generally” (Center for the Education of Women, 2006, p. 30) made, based on length of service.

In larger cities with more opportunities for teaching part-time at other institutions, “turnover rates are higher” (Cross & Goldenberg, 2002, p. 26). Leslie (1978), author of seminal research on part-time faculty, later cautioned that adjunct faculty are “routinely terminated” (1998a, p. 99) when their time on the job reaches the point that the institution must pay them benefits. On the other hand, they might be limited from teaching more than 50% of what a full-time professor's load would be, so they do not have to be paid benefits (Jacoby, 2006). If length of time on the job does convey greater commitment to the institutional mission and the possibility of understanding administration's alignment with mission, then why would an institution not want to retain their PT faculty and train them regarding mission? Leadership has been informally defined as "getting people to commit to the mission, to take the hill" (Hunter, 2004, p. 33); as such, it behooves the organization to begin with a clearly defined mission.

Mission Statements

A mission statement is the public image of what the organization wishes to convey about who it is and what it does (Mazza, 1999). The term *mission statement* appears to have first surfaced in the context of the academy in a government document from March 2, 1960 by the National Academy of Sciences Special Advisory Committee and titled "The Role of the Department of Commerce in Science and Technology: A Report to the Secretary of Commerce" (p. 99). The *Oxford English Dictionary* (Simpson, 2010) cites the first use in an article from *Management Science* in 1967 in the context of military aircraft. Business began discussing a mission statement as the essential driving ideal of an organization in the early seventies. In an article by Hamelman (1970), the term *mission* was used in connection with an institution of higher education. However, Scott (2006) suggested that mission or purpose statements appeared in the catalogs of U.S. colleges as early as the 1930s, while Weisbrod, Ballou, and Asch (2008) reference Newman in the context of university mission as early as 1873. When business guru Peter Drucker wrote his landmark book *Management*, he said that "clear definition of the mission and purpose," makes “clear and realistic business objectives” (1974, p. 75) achievable. Even before Collins’ *Good to Great* (2001), corporate sages Peters and Waterman studied successful companies and concluded that their ability to survive is not so much attributable “to its form or organization or administrative skills, but to the power of what we call beliefs and the appeal these beliefs have for its people" (1981, p. 280), and beliefs is one synonym for mission.

Morphew and Hartley’s (2006) analysis of 300 mission statements and Mazza’s (1999) review of 144 indicated that mission statements aspire to and achieve legitimacy with stakeholders or constituent groups (Yukl, 2006). However, Sevier (2003) believes that they “are not for public consumption” (p. 21), but rather it is the execution of the mission statement, however generic, that makes the difference in an institution. Early cautions to business about fragmentation without mission clarification (Drucker, 1974; Campbell & Tawadey, 1990) became equally applicable to higher education. Accrediting organizations require that institutions periodically review the mission statement and that the Board of Trustees affirm it. Today, a mission statement is obligatory, albeit occasionally perfunctory; colleges must have them, whether built from the bottom up or top down. But posting the mission on a website or writing it in a college catalog hardly equates to understanding, support, or adherence. Communication of the ongoing mission is key to the organizational culture of an institution (Sevier, 2003). Yukl (2006) explained that even when there is agreement on a general mission, it cannot be equated with blanket concurrence as to how it is accomplished and in what order. Challenging the criticism that a “mission statement only surfaces during accreditation visits,” a college president maintained successful institutions “are defined by their mission” (Adams, 2008, p. 27). Yet, even university leaders have been known to view their mission statements as “too vague, too long, and too much” (Sevier, 2003, p. 21).

Drucker (1974) cautioned that “constant indoctrination” to a business’ mission is not easily accomplished through “propaganda campaigns” (p. 77). Nevertheless, if a leader makes the connection for the employee, linking his work with mission, then it infuses meaning into that work (Campbell & Tawadey, 1990). In his book mocking *Management Fads in Higher Education,* Birnbaum returned to mission basics, because if “institutions survive and prosper,” it is “because their consistent, mission-driven values have been internalized by their participants and confirmed as important by the culture in which they function” (2001, p. 220). Drucker wrote that “to satisfy the customer is the mission and purpose of every business” (p. 79), and while some might bristle at the comparison, it is not difficult to view the student as the customer. Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) found mission as essential to faculty’s understanding, because “shared understanding of the institution’s mission” influences “decisions about awarding tenure or committing institutional resources to faculty projects” (p. 18). When beginning a strategic planning process, an institution of higher education starts with its mission and often crafts a new vision, a picture of where it wants to go, of who it wants to become. In most instances, the mission statement is viewed as a sifter for decision-making, vision-casting, and goal-setting in higher education.

Though the trend is to differentiate among terms for mission and vision (Yukl, 2006), actual mission derives from foundational or guiding principles, whether or not they appear in the institution’s formalized statement. Mazza concluded “mission statements are not the only . . . organizational representation of legitimacy” (1999, p.

144), and one statement alone might be too limited to tie together all of the tenets. Whether or not individuals in an institution know the nuances among mission, vision, and foundational principle terminology, such statements appear on their websites because they know that these official words represent the institution to its people and its public. Solsrud valued mission when he commented that successful institutions have an "understanding of who they are, what they stand for, what they hope to accomplish, and how they will go about it" (2003, p. 30). Ferrari and Velcoff (2006) expressed the need "to develop reliable and valid instruments to assess the perceptions and commitment by stakeholders (e.g., faculty and staff) to the school's mission" (pp. 245-246) because institutional survival is dependent on mission adherence and consistency. Addressing Christians specifically, Blackaby and Blackaby advised to remember purpose, when there are "doubts or fears, or when they had misplaced values" (2001, p. 255) because mission commitment is integral to success. It is not surprising, then, that *The Oxford English Dictionary* first ties the term *mission* to educational pursuits within a Christian organization—the Jesuits from 1598 (Simpson, 2010).

Christian Colleges and Universities

The primary difference in a Christian college or university and a secular institution is first, the object of its affiliation—Christ; and second, the "desire to be intentional about this purpose" (Dockery, 2007, p. xix). In America's early colonial period, education and religious affiliation were generally synonymous, since "clergymen were the leading representatives of the intellectual class" (Ringenberg, 2006, p. 37). Today "the integration of faith and learning is [still] the essence of authentic Christian higher education" (Dockery, p. 5; Holmes, 1987). Within the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities

(CCCU), there are “evangelical schools of different sizes, organizational structures, lifestyles, denominational traditions, and doctrinal allegiances” (Patterson, 2005, p. 42). However, there is one thing they have in common and that is adherence to the criteria for membership within the CCCU. Contrary to the foreboding image of eroding Christianity in institutions, which “can unwittingly be decomposed,” as conveyed in Burtchaell’s *The Dying of the Light* (1998, p. xii), members of the CCCU make a conscientious commitment to remain steadfast in their missions as evangelical Christian colleges or universities (Patterson, 2005). Dockery, former Chair of the CCCU Board, reminded that “Christian universities exist for the sake of instruction” (pp. 149-150). Still, he cautioned that in addition to “Christian thinking” it is necessary to “encourage modeling of service in the world” (p. 153). In other words, faith without serving those outside of the Christian college is really no faith at all. Contrary to what some may believe, Christian colleges do not exist for the sake of separation in order to preserve some supposed sanctity of the saints (Holmes, 1987). In fact, unless students at Christian colleges engage their world, their opportunities for honing leadership skills are limited.

Scott (2006) commented that “from medieval to postmodern times, *service* is the keynote” (p. 3) when it comes to the mission of higher education. In a representative sample of U.S. four-year colleges and universities, Morphew and Hartley (2006) found that the term *service* appears frequently, as either an implied ideal within the context of civic leadership or as an express characterization of mission. Weisbrod et al. (2008) described the public service mission of state schools as the desire to help graduates become “more successful contributors to society as citizens” (p. 3). Scott (2006) attributed “public service” to the “20th century, [for] the modern American university” (p.

6). But Weisbrod et al. (2008) suggested that such services “would be underprovided if profitability were the only issue considered” (p. 280). In their review of the official mission statements of 100 private colleges offering bachelors’ degrees, Taylor and Morphew (2010) found that “leadership became regularly attached to service” suggesting that the pairing gives “context and definition to the otherwise nebulous term leadership” (p. 496).

Developing students to become leaders is often referenced as one of the “goals articulated by CCCU institutions” (Webb, 2001, p. 96), yet Webb found that despite CCCU institutions’ intent to grow leaders, strategies to develop leadership may be lacking. In an analysis of CCCU mission statements, Woodrow (2006) found that “Service (also Serve, Servant)” (p. 322) was the fifth most common term. His difficulty in accessing the institutional missions of some CCCU schools online, however, led Woodrow to conclude that “*widely communicating* institutional mission is not a high priority” (p. 324). Whether the institution includes the terms *servant*, *serve*, *serving,* or *service* in addition to *lead*, *leader*, *leading,* or *leadership* in its published mission statement, few CCCU presidents would strike these from a list of purposes for a Christian education. If one considers the secular college, secondary and peripheral support for the mission of Christian education may be found. Budziszewski (2004) advised that public schools assault “Christian convictions and discipline” almost “from the moment students set foot on the contemporary campus” (p. 15). While a secular institution might replace a Christian mission with generalized terms such as values or ethics or even character (Ringenberg, 2006), and might include servant leadership in its mission statement, the nature of Jesus' biblical identity as a servant leader is perhaps most prevalent as a core value of the Christian college or university.

Servant Leadership

Though referential credit goes to Robert K. Greenleaf for coining the term and theory of servant leadership, Christians might say that reverential credit for the concept's origin goes to Jesus Christ. Not only did Jesus illustrate servant leadership through the foot-washing example in John 13, he also taught the disciples overtly that "'if anyone wants to be first, he must be the very last, and the servant of all'" (Mark 9:35b, NIV). Through the ages, great Christian minds—Benedict of Nursia (480-547), Ignatius of Loyola (1491-1556), George Fox (1624-1691), and Hannah Whitall Smith (1832-1922), to name a few studied by Foster and Beebe (2009)—have promoted the tenet of Christian service, yet without combining the two words into the seeming oxymoron of servant leadership. Devotional books often contain chapters about servant leadership, citing New Testament passages of Jesus, as he serves people—healing, feeding, and teaching them (Briner & Pritchard, 1998). Yet SL cannot be solely claimed by Christians or Christian institutions, as seen in Polleys' (2002) review of the SL program at Columbus State University, a public institution, even if such programs quote Depree and Covey and use religious terminology such as *covenantal*. When SL training in the secular world draws from the biblical, it can cause objections. One training exercise resulted in a negative reaction in the public workplace, because scripture was referenced in connection with servant leadership. As a result, the trainer had to make adjustments, quickly separating the two, advising to "consider the underlying ethics, values and beliefs that are present in the context that influences the participants" (Hamilton & Bean, 2005, pp. 344-345). Less often, but still pointed, there has been criticism of servant leadership as a “worldly magnet” (Chewning, 2000, p. 15) which diffuses the focus from the true servanthood to be exemplified by those who attempt to follow Christ. Greenleaf (2002) viewed servant leadership as a type of operating system for life, and he often used biblical examples to illustrate his points about servant leadership. However, he emphasized that all respected religions have a core of principles on which they can agree. Despite Bass’s (2000) reference to servant leadership’s devotees as “disciples and adherents” (p. 32), servant leadership is not found only within religion. It is important to remember that Greenleaf’s inspiration for the servant leader derived from Hermann Hesse’s *Journey to the East* and the character of Leo who actually was leading the group all along from his lowly, chosen, assumed, and temporary position as a servant. The concept of servant leadership has taken on a life of its own in the twenty-first century, as proponents write *How To* books, scholars begin to study, and conferences promise to teach it. Yukl (2006) nominally referenced SL within his chapter on ethical leadership alongside Burns’ *Transforming Leadership* (2003) and Heifetz’ book on *Leadership Without Easy Answers* (1994). Yukl (2006) also noted there is “disagreement about the appropriate way to define and assess it” (p. 418). Servant leadership was not fully addressed in Bass’s reference tome until the 2008 edition, at which time Bass and Bass noted that it has reached some level of attention but research was still lacking.

Some speak of servant leadership as a mindset–a type of leading that is antithetical to the directive, dictatorial, autocratic, positional, or political leaders from the past. Greenleaf (2002) defined the one “essential quality that sets servant-leaders apart” as being guided “by their conscience—the inward moral sense of what is right and what is wrong” (p. 4). Some connection has been found between the selflessness of the leader and "the exhibition/practice of servant leadership behaviors" (McCuddy & Cavin 2008, p. 115). Jaramillo et al. (2009a) described servant leaders as "selfless," having a "core focus on the welfare of others" (p. 257). Bass and Bass (2008) called the concept "extreme altruism" (p. 227). In a working paper, which coded the writings of notable leaders such as Albert Schweitzer, Mother Teresa, and Martin Luther King, altruism topped the list among the characteristics of servant leadership (Chin & Smith, 2006). Yet Cater, Beal, and Justis (2007) cautioned that servant leaders in family businesses should not be construed as "soft"; they are "willing to make hard decisions" (para. 2).

Are values, such as trust, appreciation, and empowerment, the distinguishing feature of servant leaders? Ingram (2003) identified the characteristics of servant leadership, in a sample of faculty, administrators, and students at CCCU institutions and found the phrase which produced the highest agreement was "'exhibiting high moral and ethical standards by example'" (p. 126). Russell (2001) urged leaders to evaluate the organization's values as they evaluate their own which "ultimately influence[s] organizational performance" (para. 43). If being a servant leader is intrinsic to the individual's values and if values are a feature of character, is SL a style that can be chosen and learned? Banutu-Gomez (2004) identified SL as a "natural impulse . . . to make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served" (p. 147). Bass explained that "Servant Leaders have a 'natural' feeling that they want to serve" (2000, p. 33). Other studies suggested "a significant, direct relationship between servant-leadership and need satisfaction" of followers (Mayer et al., 2008, p. 193; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). Reminiscent of the Great Man theory, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) recommended further exploration into the antecedents, of “heredity and environmental nature” (p. 322).

Servant leadership has been said to have something in common with transformational leadership (TL) because it shares the traits of vision, influence, credibility, and trust (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999) as well as the emphasis on considering, developing, empowering, and promoting the achievement of followers first (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004). Bass (2000) acknowledged that several styles of leadership have something in common with the transformational, including servant leadership which is grouped alongside “democratic, empowering, participative leadership, leader-member exchange, [and] strategic leadership” (p. 29). Furthermore, Chin and Smith (2006) clarified that SL first appeared in Greenleaf’s writings as early as 1970, yet Burns’ mention of transformational leadership does not appear until 1978. Some have differentiated between transformational and servant leadership in that the former pursues the needs of the organization or the common, plural good, while the latter focuses on the needs of the follower as an individual (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Bass, 2000; Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009; Patterson, 2003). When Stone, Russell, and Patterson (2004) asked if SL was a subset of TL or the other way around, they concluded that the primary difference lies in SL’s people-focus versus TL being organization-centric. Using a semantic differential scale, Parolini et al. (2003) identified five attributes of significance shared between the transformational leader and the servant leader as “moral, focus, motive and mission, development, and influence distinctions” (p. 288) which they recommend be considered when hiring. Sarros, Tanewski, Winter, Santora, and Densten (2002) concluded that when leaders engage in coaching and mentoring, or “idealized consideration,” and when they “articulate a common vision for the enterprise” (p. 298) it decreases work alienation due to bureaucracy and exemplifies transformational leadership. Similarly, the OLA views mentoring as an integral element to SL and includes the statement: “Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally.” Smith et al. (2004) suggested theoretically that transformational leadership is more effective in a dynamic environment while servant leadership works better in a static environment. While there are certainly overlapping characteristics for transformational and servant leadership, Bass (2000) echoed the frequently referenced differentiation that transformational leaders motivate those who follow for “the good of their group, organization or community, country or society as a whole” (p. 21).

With so many types of leadership available in the literature, is servant leadership effective and, if so, why? While one article title claimed “Servant-Leadership as an Effective Model” (Crippen, 2005), without any empirical data, some have begun to measure its effectiveness McCuddy and Cavin (2008) found a strong relationship between the actions associated with SL and efficacy among leaders within a Lutheran institution of higher education; they concluded that “people who embrace servant leadership behaviors are more effective leaders” (p. 116). Interestingly, when college presidents and upper level administrators at a community college were asked to describe their leadership role, 47% of them described their positions, responsibilities, and time in the role. Only 7% spoke of the vision; 3% discussed their understanding and support for the mission; most spoke of their expertise or knowledge (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006). None of the administrators used the term *servant leadership* to describe themselves, though the authors acknowledge SL as one of the more modern styles of leadership, which is replacing the outdated autocratic leader (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006). Servant leadership, assessed by the OLA, has been connected to team effectiveness at a level of significance (Irving, 2005; Irving & Longbotham, 2007; Rauch, 2007) and also ties the leadership theory to the practicality of cost effectiveness when teams are used. Melchar, et al. (2008) found that four generations in the workplace (Veterans, Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y) value the SL approach in management. The implication is that SL can now be valued for the practical as well as the noble.

When it comes to the characteristics of servant leadership, a review of the literature surfaces many descriptors and some commonality, despite the different naming conventions. According to Laub, servant leadership is found in: valuing people, developing people, building community, displaying authenticity, providing leadership, and sharing leadership (1999). Matteson and Irving (2005) compared the tenets of self-sacrificial leadership to SL and concluded "both servant and self-sacrificial leaders hold followers in very high esteem" (p. 6) but with limited overlap for Laub's dimensions of Develops People and Displays Authenticity. Sendjaya et al. (2008) convincingly argued that the spiritual component is essential as an element of SL, but opinions are mixed regarding whether or not it is a defining characteristic. In their development of the Servant Leadership Questionnaire, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) narrowed from 11 to 5 characteristics of SL, which they define as distinctly different from other leadership types: "altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship" (p. 318). In multiple articles and interviews, Spears (2004) has explained that in the early 1990s, he extracted the ten servant leadership characteristics from Greenleaf's essay—listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to growth of people and community building, though he does not view these as a closed set of attributes (Dittmar, 2006). The same ten principles are frequently reprised in leadership roundtables and periodicals with an article already referencing their “resurgence” (Spears, 2004). Of the “more than 20 themes pertinent to servant leadership” observed by Sendjaya et al. (2008), they narrowed to “Voluntary Subordination, Authentic Self, Covenantal Relationship, Responsible Morality, Transcendental Spirituality, and Transforming Influence” (p. 406). Though without data for support, Banutu-Gomez (2004) said that intuition or the ability to read followers’ nonverbal clues is a characteristic of the servant leader. Winston and Hartsfield (2004) suggested that servant leaders may be high in emotional intelligence but they qualified the claim by saying perhaps emotional intelligence is a characteristic of all leaders. Hays (2008) proposed a model of the *Servant Teacher*, and though the instrument was not validated, he identified ten “Corresponding Dimensions” for descriptors of classroom operations: “Listening, Empathy, Healing, Persuasion, Awareness, Foresight, Conceptualising, Commitment to Growth, Stewardship, and Community” (p. 117). These operational behaviors remove the more directive nature of the teacher and focus on the needs of the students. Several instruments have been developed and tested to assess servant leadership (Appendix A). Beyond the obvious focus of servant leaders being follower-centered, research has endeavored to identify its subcomponents (Appendix B).

If servant leadership remains very personal to the individual within the organization, the conundrum is how to determine if an organization’s leadership is collectively aligned with its SL mission. Nevertheless, it is important to study in

Christian colleges which have “presumed sensitivity to servant leadership ideas" (McCuddy & Cavin, 2009, p. 116). When Bolman and Deal (2003) asked, “Why do so many organizations fail to implement the noble human resource practices they espouse” (p. 157), they answered with a section about training and organizational development. McDougle’s (2009) dissertation, which sampled one two-year and one four-year institution, indicated a disconnect at a level of significance between how well the administration perceived the institution practices servant leadership and how well the “workforce,” which included faculty, perceived they were doing. At a large Catholic high school district in Ontario, teachers rated how well the organization embodied servant leadership (OLA) as *moderate,* but principals rated the same as *excellent* (Black, 2010). Despite the differences in perception, the author also found that a positive school climate was strongly associated to the presence of SL. Drury (2004) used the OLA to find that faculty rated the organization as more aligned with SL than did hourly workers, yet faculty are marked as full-time, which seems to suggest that adjuncts were not surveyed.

When Greenleaf (2002) wrote about servant leadership in light of institutions and their responsibilities, he judged that inevitable “bureaucracy seem[s] the fate of all institutions that grow old, large, or respectable” (p. 308). Given that a mission statement is intended to unify an institution so that it can stay operational long enough to become old, large, and respectable, then one wonders if an organizational mission statement, even one of servant leadership, perpetuates bureaucracy. In his chapter on “Servant Leadership in Education,” Greenleaf offered a scathing appraisal of the educational enterprise in three areas. First, he expressed the belief that educators are more than apathetic about leadership but rather they actively resist it, failing to prepare students to be leaders. Second, Greenleaf faulted education as perpetuating a social class system which only motivates students to move up in society rather than "develop their ability to lead their people to secure a better life for many" (p. 177). His third criticism was that schools are not teaching values in combination with religion declining. Although it is not clear how faculty credentialing is detrimental to the teaching of values, Greenleaf found it at fault along with the current emphasis on degrees as a qualifying credential for teachers. Ironically, Greenleaf's essays on SL, including his remarks about the United States' system of education, did not engage in data analysis, but rather were constructed from his observations in life and business. In some ways, his verbiage vacillated between the negative and the evangelistic promotion that SL can solve education's problems. Not that Greenleaf was more lenient on other institutions; in fact, in his essay on the church, he generically assigned it as "not unlike other institutions with other missions" (p. 231). Nevertheless, once Spears sifted through Greenleaf's concepts and arrived at a clear list of ten attributes of servant leadership, measures were created to assess more than SL's earliest, most simplistic qualities of the inspirational and moral (Graham, 1991).

Not only was Greenleaf (2002) negative about the educational system and most churches, he criticized the faculty as being more loyal to their respective disciplines than to the institution, a problem exacerbated by what he viewed as faculty having too much power in the governance of an institution. Curiously, and despite faulting most institutions for their dire conditions, Greenleaf's self-description was that of an idealist in his work as an "organization theorist" (p. 203). To exemplify many of his points, Greenleaf would call upon hypothetical scenarios, historical figures, the theatre, and biblical references. Considering his strong opinions about the topics of education and servant leadership, one cannot help but wonder if Greenleaf would find a study of church-affiliated educational institutions, regarding mission, among faculty—a worthwhile contribution to the field of servant leadership.

Part-Time and Full-Time Faculty

Differences and Similarities

Adjuncts teach for a variety of reasons, and many are successful in a career outside of higher education and simply teach part-time for any number of reasons. They may wish to supplement their income (Klein & And, 1996), enjoy the flexible schedule and interaction with colleagues (Feldman & Turnley, 2001), genuinely love the professional sharing of what they have learned (Antony & Valadez, 2002; Ritter, 2007; Thornton, 2006; Tomanek, 2010), want to add value to the institution or profession (Schneider & AASA, 2003), enjoy staying active after retirement (Schneider, 2004), begin the transition to retirement (Ronco & Cahill, 2006), or support the mission of a community college (Louis, 2009). Piscitello (2006) acknowledged that participants in a study of adjuncts "represent a broad variety of typologies and theoretical perspectives in terms of their backgrounds and desired positions" (p. 179); however, he found more homogeneity than heterogeneity.

While adjuncts have sometimes been called *invisible*, their numbers appear to be increasing (Boice, 1992, p. 277; Gappa & Leslie, 1993). NCES posted the percentage of part-time faculty at 48.7 for 2007, up from 42.5 a decade ago in 1997, for all Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) reporting institutions of higher education (NCES, 2008-2009). The percentage is thought to be higher for community colleges where between 57% and 80% of the faculty are reported to be PT instructors (AAUP, 1997;

American Federation of Teachers Higher Education, 2010; Benjamin, 2002; Clery & National Education Association (NEA), 2001; Eisenberg, 2010; Jacoby, 2001; Leslie, 1998b; Townsend, 2007; Twombly & Townsend, 2008). At the Maricopa County Community College District in Arizona, the ratio of adjunct to full-time faculty member is 4 to 1 (Burk, 2000). For the 102 schools in the CCCU which submitted the IPEDS staffing report in 2007, the mean of PT instructional staff faculty is almost evenly distributed at 50%. The percentage of adjuncts has been found to be greater in the liberal and fine arts than in the fields of science, engineering, and mathematics by Clery and NEA (2001). But Jacoby (2001) found at Washington state community colleges that the three disciplines which utilize adjunct faculty the most are mathematics, developmental classes, and the humanities. Liu and Zhang (2007) analyzed NCES data of 1,364 institutions (503 public, 861 private, and 18 for-profit) and found that the greater an institution's reliance on tuition and fees, the greater the tendency to use more contingent faculty. Longitudinal comparisons are challenging, due to the difficulty of comparing the limited distributions of PT or FT faculty from 20 years ago to today's research. For reasons such as this, *Faculty at Work* (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995) did not include or address any but ranked, FT faculty even in its comprehensive scope. Beyond the basic percentage distributions, what are the similarities and differences in PT and FT faculty members?

Preferences. Conley et al. (2002) found that 54% of PT instructors at four-year institutions actually preferred teaching part-time, though 39.5% said that full-time employment as a faculty member was unavailable (p. 51). Among Research I universities, Cross and Goldenberg (2002) reported that PT faculty who have a preference for PT employment are only one in every two. Tomanek (2010) found in a study of one

Midwestern community college that the respondents were almost equally split in terms of preferring a full-time faculty position. In a survey conducted by the Washington (state) Federation of Teachers at community colleges, between 48 and 85% of PT faculty (dependent upon the discipline) desired FT employment or wanted more work (Jacoby, 2001). However, these data seem less dramatic than the results of a survey specific to one discipline, conducted by the Organization of American Historians (2002), which stated that 67% worked as adjuncts only because they were unable to find FT employment. In 2010, an American Federation of Teachers (AFT) study continued to show that part-time faculty were split in their preference for part-time over full-time work, with the difference being that the stronger preference for faculty 50 years or older is for part-time work. Yet 15% say they teach part-time in the hope that it can be a “’steppingstone to a full-time position’” (AFT, p. 9).

At one state, four-year school, Maynard and Joseph (2008) found that involuntary part-timers (those working because they were unable to find FT positions) were significantly more dissatisfied than FT faculty regarding the opportunities for advancement and with compensation levels. When it comes to value to the institution, adjuncts not only offer savings in terms of cost, they also offer flexibility based on the course selections for the term (Benjamin, 2002; Cohen & Brawer, 2003; Ronco & Cahill, 2006) and allow hiring experts from industry or business who might be uninterested in full-time faculty appointments (Bland, Center, Finstad, Risbey, & Staples, 2006; Gerhart, 2004). In addition, adjunct faculty are usually willing to teach courses at night and at other campus locations (Jacoby, 2001).

Terminal degrees. If terminal degrees indicate the quality of the professoriate, and accrediting bodies do use terminally degreed status as a significant measure of faculty credentials, then full-time professors fare better than the part-time (Conley et al., 2002). Of the PT instructional faculty and staff at four-year institutions, 37.7% hold a doctorate or first-professional degree; however, the percentage for FT faculty more than doubles with 77.6% being terminally degreed (Conley et al., p. 52). Using 2001 NCES data for public, two-year U.S. institutions, where the largest percentage of adjuncts is typically found, Jacoby (2006) reported that "only one fifth of the full-time faculty possess doctoral degrees" (p. 1084). Leslie and Gappa (2002) commented that there is little motivation for a community college faculty member to pursue a degree beyond the master's since it is not typically required for employment. From the 2004 NSOPF, 13.8% of PT faculty working community colleges possessed the doctorate as compared to 18.8% of FT faculty (Cataldi, Bradburn, Fahimi, Zimbler, & National Center for Education Statistics-NCES, 2005a, pp. 24-25). Ehrenberg (2010) suggested that the percentage of PT faculty possessing the doctorate at community colleges is even smaller, "less than 10 percent" (p. 4). At private, not-for-profit baccalaureate institutions, 71% of the FT faculty are terminally degreed, as compared to 26.6% of PT faculty (Cataldi, Fahimi, Bradburn, Zimbler, & NCES, 2005b, pp. 24-25). Bland et al. (2006), employing data from the 1999 NSOPF because of its comprehensiveness, concluded that 70.2% of the faculty at research and doctoral institutions were terminally degreed (p. 105). Zimbler's (2002) analysis of the 1992 NSOPF found that at private liberal arts institutions 34% of the PT faculty reported they were pursuing a doctorate. As a sideline note, neither McCuddy and Cavin (2009) nor Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, and Jinks (2007) found a connection between possessing a higher academic degree and a greater level of servant leadership. However, Bland et al. found faculty with a PhD more often than not had appointments of tenure (84%), while MDs or other degrees (each 56%) were more likely to hold non-tenured appointments (p. 109). Bland et al. collapsed all appointments, PT or FT but non-tenure-track, into the one category of non-tenured.

Hours and activities. One might assume that adjunct instructors are not teaching a number of hours that is close to the same course load of full-time faculty, but this does not appear to be the case. Jacoby (2006) commented that contingent faculty are in most senses “neither part-time nor temporary” (p. 1085). In the 1988 NSOPF, PT instructors averaged 7.5 class hours and FT 15.5 (Eagan, 2007). In the 2004 NSOPF FT faculty averaged 10.6 hours at private, not-for-profit baccalaureate granting institutions, and PT faculty reported 7.3 hours weekly within the same institutional sample (Cataldi et al., 2005a, pp. 31-32). Perhaps one of the greatest differences in FT and PT instructional faculty is that 78% of the former engage in “professional research, writing, or creative works” (Conley et al., 2002, p. 72) while about 33% less of the adjunct population do so at four-year institutions. In the Bland et al. (2006) study of research and doctoral institutions regarding productivity, tenured faculty only spend 4% more time on research, yet they “are producing 2 to 3 times the number of scholarly products” (p. 110). Leslie and Gappa (2002) concluded that there is virtually no difference in FT versus PT faculty in terms of the journals they read and the activities that consume their days. For research and doctoral institutions, Bland et al. (2006) found that tenured faculty spend 2.66 hours per week with students and teach an average 2.22 credit hour classes a week. Non-tenure-track faculty spend 3.0 hours in contact with students and teach an average of 1.82 credit hour classes weekly. Another supposition is that adjunct faculty have another full-time job and only teach part-time to supplement their incomes. However, in the Washington state survey, Jacoby (2001) found that 34% said their earnings from PT teaching was their only income source.

Satisfaction and status. The question of institutional expectations and perceptions within the full-time professoriate and adjunct instructors becomes relevant when considering their assessments of the qualitative components of their institution's teaching environment. Conley et al. (2002) reported that when faculty members were asked about their level of satisfaction with workloads, only 15.2% of part-time instructors at four-year institutions were dissatisfied, but more than twice as many FT faculty (32.3%) reported being dissatisfied (p. 81). As might be expected, the ratio reverses pertinent to the question of dissatisfaction with the security of the teaching position and employment status. The AFT study (2010) found that 62% of respondents said they were "very or mainly satisfied with their jobs," but dropped to 49% for those adjunct faculty who desired FT positions. One of the trends for institutions who use adjunct faculty is to provide them with some level of status in hiring, such as Rider University, which created the levels of priority and preferred adjuncts, offering continuing class contracts in that order (Frakt & Castagnera, 2000). Though not matching a tenured position, it is plausible to think that adjuncts in these designated higher status categories, based on longevity and number of courses taught, would appreciate the greater security. The practice does not appear to have been evaluated as yet. Feldman and Turnley (2001) found that older ages or later *career stage* faculty at a large state university were significantly more satisfied and more committed to the profession. Surprisingly, the level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with salary was comparable, with only fractional differences between FT or PT faculty (Conley et al., 2002).

Using the same 1992-1993 NSOPF data, Antony and Valadez (2002) reported that adjunct faculty members expressed a significantly greater level of satisfaction with their jobs in terms of the overall indicator than did FT faculty. Though Clery and NEA's (2001) analysis of the 1999 NSOPF data was only descriptive, the results appear to differ, since 85.4% of PT faculty expressed that they were "somewhat" or "very satisfied" with their "job overall" (p. 7) which was not much different than FT faculty at 84.6%. That ratio evened out more by 2004, when both FT and PT faculty reported somewhat or very satisfied at a level of 92% (Eagan, 2007, p. 10). But when responding to whether or not the faculty member would "still choose an academic career'" if it were possible to do things over, only 58.9% of FT faculty agreed and strongly agreed but "an even greater majority of part-time faculty agreed (65%)" which the authors describe as out of touch with the reigning perception of adjuncts as "disenchanted academics" (Antony & Valadez, 2002, p. 49; Leslie & Gappa, 2002). This difference between FT and PT faculty responses at a doctoral and research institution was significant as well (Bland et al., 2006). Yet Clery and the NEA also reported that the satisfaction delta between adjuncts and full-timers was not as marked in the subcomponent areas of time availability for class preparation (81.2% to 75.7%) and student advising (79.7% to 78.1%).

Salary, security, and support. Perhaps most important to institutions and to faculty members is the question of salary. Despite the similarity in their activities, there are obvious differences in the pay scales of full- and part-time faculty. It is surprising that although part-timers' salaries have stayed fairly static over the years, their level of dissatisfaction with the pay has actually decreased, 37.5% in 1988 but down to 29.9% in 2004 (Eagan, 2007, p. 10). The level of dissatisfaction among FT faculty in their salary, which has similarly gone down from 33.3% in 1988 to 27.3% in 2004, is comparable (only 2.6 percentage points lower) to the level of dissatisfaction reported by adjuncts (Eagan, p. 11). Yet Thornton (2006), using data collected by the American Association of University Professors' (AAUP) research office, indicated that adjunct faculty members with families who depend on their PT appointments for total support find their "incomes closer to, or even below, the poverty level" (para. 38). Using a fourteen-week semester and 42 hours of preparation time per credit hour, Thornton estimated that the "median hourly wages for part-time faculty in 2003 range from a low of $11.19 at public two-year colleges to a high of $20.24 at private doctoral universities" (para. 40). Using the NCES data from 1999, Monks's analysis (2007) concluded that PT faculty are paid less per hour (64%) than FT tenure-track faculty, whether calculated by class section or by credit hour. Cohen and Brawer (2003) indicated that PT faculty pay was approximately 25% of what FT faculty make, at least in the community college. While FT tenure-track faculty are paid better, and they do receive benefits along with security, Thornton indicated that salary increases for FT faculty in 2005-2006 did not keep up with the rate of inflation for the second year in a row, commenting that the trend makes "faculty positions less appealing for the next generation of scholars" (para. 1). Despite the nominal salary increases, it is clear that the well qualified, intentional academician would logically desire a FT faculty appointment for reasons of salary.

There was not much difference in PT faculty perspectives on salary and benefits. PT faculty reported being somewhat or very dissatisfied "with their benefit packages" at a level of 49.4% in 2004 (Eagan, 2007, p. 10). Yet from the prior NSOPF, Antony and Valadez (2002) had reported that full-time faculty were more disposed than adjuncts to terminate their current employment should they find better “benefits . . . research facilities . . . geographic location” (p. 49). The AFT (2010) study reported that 57% of faculty members do not view their compensation as the primary reason for teaching. The AFT (2010) reported that only 28% of part-time faculty responded that their job provides health insurance, while 39% receive retirement benefits. When responses are disaggregated for community colleges, only 16% of faculty say they receive health care coverage. Ehrenberg (2004) speculated that it is a situation which “probably reduces the desirability of pursuing the PhD and an academic career among college graduates” (p. 7).

Antony and Valadez did not find any evidence that FT and PT faculty “experience different levels of satisfaction with their workloads, job security, opportunities for advancement, pay, or benefits” (p. 46) though the results were more consistent among FT professors. However, both PT and FT faculty reported similar satisfaction at the 95% level in 2004 (Eagan, 2007, p. 11). Clery and NEA (2001) analyzed the 1999 NSOPF data and concluded that PT faculty were less satisfied (combining “somewhat or very satisfied” responses) than FT faculty on benefits (PT 47.9%; FT 78.5%); advancement opportunity (PT 51.9%; FT 71.1%); and job security (PT 63.5%; FT 82.8%). Though not very different and unsurprising, the 2004 NSOPF indicated similar results, that only 56.8% of adjuncts feel “somewhat or very secure in their jobs” (Eagan, 2007, p. 11). When Antony and Valadez (2002) analyzed the 1992-1993 NSOPF data to determine how secure faculty felt about their instructional autonomy, they found more full- than part-time faculty expressed satisfaction at a level of significance. Tomanek (2010) found a correlation between job satisfaction and the areas of autonomy and independence within one community college's adjuncts.

When it comes to the availability of secretarial support, Conley et al. (2002) found that 17.9% of PT instructors judged it as poor and very poor; almost twice the percentage of FT instructors (34.1%) judged the same as poor and very poor (p. 79). Tomanek (2010) found a correlation between job satisfaction and secretarial support for adjuncts at one community college. In response to an American Historical Association survey of PT faculty, less than 33% indicated that a grievance procedure was available; however, approximately one fifth admitted that they were unaware of whether or not a grievance procedure was, in fact, available (Townsend, 2003). Articles in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* point to adjuncts' vulnerability and lack of academic freedom (Wilson, 2008), and the plight of contingent faculty is said to have "produced widespread discontent, occasional lawsuits, and national attention to the issue of treatment" (Frakt & Castagnera, 2000, para. 5). However, there are some indications that other than the insecurity of their positions, the opportunity for advancement, and the pay, PT faculty have a comparable or higher level of satisfaction than FT faculty.

Adjunct effectiveness and challenges. Measuring any differences that "the use of adjuncts" have on "student outcomes" (Bettinger & Long, 2006, p. 52) has been recent, and the results are mixed at present (Bailey, Jenkins, Leinbach, & Columbia University, 2005). Cohen and Brawer (2003) suggested that because part-time faculty are temporary, "they are chosen less carefully" (p. 87) at community colleges. However, Tweedell (2010) emphasized that there is "careful recruitment," adjuncts are "carefully screened," and a "careful selection" process is used at her four-year and graduate institution (p. 6). If awards equate to efficacy, Leslie and Gappa (2002) found that PT faculty at community colleges have not won as many awards for their teaching. McArthur (1999) indicated that grades are associated with the professor's employment status, after controlling for such variables as gender, age, and time of day of class among faculty at one community college. The student who takes class from a PT professor has a greater likelihood of making an A, which McArthur found unsurprising, since adjuncts may be "held hostage to the student evaluations" (p. 67) for the next contracted class, an opinion also expressed by Benton (2011). Langen (2011) found that 87% of administrators report that they rely on student evaluation tools for evaluating adjuncts, while 7% report their institution has no requirement for evaluation, and 20% do not evaluate adjuncts on a regular basis (p. 192). But this does not necessarily mean that faculty agree with the method. In a qualitative study, adjunct faculty reported a lack of consistency in evaluations, leading them to feel that "chair people did not know how they taught" since they might "only receive feedback on their teaching by students via end of semester evaluations" (Diegel, 2010, p. 116). In fact, Diegel noted that adjuncts heard from department chairs only "if something negative occurred" (p. 116). The AFT (2010) study found that part-time faculty are "considerably less satisfied" with evaluation procedures, and "one in three (34%) from four-year institutions" (p. 11) find them inadequate. Perhaps the differences in evaluation methods are acceptable, since expectations outside of the classroom differ, but adjuncts face other challenges as well.

Some of the challenges may be inherent to the adjunct's time availability on campus as professors who are contracted to teach a class but do not have the level of expected involvement as that of FT faculty. The common expectation is that tenured and tenure-track professors will participate in a college or university's governance and have primary responsibility for curricular decisions; they might also be expected to engage in scholarship and be available for advising students. Part-time instructors self-report that they average 3.6 hours in regularly scheduled office hours, while FT faculty spend an average of 8.1 hours in their offices (Conley et al., 2002, p. 64). Cross and Goldenberg (2002) reported that 49% of PT faculty were "without regularly scheduled office hours" (p. 28). Perhaps part of the challenge is that the adjunct professor who is a "self-contained unit" (Boehm, 2004, p. 19) might share a work space. Only 20% of part-time faculty at 551 public and private, four-year schools reported that they had private office space (Center for the Education of Women, 2006; Diegel, 2010). As contingent faculty begin to express concern about "limited collegial interaction" and "not feeling like a 'real' teacher" (Meixner, Kruck, & Madden, 2010, p. 146), researchers begin to study more pointed questions of effectiveness.

Kezim, Pariseau, and Quinn (2005) evaluated 20 years worth of grade point averages at a small private, undergraduate institution for business students and found a statistically significant difference in the grades given by adjuncts versus tenured faculty, with adjuncts giving higher grades. In 2000, Sonner studied business classes taught with 37% full-time and the remainder part-time faculty at a public university. A statistically significant difference in average grade awarded was found, with FT professors averaging 2.6 differing from the adjunct average of 2.8 (Sonner, 2000, para. 17). Kehrberg and Turpin (2002) found that PT faculty correlated significantly and negatively to grade point average, yet when they controlled for the academic preparedness of the student, the effect was negligible. Ronco and Cahill (2006) used the data from 3,787 first-time-in-college students (FTICS) at Florida Atlantic University and found that FTICS taking more than three fourths of their credit hours with FT faculty were more likely to have a lower GPA for the fall term and the first year, yet the effect was not present for the second year GPAs. Perhaps faculty effectiveness begins with their value to the department. Aker (2010) found that FT faculty understood their involvement in the department of teacher education to have an impact on instruction, yet adjuncts did not feel that it made any difference. Departments might have difficulty in holding the standards for grades and achieving their learning outcomes, but if it is true that adjuncts can be “isolated from the departmental goals and philosophy” (McArthur, p. 71), then that raises a more global question about the adjunct’s potential isolation from the institution’s mission and leadership. Though recent attention has been focused on adjunct faculty, relatively few studies have measured their effectiveness (Goldrick-Rab, 2010; Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005) or the challenges they face (Jacoby, 2001).

Instruction and evaluation. In an analysis of instructional methods as a measure of adjunct effectiveness, Schuetz (2002) found little difference in the allocation of class time and activities based on status of employment. With the exception of time spent on lab experiments, which showed part-time responses to be statistically significant and lower than full-time faculty, “use of class time would be virtually indistinguishable” if it were not for “considering what faculty members tend never to do” (Schuetz, p. 41). When it comes to the use of “guest lecturers . . . films or taped media . . . laboratory experiments . . . computers or the internet . . . [and] collaboration” (Schuetz, p. 41) as methods of classroom instruction, contingent faculty all reported significantly less use of the practices. Eagan’s (2007) analysis of the 2004 NSOPF indicated that while FT faculty assign collaborative activities 60% of the time, a little more than 45% of PT faculty do the same (p. 12). Conley et al. (2002) found an almost 10 points greater percentage of PT instructors who do not require term or research papers at four-year institutions as contrasted to FT instructors who do not require the same (p. 70). Further, Schuetz found statistically significant differences in instructional practices outside the classroom with adjuncts spending less time revising their syllabi, preparing lessons with various media tools, creating out-of-class activities within their content areas, or developing lesson plans. Using data from the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), Umbach (2007) offered support that PT faculty "challenged their students significantly less and spent significantly less time preparing for class" (p. 102) .

At East Tennessee State University's College of Education, Wollert and West (2000) analyzed results from 1992-1999 on the Student Assessment of Instruction, an evaluation of teaching. Contract faculty "scored significantly higher than assistant professors on the methods, content, and interest subscales and the total score" (Wollert & West, p. 8). Adjuncts, associate professors, and full professors received similar ratings, while in some departments, PT professors actually received higher ratings than professors at the associate or assistant level (Wollert & West). With the increasing delivery of courses online, Baker (2004) studied the differences in how online students ranked their adjunct versus full-time professors with data from the Student Feedback Survey administered at San Diego Community College in Fall 2002. Results indicated that ratings were "significantly more positive among students who took their course from part-time faculty than . . . full-time faculty" (Baker, para. 13) in the areas of respectful treatment of students, encouragement, feedback, alignment of assessments with course content, communication, and effective use of the internet. But in a dissertation which asked faculty of three community colleges to self-report on their application of the *Seven Principles* of best teaching practices, FT faculty responded as utilizing more of the practices, deemed a higher quality of instruction, than did PT faculty (Kronberg, 2004). The results about efficacy in terms of instructional method and student evaluations are mixed.

Engagement and innovation. When considering time with students beyond the classroom, 47% of part-time faculty as compared to 52% of full-time report having "spent an hour with students outside class on their most recent working day" which Schuetz (2002, p. 42) notes as laudable, considering PT faculty's limited or nonexistent compensation for the activity. Yet Schuetz also notes that 35% of adjuncts reported spending "no time with students outside class" (p. 42) with only 16% of FT admitting to the zero time investment on a recent class day. Umbach (2007) also found that PT faculty spent less time interacting with students outside of class; however, that condition seems inherent to the contingent positions they hold and the predominant classroom expectations for their short-term, course-specific employment.

Adjunct professors often maintain that they bring "innovation" (Weisberg, 2009, para. 2) to old departments with FT faculty who have not worked in business or industry in quite some time. If that is the case, then why did Akroyd, Jaeger, Jackowski, and Jones (2004) find that, excluding occupational programs, "part-time faculty in other disciplines generally use Web sites less than do full-time faculty" (p. 48) as a part of their instruction? Since 77.2% of adjunct instructors are employed in other positions (Conley et al., 2002, p. 54), it is quite possible that that they might be too busy to interact often with students but they do have current expertise in their fields (Frakt & Castagnera, 2000; Fagan-Wilen, Springer, Ambrosino, & White, 2006). Jacoby (2006) suggested that perhaps the rationale that adjunct faculty are “recruited in order to deepen the curriculum” (p. 1083) is not entirely accurate. Studies are still needed to address these assumptions in terms of refining, comparing, and contrasting the variable for FT versus PT faculty.

Retention and completion. Because the overarching objective of every college is to retain the student to graduation, persistence is a valuable component to measure. When it comes to studies on the impact that part-time faculty have on retention, the results are mixed. For students in gatekeeper courses at doctoral and master’s comprehensive institutions, Eagan and Jaeger (2008) found a negative impact associated with PT faculty, identified as “employed at or below 0.98 full-time equivalent” (p. 44), who were not graduate assistants. At the doctoral level, students’ persistence was 20% less likely and at the master’s level 37% less likely “to persist into the second year for every percentage point increase in exposure to other part-time faculty in gatekeeper courses” (Eagan & Jaeger, 2008, p. 46). At a moderately sized state university in the Midwest, Harrington and Schibik (2004) found a “linear, negative and significant relationship between exposure [to PT faculty] and retention” (p. 4) when adjunct faculty teach introductory courses. Ehrenberg and Zhang (2005) found less of an effect—that increasing adjunct faculty by “10 percentage points would decrease the first-year completion rate by only 0.5 percentage points” (p. 656). Kehrberg and Turpin’s (2002) findings did not indicate that classes taught by adjuncts influenced first-year retention, at least not as reported by students. When student course completions were evaluated for online courses, Baker (2004) found that the “completion rate of 72.7%” (para. 12) was not significantly different based on whether part-time or full-time faculty taught the course. Further, Bettinger and Long (2006) found “no effects of adjuncts on drop-out rates,” yet they questioned their own methods and concluded that there is strong suggestion that “adjuncts negatively affect student engagement at the university” (p. 66). At one Florida state institution, Ronco and Cahill (2006) determined that when FTICS (first-time-in-college students) had less than 25% of their classes taught by FT faculty, retention could be nearly 14 percentage points lower from fall to fall. However, Ronco and Cahill were reluctant to conclude that PT faculty had any “widespread impact on student outcomes” (p. 11) and rather that the greatest predictor of academic success could be found in factors related to educational background. Similarly, Harrington and Schibik (2004) surfaced other factors which impact retention from fall to spring for FTICS—gender, SAT Math scores, and the number of hours a first-time-in-college (FTIC) student attempts a first term.

Jaeger and Eagan (2010) concluded that retention at three levels of Carnegie institutions (doctoral-extensive, masters I, and baccalaureate) was significantly and negatively impacted by exposure to contingent faculty, because “a 10% increase in exposure to this type of faculty” (p. 20) meant a reduction in the probability of retaining the student to the fall of year two somewhere between 2% and 7%. The findings were reversed at doctoral-extensive institutions, and PT faculty members were found to impact retention positively, surprising Jaeger and Eagan and suggesting further inquiry. Of course, if the institution fails to retain and graduate students in the process of using adjuncts, the real question is whether or not there is genuine cost savings (Glenn, 2008). However, Jaeger and Eagan (2010) suggested the opposite—that not all adjuncts negatively impact retention at all institutions. If that is true, perhaps the question becomes how can an institution best contribute to the effectiveness of PT faculty?

Ehrenberg and Zhang (2005) analyzed fifteen years of data from the College Board, IPEDS, and the Department of Education, looking for a connection between the number of part-time faculty employed and the graduation rate at 205 public and 521 private institutions of higher education. They found that when "other factors held constant," public institutions which had a "10 percentage point increase" of contingent faculty were "associated with a reduction in the graduation rate of 3 percentage points" (p. 654), though the impact was not as great at private institutions. Jacoby (2006) used the NCES data to look at graduation rates from community colleges and found that "increases in the ratio of part-time faculty" (p. 1092) negatively and significantly impacted students' rate of graduation as did Bailey et al. (2005) even when controlling for individual student characteristics. However, Benjamin's (2002) position was that the detriment to learning is primarily due to lesser credentials among adjunct faculty and not entirely resting upon their numbers. Jacoby (2006) noted that graduation rates are also impacted by "minority enrollment increases" (p. 1093).

The effectiveness of adjuncts is further called into question in regard to likeliness to transfer from community colleges. Confirming Calcagno, Bailey, Jenkins, Kienzl, and Leinbach (2008), Eagan and Jaeger's (2009) specific results found that "for every 10% increase in [community college] students' exposure to part-time faculty instruction, students tended to become almost 2% less likely to transfer" (p. 180). Nevertheless, though they controlled for numerous variables such as GPA and financial aid, Eagan and Jaeger cautioned that contributing factors were more complex than could be explained.

Thus, cause and effect could not be determined from the study's design, and the results only pertained to individual students not the institution as a whole. When Landrum (2009) studied the differences in adjuncts and full-time faculty, he expected to find big differences in grades but found more similarities than differences. Part-time faculty did have a "slightly higher course GPA" (Landrum, p. 25), yet it was not statistically significant. When students in a social work program were surveyed to measure their perceptions of the quality of PT and FT professors in the areas of "overall course quality," "availability, and "teaching skill" (Klein & And, 1996, para. 6), adjuncts received ratings that were moderately lower than FT faculty but still positive.

After entering the workforce, alumni may moderate their perceptions of institutions and perhaps their value for the faculty members who taught them. Landrum and Lisenbe (2008) surveyed Boise State alumni who had graduated with baccalaureates in psychology. Full-time faculty repeatedly received higher scores over adjuncts, indicating a "clear preference for full-time faculty" (Landrum & Lisenbe, para. 14). In 14 of 18 questions from categories such as caring, grading, expertise, availability, and encouragement, Landrum and Lisenbe found a significant difference in alumni's ratings of FT versus PT faculty, with PT ratings being lower. However, Leslie (1998b) cautioned that every department's use of adjuncts is not all the same and does not produce the same outcome in students' perceptions. Ehrenberg (2010) maintains that the real question is "how classes are structured and taught" (p. 17) and the effectiveness of the instructor in achieving student outcomes, rather than the employment status of the professor teaching the class.

Questions about Mission

If adjunct professors are sometimes not respected by full-time faculty, then what can help ameliorate these perceptions (Schmidt, 2008; Wilson, 2010)? Over a decade ago, the AAUP began evidencing their concern by issuing a statement of best practices for employing adjuncts, which included careful consideration of the school's mission, provision of orientation, and the recognition that they must partner with accrediting associations (1997). Even earlier, Gappa and Leslie (1993) recommended an orientation that would include "acculturation to the campus mission" (p. 181) for adjuncts. Baldwin (2002) complained that part-time faculty are not treated as "key members of the academic work force who . . . make important contributions to their institutions' missions" (para. 11). Interestingly, Townsend (2000) attempted to tie mission to remuneration, when he said, "the pay and benefits for part-timers are inadequate for the mission of a college or university" (p. 4). Velcoff and Ferrari (2006) concluded that senior leaders at one Catholic university "felt generally comfortable reporting their perceptions of . . . the role of faculty related to that mission" (p. 334). Would adjunct faculty feel equally comfortable? One community college, Rio Salado, described itself as "innovative" with a "high reliance on adjunct faculty to accomplish its mission" (Smith, 2007, p. 55). At a five-campus community college district, Wagoner, Metcalfe, and Olaore (2005) interviewed top administrators about PT faculty's mission support and concluded that "the more participants focused on the mission of serving the needs of all the students at the college, the more they saw the potential for adjuncts to undermine that mission" (p. 36). They also pursued an interesting approach to analysis of the PT faculty handbook, measuring "the amount of space dedicated to . . . campus description and mission statement" (Wagoner et al., p. 31). While the handbook gave nominal recognition to part-timers' contributions, the topics appearing most frequently and occupying the greatest space were "student services and issues and adjunct contractual obligations" (Wagoner et al., p. 41). In Petersen's (2005) interviews with adjunct faculty of the school of education, PT faculty were ambiguous about organizational involvement, yet expressed strong support for the college's mission.

Cooper-Thomas, Van Vianen, and Anderson (2004) defined organizational fit as "the match between an individuals' [sic] own values and the values of their organization" (p. 52). They concluded that strategies for socialization of new employees impact "perceived fit, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment after the first stage of socialization" (Cooper-Thomas et al., p. 67). In a study of one nontraditional institution of higher education, Drury (2004) employed the OLA, finding a positive correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The author qualified his findings, however, by suggesting that this unexpected outcome might be particular to his institution, due to the disequilibrium of restructuring in progress at the time of the study. At a different type of institution, the U.S. National Park Service, Chung, Chan Su, Kyle, and Petrick (2010) found that, "trust in leader and leader's support . . . [as] dimensions of servant-leadership have a statistically significantly positive relationship with employees' perceptions of procedural justice, which in turn positively affects job satisfaction" (p. 11). The first and two more of the 60 questions identified to assess servant leadership in the OLA involve trust and trustworthiness of leaders. In a meta-analysis, Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005) found that an employee's fit with the organization was strongly correlated to organizational commitment. If organizational commitment is connected to organizational fit and organizational fit is influenced by orientation and organizational fit influences intention to quit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), then how one sets the stage for a culture of SL would seem of primary importance, particularly with PT faculty. Too often, however, "newcomers tend not to fully learn about and understand the culture of the organization until later in the socialization process" (Van Vianen, 2000, p. 145). "Even during relatively brief preentry encounters, attitudes and decisions are strongly influenced by various types of fit" (Kristof-Brown et al., p. 316) and opinions about the organization and its leadership are being made. If adjunct faculty are looking for a fit between their values and the institution's, how can a time of orientation about mission contribute to mission understanding and organizational commitment?

Faculty Orientation

Faculty orientation is de rigueur—at least for full-time faculty at the great majority of CCCU institutions. On some level, these new faculty are welcomed into the ranks, introduced to colleagues, assigned mentors, and accepted into the department. Back-to-school activities typically include one-time workshops (Goldrick-Rab, 2010), at a minimum, involving the processes and procedures of the institution. Though much is conveyed about the culture and leadership of the institution by its people's informal and unspoken messages, an incomplete understanding of the institution's mission might be imparted, if not directly addressed. Yukl recommended orientations that will formally bring new employees into the culture and teach them about what the organization values, moving beyond processes alone (2006). Savage-Austin and Honeycutt (2011) concluded that one of the impediments to the "viability . . . of the servant leadership philosophy" is a "lack of knowledge" (p. 53). For institutions with servant leadership missions, it would seem that an orientation addressing mission could increase adjuncts' knowledge. Boice

(1992) recommended faculty orientation for “learning a new campus culture” (p. 220), even for the professor with experience, yet his outline for the ideal agenda did not speak to culture, mission, or the particular needs of part-time faculty members. Forbes et al. (2010) said there is little in the literature which addresses “the specific needs of, or strategies for, the development of adjunct faculty as a unique group of educators” in nursing programs (p. 116). For the most part, contingent professors “are often unavailable for or not invited to orientation programs for new faculty” (Frakt & Castagnera, 2000, para. 6) or the orientation was not required (Forbes et al., 2010). Yet Klein and And (1996) found among social work programs that “65% of [adjunct] respondents reported having an orientation” (para. 33) that was formal. But the task of faculty orientation is complex, and Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) cautioned that “it is not enough to . . . indoctrinate employees into a company’s culture” (p. 325) when striving to optimize organizational fit. Winston and Patterson (2006) suggested that a leader “achieves unity of common values and directions… through innovative flexible means of education, training, support, and protection” (p. 8). Are these means employed with part-time faculty? Grant and Keim (2002) reported that as PT faculty numbers increase, “orientation and enculturation” become even more important because “organizational fit, job satisfaction, and retention of qualified staff is necessary and cost effective” (p. 802).

Petersen (2005) commented that some schools assume that part-time faculty want to be involved and have the time to attend orientation; however, since adjuncts are seldom paid to attend the orientation, they seldom do. Meixner et al. (2010) found that that about 75% of the faculty participating in their study “did not attend a scheduled orientation” (p. 145). Louis (2009) recommended that colleges develop an orientation, specifically for their adjunct faculty to address both “working conditions and performance” (para. 20). Harrington and Schibik (2004) recommended a “focus on professional development . . . of part-timers teaching first-semester introductory courses” (p. 5). In a comparison of core and noncore faculty members within a school of education (SOE), the primary difference was said to be how they “obtain, understand, and utilize information about [the] university and SOE” (Petersen, 2005, p. 6). In a survey of superintendents who were members of the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) and teaching as adjunct professors in educational administration, Schneider and the AASA (2003) characterized a system which “by and large . . . hire superintendents based on their reputations, assign them a course, tell them how to file the students’ final grades, and then leave them alone” (p. 10). However, when the superintendents were asked their level of satisfaction with the orientation they received, 64% were satisfied or very satisfied, yet 65% expressed interest in attending a professional development seminar if one was offered by AASA (Schneider & AASA). The AFT (2010) reported that 14% of faculty expressed the desire for “greater access to training” (p. 15).

Allen (2006) spoke to the importance of repeat communication with adjuncts, when an institution wishes to impart its values, objectives, and goals (p. 3). Relative to servant leadership, Iken (2005) suggested that an institution must "continue to educate employees on the concept" (p. 68). Alexander-Snow and Johnson (1999) recommended orientation for new faculty, “letting them know where they are, with whom they are working, and what the preferred norms, values, and policies are” (p. 106). Presumably, an introduction to values would include the mission. Persyn (2008) maintained new faculty orientation is even more important during periods of enrollment growth to secure “a common understanding of the college‘s mission, goals and philosophy” (p. 114). Green (2007) spoke forcefully that every orientation “should begin with a discussion of the mission and values” (p. 34). But beyond an orientation, administrators have a responsibility for ongoing meetings with discussion of the college’s mission. Neylon (1996) pursued the idea further, asking for an office dedicated to run a faculty orientation program and ensure mission achievement. Hubbard and Stage (2009) cautioned that when missions differ, faculty perceptions differ. However, Fagan-Wilen et al. (2006), in their comprehensive plan for supporting adjuncts teaching social work classes, never addressed the issue of acculturation to mission as a part of the orientation process. Forbes et al. (2010) did not ask nursing faculty about mission in their survey questions seeking to improve orientation for adjuncts. Charlier and Duggan (2010) studied the efficacy of an orientation program for dual enrollment faculty, but nothing in their surveys suggested that the orientation addressed mission. Neither did Strom-Gottfried and Dunlap (2004) include mission orientation in their four topics of shaping social work curriculum, instructional strategies, policies and procedures, and classroom management, yet they acknowledged that part-time faculty have limited occasion “to learn the organizational ethos” (p. 446) of which mission would presumably be included. Eagan (2007) suggested that the questions of the 2004 NSOPF surveys were insufficient to “measure the integration of part-time faculty into the departmental or campus culture” (p. 13). Townsend (2007) concluded that “the data clearly establish that part-time faculty members are not integrated into the life of the programs in which they are teaching” (para. 24). Of course, integration is made more difficult when one considers that 71.8% of PT faculty reported having “other employment outside this institution” (Eagan, p. 9).

Some of the difficulties in holding faculty orientation times for adjuncts include the fact that they often work at other jobs, are in class at odd times, often occupy distant classrooms, (Lyons & Burnstad, 2007), feel separated from the university support system, (Ritter, 2007), and might not be paid to attend a time of orientation. Add Murray's (2002) observation that "administrators of faculty development programs are oblivious to the real needs and desires of faculty" (p. 94) and the potential of nonattendance is strong. Efforts for adjunct faculty orientation seem to be in their infancy, for the most part, and not widespread; most published articles review or promote a particular orientation program, rather than collecting data to measure its efficacy.

While specific institutions might self-congratulate for their orientation programs of adjunct faculty, there appears to be scant information about mission. At Rio Salada, a community college which counts 1057 adjuncts, they credited their systems approach and the use of full-time faculty as department chairs as making the difference, since chairs are responsible for the oversight of part-time faculty. They believed that their PT faculty "continue semester after semester, with little turnover" (Smith, 2007, p. 55). One article proposed that orientation at CyFair Community College in Houston offered promise (Mangan, 2009). At Johnson County Community College, which has between 450-650 adjuncts, they offered a variety of orientation sessions (no mention of mission) within their Adjunct Certificate Training (ACT) program, along with an $800 stipend upon completion. Of the 260 adjuncts completing the ACT, 11 subsequently landed FT positions at the college (Gadberry & Burnstad, 2005). At Valencia Community College, 82% of the adjuncts attended at least some type of professional development activity, though the survey did not address institutional mission (Bosley, 2004). The reason given by 49% of the faculty for attending was because of the stipend they were paid and 79% said the reason was professional development. With so little time for part-time instructors to prepare for class, these types of orientations often concentrate on the basic "how to" survival skills such as attendance, grading policies, or course management systems. Tweedell (2010) suggested that with thorough screening and orientation on the front end as well as ongoing training and support for adjuncts, the outcome can be a "highly skilled faculty who enthusiastically support the mission of the university" (p. 6).

For the most part, the literature on developing faculty at the community college consists of essays about strategies without any assessment results or statistical analysis (Twombly & Townsend, 2008). In Hennes (2001) master's thesis, she developed and administered an evaluation of an online orientation program for adjunct faculty at Northeast Wisconsin Technical College (NWTC), giving attention to "mission, vision, and values" (p. 19) by including them at the top of the list. The number of responses were limited (32 respondents of 459 surveyed), but 53% reported accessing the online orientation section about the institution's mission, making it the third most frequented section. No results regarding the efficacy of the mission component were offered, and the orientation was summarily judged by one question, though over 90% of the respondents found it effective at some level (Hennes, 2001). However, the limited data do not seem to restrain from advocating what orientation should include—"it is not only appropriate . . . [to] introduce these faculty to the philosophy and mission . . . but also imperative" (Murray, 2002, p. 91).

Some institutions are to be commended because they do take the time to invest in their part-time faculty and hold orientation sessions for them. Based on the agendas, checklists, and presentations available on the web, many of those institutions who hold orientation sessions for their adjunct faculty are community colleges. Beyond the remuneration, another reason faculty orientation programs can fail is that community colleges do not focus on the institution's mission in their faculty development efforts (Carducci & ERIC Clearinghouse for Community Colleges, 2002; Murray, 2002). Yet it is precisely the mission that shapes faculty work in community colleges, where the greatest percentage of adjuncts are found (Outcalt, 2002; Twombly & Townsend, 2008). Nevertheless, Murray (2002) summed up the orientation at two-year colleges as "costly efforts [which] have produced only meager results" (p. 89).

Of those scholars who find part-time faculty more or less effective than full-time, one of the strategies recommended is greater faculty development (Gerhart, 2004; Umbach, 2007). Not surprisingly, Townsend (2007) found that even non-tenure-track faculty who teach FT have greater support than do PT faculty members for professional development, such as research grants, travel stipends, and workshop attendance. City College of San Francisco was lauded for offering faculty development opportunities to both FT and PT faculty, yet the adjunct commenting noted that it was an attractive exception (Levin, Cox, Cerven, & Haberler, 2010). Within industry, Kouzes and Posner (2002) credited training and development for "competence and confidence" (p. 282) in employees, concluding that the cost more than pays off in the return. In a review of issues related to non-tenure-track faculty, Thedwall (2008) listed: "salary, job security, respect, governance, and status" (p. 18) all as factors impacting higher education going forward, yet faculty development and mission were omitted. A time of faculty orientation which incorporates the institution's mission might assist PT faculty in the "negotiation between membership and anonymity within the workplace" (Wien, 2007, para.12), but it takes an institutional advocate, representing the contingent faculty, to find multiple "opportunities to communicate its mission" while also finding ways "to align processes with their needs" (Lyons & Burnstad, 2007, p. 2). Murray (2002) identified the mission of the institution as foundational to effecting change but lamented that faculty development programs "are not usually evaluated in a meaningful way" (p. 96).

Structuring orientation for part-time faculty without their input assumes that they are on the deficit end of the profession and have little to offer (Murray, 2002). Johnson and Stevens (2008) described a multifaceted faculty development program that invited all professors to make presentations in order "to develop a community of co-learners among all faculty—both full time and part time" (p. 28). Outcalt (2002) suggested that PT faculty's "isolation is particularly acute" (p. 113) and that faculty development could address the problem of identification, yet he does not mention mission as a part of the agenda. However, when it comes to job satisfaction among adjuncts, Bosley (2004) did not find a correlation of significance regarding attendance at professional development activities. At institutions which had a positive student retention outcome for PT faculty, administrators, when interviewed, believed that one of the differences was the institution's support for faculty development (Jaeger & Eagan, 2010). In fact, though anecdotal to the discussion, one of the doctoral-intensive institutions indicated that they had been including adjuncts in their new faculty orientation for over a decade. While the research has yet to be conclusive, it is reasonable to agree with Leslie and Gappa's (2002) recommendation for adjuncts of "investing in their capabilities—instead of treating them like replaceable parts" because that "should yield long-term returns" (p. 66).

Accreditation Standards

Regional and specialized accrediting organizations set standards by which colleges and universities or individual disciplines may measure their effectiveness in achieving their missions. Regional accreditation is the means by which colleges and universities establish their quality as educational institutions and offers the fiscal advantage of giving students access to financial aid, even if the school is Christian in its identity. Donahoo and Lee (2008) suggested that regional associations "appear to pay much closer attention to the activities of sectarian postsecondary schools than to nonreligious schools" (p. 325). Sectarian institutions represent only 12.6% of all institutions of higher education (Donahoo & Lee, 2008, p. 323). Nevertheless, articles "publicized between 1996 and 2005" in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* "account for more than 55% of all of the accreditation changes" and 56 of these 73 sectarian institutions self-identified as Christian (Donahoo & Lee, p. 325). Based on their content analysis, Donahoo and Lee concluded that accreditation reviews were not only more exacting on these religious institutions but they also have more problems resolving outstanding accreditation issues and establishing quality.

How do accreditation criteria address the effectiveness of contingent faculty? Monhollon (2006) posited that it is "contradictory for accrediting agencies to ascribe so much responsibility for the institution's academic well-being" (p. 23) to the academy, since the author suggests that the same commissions do not fully address the diminishing number of full-time faculty. However, accreditation standards indicate otherwise, since a common thread runs through the six regional bodies regarding FT faculty and institutional mission (Appendix C). Ronco and Cahill (2006) were correct in their conclusion that the credentialing process for faculty, whether PT or FT, is "identical regardless of who is delivering the instruction" (p. 2), according to Comprehensive Standard 3.7.1 of The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges (SACSCOC). Yet SACS Core Requirement 2.8 requires that "the number of full-time faculty members is adequate to support the mission of the institution and to ensure the quality and integrity of its academic programs" (*The Principles of Accreditation*, 2009, p. 18). The paradigm is a traditional one of full-time faculty having primary responsibility for ensuring academic quality and mission accomplishment.

Cohen and Brawer (2003) critiqued the regional accrediting bodies for lack of consistency in their standards, yet when it comes to full-time faculty and mission, there is a commonality. The Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools stipulates that if members consistently rely upon part-time faculty, "the greater is the institutional responsibility to provide orientation…and opportunities for integration into the life of the institution" (*Characteristics of Excellence,* 2006, p. 38). The New England Association of Colleges and Schools (NEACS) speaks to the adequacy and sufficiency of FT faculty in order to accomplish mission. There is emphasis that all faculty members, especially part-timers, must accept, understand, and operate in congruence with the institution's mission. In its standard 5.8, NEACS recommends that "the institution avoids undue dependence on part-time faculty: and at a minimum it must assure their appropriate integration into the department and institution and provide opportunities for faculty development" (*Standards for Accreditation,* 2005, p. 15). The North Central Association of Colleges and Schools does not differentiate between FT and PT faculty but describes an accredited institution as one where "understanding of and support for the mission pervade the organization . . . decisions are mission-driven" and faculty are named as one of the "constituencies [which] articulate the mission" (*The Handbook of Accreditation*, 2003, p. 3). The Northwest Commission on Colleges and Universities (NCCU) emphasizes the qualifications needed by PT faculty in order "to carry out their teaching assignment and/or other prescribed duties and responsibilities in accord with the mission" (*Accreditation Standards,* n.d., para. 9). NCCU adds a requirement to assess "institutional policies concerning the use of part-time and adjunct faculty in light of the mission" (para. 11). The Accrediting Commission for Senior Colleges and Universities of the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC) includes a guideline regarding sufficiency of FT faculty and the need to involve PT faculty in academic life and professional development (*Handbook of Accreditation,* 2008). Similarly phrased to SACS Core Requirement 2.8, the WASC arm which accredits community colleges requires "a sufficient number of qualified faculty with full-time responsibility . . . to support the institution's mission and purposes" (*Standards of Accreditation,* 2002, p. 15). Nevertheless, regional accrediting groups do not specify the percentage of faculty which must be full-time, which Langen (2011) views as "little incentive to limit the use of part-time faculty" (p. 186).

Perhaps accrediting organizations pay such close attention to faculty and mission because, as Hubbard and Stage (2009) point out, "faculty are the most consistent point of contact with students" (p. 287). While none of these associations set percentage limits on how many adjunct faculty members an institution may employ, the onus is on the institution to prove that mission is accomplished—regardless. The Executive Director of the Northwest Commission on Colleges and Universities noted that she expects accrediting bodies to “explore issues of collective responsibility by encouraging institutions to develop and implement guidelines on the use of part-time or other contingent faculty” (Elman, 2003, p. 72). She questioned “to what extent do departments . . . ensure that instructional staff can provide programs that reflect the mission” (p. 78). Griego (2005), in cooperation with the Indiana University Center for Postsecondary Research, advised that accreditation teams must ensure “that faculty, staff and others can become clearer about institutional priorities . . . aligned with the espoused mission” (p. 2). Specialized accreditation agencies have similar expectations. Petersen (2005) referenced the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) as requiring that both FT and PT faculty participate in governance regarding curricular and programmatic development and follow-through, concluding that it takes “extraordinary organizational leadership to remain consistently aligned” (p. 8) which returns the discussion to faculty perceptions of how well an institution’s leadership aligns with its mission. Despite accrediting groups’ emphasis on mission and a consistent expectation that enough full-time faculty must be employed to accomplish mission, the subject in the context of contingent faculty has not been fully explored.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The design of this study was nonexperimental and used a survey, intended to determine if a difference would be found between the independent variables of faculty employment status (FT or PT) or attendance at an orientation about mission and the dependent variable of servant leadership at the organization, based on the responses to the six sections referred to as dimensions and the overall score on the OLA. The other design sought to determine if there were differences among the independent variable of number of years of service at the institution, based on the same dependent variable of servant leadership at the organization, measured by the OLA. A "one-shot survey" known as the "*simple descriptive* approach" (Mertens, 1998, p. 108) was utilized because it lends itself to securing information from the important stakeholders—faculty—who convey the mission, vision, or foundational principles of the college or university to students. Mertens explained that "surveys are used pervasively in educational and psychological research" because they "allow collection of data from a larger number of people than is generally possible when using a quasi-experimental or experimental design" (p. 105).

Other variables which were considered but not selected, based on prior research, included gender and academic discipline. Since Arfsten (2006), Herman (2008), Horsman (2001), and Braye (2000) as well as Laub (1999) used the OLA and found no significant difference in the responses of employees based on their gender, the researcher determined that gender would not be valuable as an independent variable. Barbuto and Gifford (2010) used the Servant Leadership Questionnaire but found no significant difference in the characteristics exhibited by servant leaders, based on gender, among a county government's staff members. Kong (2007) used the OLA and found a significant difference in women ministers' perceptions of servant leadership; however, the number of women ministerial staff was only 10 as compared to 63 for males (p. 50). Iken (2005) and Kell (2010) collected demographic data on gender in their administration of the OLA but only provided descriptive statistics of the sample. Ghormley (2009) used the OLA but did not choose gender as a demographic variable. Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) did not find a significant difference in academic discipline as a variable for faculty "perceptions of the institution's role expectations" (p. 170). Iken (2005) studied a Christian college and used the demographic variable of science-based versus social science-based faculty; however, she did not separate responses of PT from FT faculty.

The first set of hypotheses of this study is that full-time faculty members will exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of the organization at their Christian universities with servant leadership missions.

H1: Full-time faculty members will exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Values People at their Christian universities with servant leadership (SL) missions.

Mean 1a = FT Faculty, Values People
Mean 1b = Adjunct Faculty, Values People
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H2: Full-time faculty members will exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Develops People at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 2a = FT Faculty, Develops People
Mean 2b = Adjunct Faculty, Develops People
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H3: Full-time faculty members will exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Builds Community at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 3a = FT Faculty, Builds Community
Mean 3b = Adjunct Faculty, Builds Community
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H4: Full-time faculty members will exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Displays Authenticity at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 4a = FT Faculty, Displays Authenticity
Mean 4b = Adjunct Faculty, Displays Authenticity
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H5: Full-time faculty members will exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Provides Leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 5a = FT Faculty, Provides Leadership
Mean 5b = Adjunct Faculty, Provides Leadership
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H6: Full-time faculty members will exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Shares Leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 6a = FT Faculty, Shares Leadership
Mean 6b = Adjunct Faculty, Shares Leadership
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H7: Full-time faculty members will exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of Overall organization leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 7a = FT Faculty, Overall Score
Mean 7b = Adjunct Faculty, Overall Score
$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $H_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

The second set of hypotheses of this study is that based on the number of years of service at the institution, faculty members will exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of the organization at their Christian universities with servant leadership missions.

H8: Faculty members with differing years of experience will exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Values People at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 8a = Faculty with 0-5 years of experience, Values People
Mean 8b = Faculty with 6-15 years of experience, Values People
Mean 8c = Faculty with more than 15 years of experience, Values People
$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ (claim)
$H_1 :$ At least one mean (μ) is different from the others.

H9: Faculty members with differing years of experience will exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Develops People at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 9a = Faculty with 0-5 years of experience, Develops People
Mean 9b = Faculty with 6-15 years of experience, Develops People
Mean 9c = Faculty with more than 15 years of experience, Develops People
$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ (claim)
$H_1 :$ At least one mean (μ) is different from the others.

H10: Faculty members with differing years of experience will exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Builds Community at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 10a = Faculty with 0-5 years of experience, Builds Community
Mean 10b = Faculty with 6-15 years of experience, Builds Community

Mean 10c = Faculty with more than 15 years of experience, Builds Community
$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ (claim)
$H_1 :$ At least one mean (μ) is different from the others.

H11: Faculty members with differing years of experience will exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Displays Authenticity at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 11a = Faculty with 0-5 years of experience, Displays Authenticity
Mean 11b = Faculty with 6-15 years of experience, Displays Authenticity
Mean 11c = Faculty with more than 15 years of experience, Displays Authenticity
$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ (claim)
$H_1 :$ At least one mean (μ) is different from the others.

H12: Faculty members with differing years of experience will exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Provides Leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 12a = Faculty with 0-5 years of experience, Provides Leadership
Mean 12b = Faculty with 6-15 years of experience, Provides Leadership
Mean 12c = Faculty with more than 15 years of experience, Provides Leadership
$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ (claim)
$H_1 :$ At least one mean (μ) is different from the others.

H13: Faculty members with differing years of experience will exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Shares Leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 13a = Faculty with 0-5 years of experience, Shares Leadership
Mean 13b = Faculty with 6-15 years of experience, Shares Leadership
Mean 13c = Faculty with more than 15 years of experience, Shares Leadership
$H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ (claim)
$H_1 :$ At least one mean (μ) is different from the others.

H14: Faculty members with differing years of experience will exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of Overall organization leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 14a = Faculty with 0-5 years of experience, Overall Score
Mean 14b = Faculty with 6-15 years of experience, Overall Score
Mean 14c = Faculty with more than 15 years of experience, Overall Score
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ (claim)
$\mathrm{H}_1 :$ At least one mean (μ) is different from the others.

The third set of hypotheses of this study is that faculty members who participate in an orientation about the university's mission will exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in an orientation about the university's mission in their perceptions of the organization at their Christian universities with servant leadership missions.

H15: Faculty members who participated in orientation about the mission will exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in an orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Values People at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 15a = Faculty participating in orientation about mission, Values People
Mean 15b = Faculty not participating in orientation about mission, Values People
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H16: Faculty members who participated in orientation about the mission will exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Develops People at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 16a = Faculty participating in orientation about mission, Develops People
Mean 16b = Faculty not participating in orientation about mission, Develops People

$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H17: Faculty members who participated in orientation about mission will exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Builds Community at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 17a = Faculty participating in orientation about mission, Builds Community
Mean 17b = Faculty not participating in orientation about mission, Builds Community
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H18: Faculty members who participated in orientation about mission will exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Displays Authenticity at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 18a = Faculty participating in orientation about mission, Displays Authenticity
Mean 18b = Faculty not participating in orientation about mission, Displays Authenticity
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H19: Faculty members who participated in orientation about mission will exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Provides Leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 19a = Faculty participating in orientation about mission, Provides Leadership
Mean 19b = Faculty not participating in orientation about mission, Provides Leadership
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H20: Faculty members who participate in orientation about mission will exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Shares Leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 20a = Faculty participating in orientation about mission, Shares Leadership
Mean 20b = Faculty not participating in orientation about mission, Shares Leadership
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

H21: Faculty who participated in orientation about mission will exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in orientation in their perceptions of Overall organization leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions.

Mean 21a = Faculty participating in orientation about mission, Overall Score
Mean 21b = Faculty not participating in orientation about mission, Overall Score
$\mathrm{H}_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$ (claim) and $\mathrm{H}_1 : \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

Target Population and Sample

Target Population

The target population in the study is comprised of faculty members of private, not-for-profit colleges or universities, with a CCCU affiliation, who have a commitment to missional servant leadership and a large number of adjunct faculty. The National Council for Education Statistics (NCES) totals 2,723 private, not-for-profit, postsecondary, two-year and four-year institutions (2008-2009). NCES defines *institutional affiliation* as “a classification that indicates whether a private not-for-private is associated with a religious group or denomination. Private not-for-profit institutions may be either independent or religiously affiliated” (NCES, Glossary). The CCCU document titled “900 Religiously Affiliated and Accredited Institutions of Postsecondary

Education in the USA" (Andringa, 2005), which cites the *2005 Higher Education Directory*, further narrows the number of institutions with a religious affiliation. Wide-ranging definitions, differing levels of religiosity, numerous denominational affiliations, and a variety of faiths inhabit the 900. There are a total of 31 CCCU institutions with 65 or more PT faculty, as reported in the required IPEDS staff report of 2007, with a total of 8,483 faculty members (FT & PT) at that time. The delimiting considerations for the population included the presence of sufficient number of adjunct faculty and a mission of servant leadership.

Because the study focuses on similarity of mission, it seemed prudent to utilize a defined and already self-identified population group, to ensure the homogeneity of the participants. The CCCU currently counts 111 institutions in their membership in North America; 108 of those are located in the United States. Institutions, who apply to become members of the CCCU, pledge that they adhere to the same definition and parameters of Christian religious affiliation. The CCCU specifies 11 of these criteria on its website, addressing such components as "a public, board-approved institutional mission or purpose statement that is Christ-centered," "non-probationary regional accreditation (U.S. campuses only)," a commitment to "high ethical standards," and a hiring policy which stipulates that "only persons who profess faith in Jesus Christ" may be appointed as faculty or administration (Criteria & Application for Membership, 2010).

Based on the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data Systems (IPEDS) reports, published by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), 102 of these CCCU institutions in the United States submit IPEDS reports. Clarifying the number of full- and part-time faculty at various institutions of higher education is not without difficulty. Not only do varying sources quote the numbers of FT faculty with “more than a 25% difference,” but even the NCES database contains discrepancies, primarily because “there is no commonly accepted definition of full-time” (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995, p. 7). IPEDS definitions of PT faculty can also be construed with varying degrees of compliance. The most recent, mandatory IPEDS report for human resources staffing, published in the NCES database, was collected in the 2007 instructional staff report and becomes the starting point. According to the NCES 2007 report, there was a naturally occurring break in the 102 CCCU schools, with 51 institutions reporting 65 or more PT faculty and 51 institutions reporting fewer than 65 PT faculty.

While most of these institutions would respect servant leadership because of Jesus’ example, 31 of them who had the 65 or more PT faculty were found to have a published SL identity. The researcher carefully reviewed the published mission statements, vision statements, and/or foundational principles on the websites of the 31 institutions and verified they included the terms *serve(s)*, *service*, *serving*, or *servant* in addition to *lead, leader(s), leading,* or *leadership*. To summarize, the complete population, selected from the 102 CCCU members in the United States who submit IPEDS data, was further narrowed by (1) number of adjuncts (top 50% of 65 or more) and (2) published SL mission. Because securing participation of all 31 institutions in the population was unrealistic in terms of accessibility to faculty, sampling procedures were utilized.

Selection of Sample

Mertens (1998) cautioned to be intentional about research design, “rather than accepting whatever sample presents itself” (p. 254). However, she acknowledged that a convenience sample “is probably the most commonly used” (p. 265). Since the NCES data was from 2007, the number of FT and PT faculty in the population had increased in the last four years, as anticipated, allowing for a larger number in the sample than originally anticipated.

The original goal was that three to five CCCU institutions with a larger number of adjunct faculty from among the 31 with servant leadership missions would agree to participate. That goal was exceeded, and 11 colleges and universities agreed to participate in the convenience sample, based on their particular interest and inclination. McMillan (2004) defined *convenience sample* as “a group of subjects selected because of availability” (p. 112). A random sampling method was not feasible, since the researcher needed the support of the chief academic officer who would supply the e-mail addresses of both full- and part-time faculty. That feature alone and the fact that institutions are frequently asked to allow their constituency groups to participate contributed to the convenience sample design. While the convenience sample definition applies, each institution of the 31 was given the same invitational option to participate, ensuring the equality of approach. When the researcher contacted the individual schools, she asked for a current breakdown of the numbers of full- and part-time faculty employed so as to verify the sufficiency, to avoid the danger of small numbers which can be associated with convenience samples (Mertens, 1998) and in order to update the data from the 2007 NCES report.

Since the *t* test may be used when “the population standard deviations are not known, and one or both sample sizes are less than 30,” advance planning estimated that three to five participating institutions would suffice (Bluman, 2007, p. 487). The mix of FT and PT faculty along with the response rate were unknowns which could have impacted the study's reliability. Using Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) *Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population,* as applied to the original population (8,483) identified from the 2007 NCES Report, it was determined that a sample size of 368 (for 9,000) was needed for a confidence interval of 95% and a .05 margin of error (p. 608). The original estimates were considered sufficient for large enough independent samples to meet the assumptions of the *t* tests and ANOVA.

Sample Size Considerations

Of the 11 institutions which signed the Agreement to Participate and provided the numbers for their faculty, there were a total of 1,269 full-time faculty identified and a total of 3,482 part-time (adjunct) faculty numbers for the sample. The combined sample of 4,772 faculty invited to participate in the survey was reduced by 74, based on the number of e-mails returned from undeliverable addresses. The final numbers for the convenience sample exceeded original expectations and reached 4,698 for PT and FT faculty combined from the 11 participating institutions. The intent of a point-in-time survey is to determine status quo perceptions. The survey conducted via the internet which assures anonymity typically results in a greater response rate. Though the desired response rate was initially set at 50%, based on Mertens (1998) agreement with Jones (1995), a combined response rate of 18.3% from 860 faculty members (390 FT + 468 PT + 2 unidentified) can be considered substantive in light of other studies using the OLA in higher education. Further, the responses more than doubled the original estimates, based on the population. Hannigan's (2008) dissertation only netted 5 of 109 California community colleges participating, achieving a response rate of 6% based on 216 responses (180 usable) from the 3,402 employees in the sample. Herman's (2008) dissertation, using the OLA with primarily not-for-profit institutions of education, netted a response rate of 12.24% with 633 respondents participating of the 5,170 solicited by list-serv, but only 440 were considered "fully usable" (p. 65). McDougle's (2009) dissertation using the OLA netted a response rate of 8% (74 of 920) from the employees of one participating two-year institution and a response rate of 13.4% (399 of 3,029) from the employees of the one participating four-year institution, and his 13.4% response rate was deemed acceptable. In a guide for determining sample size for Penn State students, Watson (2001) stated that "what matters is the actual number or size of the sample, not the percentage of the population" (para. 2).

The observations of the *t* tests must be independent. Though faculty members who work in the same school were responding, their observations were independent due to their different employment status. In addition, the samples did not have any overlap of membership because the demographic questions specified that the respondent must choose either FT or PT faculty status; either participation in an orientation about mission or not; and only one of the three categories for number of years (0-5; 6-15; more than 15 years). The three demographic questions on the survey were structured so as to allow only one of the choices per each category. Further, the fact that 11 institutions were included in the sample increased the likelihood for independence of observations. Since the population standard deviations are not known and the two samples of full- and part-time faculty are deemed unrelated and independent, the *t* test was used for several hypotheses.

Setting

Because all of the survey collection was done via a website, the settings of the institutions might not be considered relevant to the research; however, they do reflect a cross-section of locations and philosophies within the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities. The 11 institutions in the sample are located in 9 different states spread throughout the United States. Accredited within five different regional accrediting associations, they are situated across the periphery of the continent—north, south, east, and west—as well as at points in the middle. The institutions in the sample are colleges and universities of varying sizes, identities, and ages. The institutions' historical church affiliations are varied, with between five and seven different faith traditions represented. Some of them have clear denominational affiliations, while others would be considered interdenominational.

Instrumentation and Measures

In his 1999 dissertation titled "Assessing the Servant Organization: Development of the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment (SOLA) Instrument," Laub developed and tested an instrument to measure an organization's servant leadership. At a later time, he changed the name of the instrument to the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA, Appendix E) so as not to predispose any of the respondents in their answers. Since the time of the OLA development and his dissertation, Dr. Laub has remained active in and supported research on servant leadership by making the OLA instrument available at no charge, and more recently at a reasonable charge, for dissertations. At the Greenleaf Center's April 2010 international conference held in Singapore, titled "Leadership: Engaging Hearts and Minds," Laub was both a plenary and concurrent workshop speaker. Recognized for his scholarship, in Fall 2010 he was a presenter in the Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership Annual Conference Workshops (2010, para. 7).

The OLA is divided into three sections but measures six different areas: Values People, Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, Provides Leadership, and Shares Leadership (Laub, 2010c, para. 1). The OLA item numbers which measure the six areas are found in Table 1.

Table 1

Dimensions of Servant Leadership Grouped by Items of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (Iken, 2005, p. 23).

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

[a]The dimension of Job Satisfaction was not addressed as a part of this study.

The OLA is available in a version for businesses or nonprofits, K-12 educational institutions, and universities. Though the content is the same, the references to institution or business are appropriate to the particular audience. Laub includes a standard set of demographic questions in the OLA, but the following additional demographic questions were added to meet this study's purposes for statistical analyses.

- Faculty employment designation (full-time or part-time)
- Number of years service at the institution (0-5; 6-15; or more than 15 years)
- Attended an orientation about the university's mission (yes or no)

Currently, Laub (2010c) refers to the OLA as an instrument that is useful to measure "organization health to create healthy, servant-minded organizations enabling them to reach their potential" (para. 2). The 66 item OLA uses a standard Likert scale from one to five, corresponding to the terms strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree, and strongly agree. Six of the statements measure job satisfaction and were removed from analysis for the purposes of this study.

Data Collection

Institutions are often asked to make their faculty, staff, or students available for doctoral students' dissertation surveys, but they are reluctant to do so. In some instances they might not see the value to their institution. Perhaps they do not wish to have their names associated with the researcher or the study. Even with promises that participating institutions in the sample would not be identified by name, there is often sensitivity to participating if publication results focus on a single institution. In anticipation of these concerns, colleges and universities were assured that the design of the study would not analyze how the institutions in the sample compared to each other. Rather, the study combined the responses of the faculty members for the purpose of statistical analysis. The researcher made initial contact with the Chief Academic Officer (CAO) at the population of 31 CCCU schools, via letter (Appendix F). In instances where the researcher had met the president of the institution at a prior time, she addressed the invitation letter to both the president and the chief academic officer. A letter of endorsement for the research, from Dr. Gail Linam, Provost of Dallas Baptist University, accompanied the researcher's letter to the CAOs. Deterrents to participation which might have arisen from concerns about time demands required of the institution were addressed in the initial letter to the CAO. The researcher supplied proposed language (Appendix G) for the e-mail from the

CAO to the faculty member to indicate their support and to make their job easier. Letters were mailed on March 18, 2011.

On March 24, 2011, the researcher began contacting the administrative assistants of the CAOs at the 31 institutions in the population by telephone and e-mail. She asked if they had received the packet of information, if the CAO had any questions, and if he had found time to review it. If the CAO was unavailable, the researcher left her telephone number and e-mail address, asking a good time to call again. Telephone calls continued through April 1, 2011. By the date of April 4, 2011, 11 institutions had signed and returned their Agreements to Participate. Only one institution required a separate Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval process of its own, but it allowed an expedited review which did not delay the approval process. A copy of Dallas Baptist University's approval for the study from the Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects was provided to that institution prior to its decision.

One unexpected adjustment was made to accommodate the policy or circumstance of two of the institutions wishing to participate. One of the institutions had a policy of not sharing its faculty e-mail addresses but asked if its Academic Affairs office might be allowed to distribute the invitation on the researcher's behalf. After consulting with the researcher's committee chair who verified with Dallas Baptist University's chair of the Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects, there was agreement that it would not compromise the study and the institution could be included. Another institution asked for the same accommodation, due to technology considerations, and handled the distribution of invitations in the same manner. After the CAOs gave permission by sending the signed Agreement to Participate (Appendix H), they provided the researcher with a database of e-mail addresses, separated for FT and PT faculty members. The researcher used Microsoft Word's e-mail merge feature to send the e-mail invitation (Appendix I) so that each faculty member received his or her own invitation e-mail addressed to the one individual. They were asked to participate, given a link to informed consent information, and provided an explanation of the purpose and benefits, but the invitation did not mention the concept of servant leadership, so as not to predispose their responses. However, the faculty member was provided a link to the OLA website, and if they did read the documents describing the OLA within the site, it would have indicated that the survey addresses servant leadership. The OLA was described with its use of the Likert scale along with information about validity and reliability tests to affirm the quality of the instrument. The e-mail invitation emphasized that responses would remain anonymous and assured that each participating institution would only receive summary results for their own institutions, at the conclusion of the dissertation defense. Neither the researcher nor the institutions were able to see an individual's name connected to a respondent's answers to the survey. The researcher's communication was distributed through her university e-mail account between the dates of April 6-8, 2011. The e-mail contained a link to Dr. Laub's website for log in to take the survey at http://www.olagroup.org, an organizational code, a personal identification number (PIN), directions, a deadline for participation, and instructions to use the university version of the survey.

Faculty were advised that the opportunity to participate in the study would conclude at midnight on April 20, 2011. On April 19, 2011, the researcher sent e-mail reminders encouraging participation to all the faculty, since it was not possible to know who had or had not yet responded. The researcher also sent a request to the CAO or designated point-person of the two institutions which distributed the invitations to their own faculty, asking that they send a reminder. The original goal was set for a minimum of 368 total responses, based on the estimated population. After the survey's timeline for submission concluded, Laub provided the researcher with a report of the OLA results by organizational pseudonym in Microsoft Excel files, which were converted into SPSS for the purposes of statistical analysis. Data files containing only responses from the faculty for the individual participating institution, with no identification for the faculty member, will be provided to the chief academic officers at the conclusion of the dissertation defense.

Procedures and Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics of the demographics are provided along with number and percentage of the subgroups of faculty in Table 3 as well as the mean and standard deviation in Table 4. For testing of hypotheses 1-7 and 15-21, the independent samples *t* test was used. The *t* test measures the difference between the means in the independent samples, since only one designation in the pair "full-time" or "part-time" must be selected as is the case for attendance at an orientation about mission or not. The Levene Test was used to test the assumption of equality of variances. When the homogeneity of variance assumption was not met at the $\alpha = .05$ level for a *t* test, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* statistical test was used. Since the sample sizes of the two groups were "greater than 40, then you don't have to worry about the assumption of normality" (Norusis, 2006b, pp. 136-137). Statistical significance was set at the .05 level. Because the observation was nonexperimental and faculty were asked to identify based on the either/or demographic questions, there is limited possibility that the observations in the sample have any relationship to each other. Further, databases of faculty e-mails were scrubbed so as to eliminate any duplication, and participants were instructed to complete the survey for the institution at which they received the invitation e-mail, regardless if they were employed as an adjunct faculty member at more than one institution. No statistical test was run on the between groups of the six dimensions of the OLA, because Laub (1999) found that “the high correlations between scales rules out the possibility of using these subscores for research purposes” (p. 67).

For testing of hypotheses 8-14, the statistical measure used was the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The ANOVA is deemed to be “an extension of the *t*-test that allows the researcher to test the differences between more than two group means” (McMillan, 2004, p. 244). The assumptions for utilizing the ANOVA are that “the observations must be independent random samples from normal populations with equal variances” (Norusis, 2006a, p. 307). Normality assumptions were checked by the use of histograms to determine if variables were judged as normally distributed, with checks for skewness and kurtosis in the range of -2.0 to +2.0 as reasonable (Brown, 2010). For the third assumption, equality of variance was tested to ascertain that the “smallest variance is less than 4:1” in order to judge that “the results will be approximately correct” (Norusis, 2006b, p. 144). The Levene Test was calculated to judge homogeneity and to determine that the “variance of the dependent variable(s) is equal for all of the groups” (Norusis, 2006b, p. 325). Statistical significance was set at the .05 level for a type 1 error rate, and the Eta-square (η^2) was used to test for practical significance, using Cohen’s (1988) rules of less than 1% as trivial, 1% as minimum threshold for a small effect size, 9% for the medium, and 25% for a large effect size. If unequal variance was assumed, the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted. If the ANOVA indicated statistical significance, a Tukey HSD (honestly significant difference) post hoc test was run to investigate more specifically where the differences were. As a follow-up test to determine where the differences lie in the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis, the Games-Howell was run. With the exception of the dependent variable in the dimension of Shares Leadership, all of the one-way ANOVAs met the homogeneity assumption.

Validity and Reliability

In his dissertation research, Dr. Laub established construct validity for the instrument with a Delphi method, utilizing a panel of experts who were either authors or university professors on the topic of servant leadership to identify the dimensions of an organization which exhibits servant leadership. Participants in the Delphi panel included Jim Kouzes from Learning Systems, Incorporated and Larry Spears from the Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership (Laub, 2010b).

Reporting on the reliability of the instrument at www.olagroup.org, Dr. Laub states that he used the Cronbach-Alpha to arrive at a score of .9802 in the test for his dissertation. Reliability scores for Laub's original study, subsequent studies, and the current research may be found in Table 2. Horsman (2001), Thompson (2002), and Ledbetter (2003) showed "scores equal or higher verifying OLA reliability" (Laub, 2010d, para.3). Ledbetter's study showed significance (p < .01) with test and retest validity. In addition, Laub (2010d) cites Miears (2004) study with the OLA's Educational version which evidences "equally high reliability scores" (para.3).

Table 2

Reliability of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA)

SL Dimensions	Laub (1999) *n* = 828	Horsman (2001) *n* = 540	Ledbetter (2003) *n* = 138	Miears (2004) *n* = 165 Educational Version	Palmer (2011) *n* = 860 University Version
Entire OLA Instrument	.980	.987	.981	.987	.989
Values People	.91	.92	.89	.925	.933
Develops People	.90	.94	.88	.936	.941
Builds Community	.90	.91	.89	.919	.933
Displays Authenticity	.93	.95	.90	.935	.954
Provides Leadership	.91	.92	.91	.935	.928
Shares Leadership	.93	.95	.88	.945	.949

Note. Adapted from "Psychometrics" by J. Laub, 2010d, www.olagroup.org, para. 3.

For the purposes of establishing reliability in this study which used the University version, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated to be 0.989 for the entire OLA composite of 60 items (Job Satisfaction excluded). For the Values People dimension (10 items), it was calculated to be 0.933. For the Develops People dimension (9 items), it was calculated to be 0.941. For the Builds Community dimension (10 items), it was calculated to be 0.933. For the Displays Authenticity dimension (12 items), it was calculated to be 0.954. For the Provides Leadership dimension (9 items), it was calculated to be 0.928. For the Shares Leadership dimension (10 items), it was calculated to be 0.949. These results compare favorably with Cronbach alpha results from prior studies.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations for this noninvasive, nonexperimental study fall in the realm of the researcher keeping the promises to maintain anonymity for both the individuals and the institutions which agreed to participate. If the institution chooses to perform data analysis on the data file which the researcher provides on its own institution, it may choose to make its results public; however, the data file will not allow for an individual’s responses to be connected to the individual by name, e-mail address, or other identifying feature. It appears that the survey does not cause any physical or psychological concerns for the participants; therefore, no medical or counseling treatments were made available.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

Review of Research Questions

The research was begun with questions about faculty members' perceptions of leadership at the institution and to what extent the leaders' actions align with servant leadership when servant leadership is a part of the college or university's mission, vision, or foundational principles. Do full-time faculty members view their institution as exemplifying the characteristics of servant leadership differently from part-time faculty? Are there differences in faculty members' perceptions of the institution's leadership based on the length of time that a faculty member has been employed at the institution? Does attendance at an orientation about the servant leadership mission of the institution make a difference in faculty members' perspectives of the organization's leadership? Though the questions are not comprehensive and prompt additional queries, they are intended to add to the body of knowledge about faculty perceptions of organizational leadership's alignment with a servant leadership mission at Christian institutions.

Descriptive Statistics

Respondents to the survey numbered 860 from 11 different institutions comprising the sample within the narrowed list of 31 CCCU institutions in the possible population. Participants were instructed to use the university version of the OLA instrument; however, some of the respondents completed the standard version of the OLA, which includes identical descriptive statements to the university version but offers different choices in the demographic questions. As a result, adjusted percentages were used when demographic items were omitted. Instructions e-mailed in the invitation to participate, which was sent to all the faculty e-mail addresses provided, stipulated that the faculty respondent should choose “Workforce” as their role within the standard OLA screening questions. Additional data analyses, which exclude any respondents who identified themselves as other than workforce (e.g., staff or management), are included in tables within Appendix J.

Regardless of which version of the OLA the respondents completed, 390 (45.45%) of the 860 respondents identified themselves as full-time and 468 (54.55%) identified themselves as part-time. A demographic summary of the faculty participants is provided in Table 3. Of the 859 faculty who responded to the demographic question

Table 3

Demographic Summary of All Participants (11 Institutions)

Independent Variable	Demographic Question	*n*	Percentage (Adjusted)
Employment Status	Full-time	390	45.45
	Part-time	468	54.55
	Missing	2	
Years Employed at the Institution	0-5 years	356	41.44
	6-15 years	355	41.33
	More than 15 years	148	17.23
	Missing	1	
Attended Orientation about Mission	Yes	760	88.37
	No	100	11.63

regarding length of service, 356 respondents (41.44%) identified themselves as having worked at the institution between 0 and 5 years; 355 (41.33%) identified themselves as having worked at the institution between 6 and 15 years; and 148 (17.23%) identified themselves as having worked at the institution more than 15 years. For the demographic question of whether or not the faculty member had participated in an orientation about the college or university's mission, there were 860 responses with 760 (88%) answering in the affirmative and 100 (12%) answering in the negative.

The Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) provides an overall score as well as scores for six dimensions. The dimension of the OLA found to have the highest mean score at 3.95 was Values People and the lowest mean was exhibited in Shares Leadership. Skewness and kurtosis in the range of -2.0 to +2.0 are generally considered as reasonable (Brown, 2010), but these values were acceptable within a more conservative range, falling between -1.0 and +1.0. Means, Standard Deviations, Kurtosis, and Skewness results are illustrated in Table 4.

Table 4

Composite Average Scores: Means, Standard Deviations, Kurtosis, and Skewness

SL Dimensions	N	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Values People	860	3.95	.802	-.933	.872
Develops People	860	3.76	.918	-.737	.235
Builds Community	860	3.88	.796	-.698	.350
Displays Authenticity	860	3.81	.882	-.746	.176
Provides Leadership	860	3.83	.856	-.689	.140
Shares Leadership	860	3.65	.947	-.680	-.007
Overall	860	3.81	.829	-.698	.237

Homogeneity assumptions were met for the *t* test independent variable of faculty employment status (FT or PT) except for the dependent variable dimensions of Displays Authenticity and Shares Leadership. Homogeneity assumptions were met for the *t* test independent variable of whether or not the faculty member attended the orientation about the university's mission except for the dependent variable dimensions of Values People and Shares Leadership. Only one ANOVA did not meet the homogeneity assumption for the independent variable of length of time employed by the institution and that was for the dimension of Shares Leadership.

Full-Time and Part-Time Faculty

Hypotheses 1-7 addressed the research question of whether there is a difference in full-time and part-time faculty members' perceptions of to what extent their institution's leadership exemplify servant leadership characteristics. The independent samples *t* test was conducted, using the independent variable of FT or PT and the dependent variable measured by the six individual dimensions and overall on the OLA. When significance was found, effect size magnitudes follow Cohen's (1988) benchmarks of small (d = 0.2), medium (d = 0.5), or large (d = 0.8), to illustrate the size or strength of the difference between the FT or PT means. Nonparametric effect sizes (r^2) are considered small at 0.01, medium at 0.09, or large at 0.25. Results for all statistical analyses of faculty perceptions based on employment status (FT or PT) with means and standard deviations for all OLA dimensions and overall appear in Table 5.

The first hypothesis predicted that full-time faculty members would exhibit no significant difference from adjunct (part-time) faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Values People at their Christian universities with servant leadership missions. The mean level for FT faculty was 3.69 out of a possible 5 with .80 as the standard deviation for the dimension of Values People. The mean level for PT faculty was 4.17 out of a possible 5 with .74 as the standard deviation. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Values People was not supported because the mean for FT faculty was found to be significantly lower than the mean for PT faculty with a *t* value of -9.098 and a p = .000. The effect size (d = .624) is considered medium.

The second hypothesis predicted that FT faculty members would exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Develops People. The mean level for FT faculty was 3.43 out of a possible 5 with .91 as the standard deviation for the dimension of Develops People. The mean level for PT faculty was 4.04 out of a possible 5 with .83 as the standard deviation. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Develops People was not supported because the mean for FT faculty was found to be significantly lower than the mean for PT faculty with a t value of -10.319 and a $p = .000$. The effect size ($d = .707$) is considered medium to large.

The third hypothesis predicted that FT faculty members would exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Builds Community. The mean level for FT faculty was 3.62 out of a possible 5 with .76 as the standard deviation for the dimension of Builds Community. The mean level for PT faculty was 4.09 out of a possible 5 with .76 as the standard deviation. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Builds Community was not supported because the mean for FT faculty was found to be significantly lower than the mean for PT faculty with a t value of -8.960 and a $p = .000$. The effect size ($d = .614$) is considered medium.

The fourth hypothesis predicted that FT faculty members would exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Displays Authenticity. The mean level for FT faculty was 3.46 out of a possible 5 with .87 as the standard deviation for the dimension of Displays Authenticity. The mean level for PT faculty was 4.09 out of a possible 5 with .78 as the standard deviation. Because Levene's Test for Equality of Variances showed that equal variances could not be assumed, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test was run. Mann-Whitney *U* results for the OLA dimension of Displays Authenticity (Table 6) indicate a mean rank of 329.05 for FT faculty which was found to be lower than the mean rank of 513.21 for PT faculty with a *z* value of -10.846 at a level of statistical significance. The asymptotic two-tailed significance of $p = .000$ did not support the null hypothesis for the dimension of Displays Authenticity. The effect size ($r^2 = .370$) is considered large.

The fifth hypothesis predicted that FT faculty members would exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Provides Leadership. The mean level for FT faculty was 3.50 out of a possible 5 with .83 as the standard deviation for the dimension of Provides Leadership. The mean level for PT faculty was 4.10 out of a possible 5 with .77 as the standard deviation. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Provides Leadership was not supported because the mean for FT faculty was found to be significantly lower than the mean for PT faculty with a *t* value of -10.941 and a $p = .000$. The effect size ($d = .750$) is considered medium to large.

The sixth hypothesis predicted that FT faculty members would exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of how the organization Shares Leadership. The mean level for FT faculty was 3.33 out of a possible 5 with .97 as the standard deviation for the dimension of Shares Leadership. The mean level for PT faculty was 3.92 out of a possible 5 with .84 as the standard deviation. Because Levene's Test for Equality of Variances showed that equal variances could not be assumed, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test was run. Mann-Whitney *U* results for the OLA dimension of Shares Leadership (Table 6) indicate a mean rank of 345.11 for FT faculty which was found to be lower than the mean rank of 499.83 for PT faculty with a *z* value of -9.113 at a level of statistical significance. The asymptotic two-tailed significance of p =

.000 did not support the null hypothesis for the dimension of Shares Leadership. The effect size ($r^2 = .311$) is considered large.

The seventh hypothesis predicted that FT faculty members would exhibit no significant difference from adjunct faculty members in their perceptions of organizational leadership overall. For the Overall results, the mean level for FT faculty was 3.50 out of a possible 5 with .81 as the standard deviation. The mean level for PT faculty was 4.07 out of a possible 5 with .76 as the standard deviation. The null hypothesis for the Overall rating of leadership was not supported because the mean for FT faculty was found to be significantly lower than the mean for PT faculty with a *t* value of -10.511 and a *p* = .000. The effect size (*d* = .720) is considered medium to large.

Table 5

Independent Samples t Test, Means and Standard Deviations: Perceptions by FT or PT Employment Status (N = 858)

	Full-Time (*n* = 390)		Part-Time (*n* = 468)					
SL Dimensions	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p* (2-tailed)	*Cohen's d*
Values People	3.69	.796	4.17	.741	856	-9.098***	.000	.624
Develops People	3.43	.910	4.04	.827	856	-10.319***	.000	.707
Builds Community	3.62	.762	4.09	.762	856	-8.960***	.000	.614
Displays Authenticity[a]	3.46	.875	4.09	.782				
Provides Leadership	3.50	.835	4.10	.774	856	-10.941***	.000	.750
Shares Leadership[b]	3.33	.966	3.92	.844				
Overall	3.50	.808	4.07	.757	856	-10.511***	.000	.720

[a]The dimension of Displays Authenticity did not meet the assumptions of the Levene Test; Mann-Whitney *U* results reported in Table 6.
[b]The dimension of Shares Leadership did not meet the assumptions of the Levene Test; Mann-Whitney *U* results reported in Table 6.
*** $p < .001$.

Table 6

Mann-Whitney U: Perceptions by FT or PT Employment Status (N = 858)

	Full-Time (n = 390)	Part-Time (n = 468)			
SL Dimensions	*M* Rank	*M* Rank	*SD* (All)	*z*	Asymptotic Sig.
Displays Authenticity	329.05	513.21	.498	-10.846***	.000
Shares Leadership	345.11	499.83	.498	-9.113***	.000

*** $p < .001$.

Number of Years Employed

Hypotheses 8-14 addressed the research question of whether there were differences in faculty members' perceptions of the institution's leadership based on the number of years employed at the institution. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, using the independent variable of number of years employed (0 to 5 years, 6 to 15 years, or more than 15 years) and the dependent variable of the six dimensions and the overall score measured by the OLA. A total of 859 of the 860 participants responded to this question about number of years employed, and it was only possible for the participant to choose one of the answers to the number of years employed at the institution, ensuring independent samples. For hypotheses 8-14, Table 7 provides results of the means and standard deviations in the one-way analysis of variance for all dimensions and overall. Table 10 illustrates the Tukey HSD post hoc test results for hypotheses 8-14 if a significant difference was found in the dimension or overall.

The eighth hypothesis of this study was that faculty members with differing years of experience at the institution would exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Values People at their Christian universities with servant leadership missions. The *F* statistic for Values People (Table 8) was 6.618 with a p = .001 indicating statistical significance between the groups. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Values People was not supported since one group was significantly different from the others. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .01 level for the mean (M = 4.04) of faculty employed 0-5 years over the mean (M = 3.76) of those employed more than 15 years. No significant difference was found by the Tukey HSD in the 6-15 years group and either of the other groups.

The ninth hypothesis of this study was that faculty members with differing years of experience would exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Develops People at their Christian universities with SL missions. The *F* statistic for Develops People (Table 8) was 11.011 with a p = .000 indicating significant differences between the groups. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Develops People was not supported since one group was significantly different from the others. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .01 level for the mean (M = 3.92) of faculty employed 0-5 years over the mean (M = 3.71) of those employed 6-15 years. The Tukey HSD post hoc test also revealed a statistically significant difference at the .001 level for the mean (M = 3.92) of faculty employed 0-5 years over the mean (M = 3.53) of those employed more than 15 years.

The tenth hypothesis of this study was that faculty members with differing years of experience would exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Builds Community at their Christian universities with SL missions. The *F* statistic for Builds Community (Table 8) was 6.072 with a p = .002 indicating a statistically significant difference between the groups. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Builds Community was not supported since one group was significantly different from the others. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .01 level of significance for the mean (*M* = 3.98) of faculty employed 0-5 years over the mean (*M* = 3.71) of those employed more than15 years.

The eleventh hypothesis of this study was that faculty members with differing years of experience would exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Displays Authenticity at their Christian universities with SL missions. The *F* statistic for Displays Authenticity (Table 8) was 14.051 with a *p* = .000 indicating significant differences between the groups. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Displays Authenticity was not supported since one group was significantly different from the others. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .05 level of significance for the mean (*M* = 3.96) of faculty employed from 0-5 years over the mean (*M* = 3.78) of those employed from 6-15 years. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .01 level for the mean (*M* = 3.78) of faculty employed 6-15 years over the mean (*M* = 3.51) of those employed more than 15 years. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .001 level of significance for the mean (*M* = 3.96) of faculty employed from 0-5 years over the mean (*M* = 3.51) of those employed more than 15 years.

The twelfth hypothesis of this study was that faculty members with differing years of experience would exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Provides Leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions. The *F* statistic for Provides Leadership (Table 8) was 10.527 with a *p* = .000 indicating significant differences between the groups. The null hypothesis for the dimension of

Provides Leadership was not supported since one group was significantly different from the others. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .001 level of significance for the mean (*M* = 3.95) of faculty employed from 0-5 years over the mean (*M* = 3.57) of those employed more than 15 years. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .05 level of significance for the mean (*M* = 3.81) of faculty employed from 6-15 years over the mean (*M* = 3.57) of those employed more than 15 years.

The thirteenth hypothesis of this study was that faculty members with differing years of experience would exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of how the organization Shares Leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions. Because Levene's Test for Equality of Variances showed that equal variances could not be assumed, the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Shares Leadership was not supported because the Kruskal-Wallis (Table 9) revealed a statistically significant difference at the .001 level of significance ($\eta^2 = .028$). The Games-Howell was used as a post hoc test to compare all of the pairs of means, and the mean perceptions of faculty employed from 0-5 years was higher than the mean of those employed from 6-15 years. With a mean difference of .22 and a $p = .004$, the difference was found to be statistically significant at the .01 level. The mean difference of .48 in perceptions of faculty employed from 0-5 years was higher than those employed more than 15 years, which was found to be statistically significant with a $p = .000$ at the .001 level of significance. The mean difference of .26 in perceptions of faculty employed from 6-15 years was higher than those employed more than 15 years, which was found to be statistically significant with a $p = .024$ at the .05 level of significance.

Table 7

One-Way Analysis of Variance: Means and Standard Deviations by Groups (N = 859)

SL Dimensions	0 to 5 years (*n* = 356)		6 to 15 years (*n* = 355)		more than 15 years (*n* = 148)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Values People	4.04	.772	3.93	.811	3.76	.823
Develops People	3.92	.853	3.71	.970	3.53	.882
Builds Community	3.98	.780	3.86	.804	3.71	.790
Displays Authenticity	3.96	.822	3.78	.910	3.51	.877
Provides Leadership	3.95	.806	3.81	.887	3.57	.845
Shares Leadership	3.83	.854	3.60	.979	3.35	1.000
Overall	3.95	.780	3.78	.856	3.57	.823

The fourteenth hypothesis of this study was that faculty members with differing years of experience would exhibit no significant difference in their perceptions of Overall organizational leadership at their Christian universities with SL missions. The *F* statistic for Overall (Table 8) was 11.396 with a $p = .000$ indicating statistical significance between the groups. The null hypothesis for the OLA Overall was not supported since one group was significantly different from the others. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .05 level of significance for the mean (*M* = 3.95) of faculty employed from 0-5 years over the mean (*M* = 3.78) of those employed from 6-15 years. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .05 level of significance for the mean (*M* = 3.78) of faculty employed from 6-15 years over the mean (*M* = 3.57) of those employed more than 15 years. The Tukey HSD post hoc test revealed a statistically significant difference at the .001 level of significance for the mean (*M* = 3.95) of faculty employed from 0-5 years over the mean (*M* = 3.57) of those employed more than 15 years.

Table 8

One-Way ANOVA Summary: Perceptions by Number of Years Employed at Institution

SL Dimensions	Groups	*df*	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	*p*	η^2
Values People	Between	2	8.408	4.204	6.618 **	.001	.015
	Within	856	543.799	.635			
	Total	858	552.207				
Develops People	Between	2	18.161	9.081	11.011 ***	.000	.025
	Within	856	705.958	.825			
	Total	858	724.119				
Builds Community	Between	2	7.618	3.809	6.072 **	.002	.014
	Within	856	536.989	.627			
	Total	858	544.607				
Displays Authenticity	Between	2	21.217	10.609	14.051 ***	.000	.032
	Within	856	646.278	.755			
	Total	858	667.495				
Provides Leadership	Between	2	15.105	7.552	10.527 ***	.000	.024
	Within	856	614.133	.717			
	Total	858	629.237				
Shares Leadership[a]							
Overall	Between	2	15.321	7.660	11.396 ***	.000	.026
	Within	856	575.415	.672			
	Total	858	590.736				

[a]The dimension of Shares Leadership did not meet the homogeneity assumption in the Levene Test; the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used as reported in Table 9.
$^{**}p < .01$ $^{***}p < .001$.

Table 9

Kruskal-Wallis: Perceptions by Number of Years Employed at Institution (N = 859)

SL Dimension	*n*	Years	*M* Rank	Asymptotic Sig.
Shares Leadership				.000***
	356	0 to 5 years	471.25	
	355	6 to 15 years	419.39	
	148	more than 15 years	356.23	

$^{***}p < .001$.

Table 10

Tukey HSD for One-Way ANOVA: Perceptions by Number of Years Employed at Institution

SL Dimensions	Year (A)	Year (B)	*M* Difference (A - B)	Sig.
Values People	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.10186	.204
		more than 15 years	.28234**	.001
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.10186	.204
		more than 15 years	.18048	.054
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.28234**	.001
		6 to 15 years	-.18048	.054
Develops People	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.21212**	.005
		more than 15 years	.39395***	.000
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.21212**	.005
		more than 15 years	.18183	.102
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.39395***	.000
		6 to 15 years	-.18183	.102
Builds Community	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.11922	.111
		more than 15 years	.26340**	.002
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.11922	.111
		more than 15 years	.14418	.151
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.26340**	.002
		6 to 15 years	-.14418	.151
Displays Authenticity	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.18251*	.014
		more than 15 years	.44449***	.000
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.18251*	.014
		more than 15 years	.26198**	.006
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.44449***	.000
		6 to 15 years	-.26198**	.006
Provides Leadership	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.13942	.073
		more than 15 years	.37799***	.000
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.13942	.073
		more than 15 years	.23857*	.011
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.37799***	.000
		6 to 15 years	-.23857*	.011
Shares Leadership[a]				
Overall	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.16316*	.022
		more than 15 years	.37547***	.000
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.16316*	.022
		more than 15 years	.21231*	.023
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.37547***	.000
		6 to 15 years	-.21231*	.023

[a]The dimension of Shares Leadership did not meet the homogeneity assumptions of the Levene Test; the Games-Howell was used as reported in Table 11.
$*p < .05$ $**p < .01$ $***p < .001$.

Table 11

Games-Howell Test: Perceptions by Number of Years Employed at Institution

SL Dimension	Year (A)	Year (B)	*M* Difference (A - B)	Sig.
Shares Leadership	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.22246**	.004
		more than 15 years	.47894***	.000
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.22246**	.004
		more than 15 years	.25648*	.024
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.47894***	.000
		6 to 15 years	-.25648*	.024

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$.

Participation in Orientation about Mission

Hypotheses 15-21 addressed the research question of whether or not faculty members' perceptions of the organization's alignment with its mission would differ, based upon their attendance at a time of orientation regarding the servant leadership mission of the institution. The independent samples *t* test was conducted, using the independent variable of attendance at orientation about mission or no attendance and the dependent variable measured by the six individual dimensions and the Overall score of the Organizational Leadership Assessment. Results for all statistical analysis of faculty perceptions based on attendance at an orientation about mission, with means and standard deviations for OLA dimensions and overall appear in Table 12. Results of the nonparametric test for hypothesis 18 for the dimension of Displays Authenticity are illustrated in Table 13.

The fifteenth hypothesis of this study is that faculty members who participated in an orientation about the mission would exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in an orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Values People at their Christian universities with SL missions. The mean level for faculty attending an orientation about mission was 3.96 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .81 for the dimension of Values People. The mean level for faculty not attending an orientation about mission was 3.90 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .76. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Values People was supported because the mean for faculty who attended an orientation about mission was not found to differ at a level of statistical significance from faculty who did not attend an orientation about mission in the two-tailed test (p = .470).

The sixteenth hypothesis of this study is that faculty members who participated in an orientation about the mission would exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in an orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Develops People . The mean level for faculty attending an orientation about mission was 3.77 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .93 for the dimension of Develops People. The mean level for faculty not attending an orientation about mission was 3.71 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .81. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Develops People was supported because the mean for faculty who attended an orientation about mission was not found to differ at a level of statistical significance from faculty who did not attend an orientation about mission in the two-tailed test (p = .502).

The seventeenth hypothesis of this study is that faculty members who participated in an orientation about the mission would exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in an orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Builds Community. The mean level for faculty attending an orientation about mission was 3.89 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .80 for the dimension of

Builds Community. The mean level for faculty not attending an orientation about mission was 3.78 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .72. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Builds Community was supported because the mean for faculty who attended an orientation about mission was not found to differ at a level of statistical significance from faculty who did not attend an orientation about mission in the two-tailed test (p = .170).

The eighteenth hypothesis of this study is that faculty members who participated in an orientation about the mission would exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in an orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Displays Authenticity. The mean level for faculty attending an orientation about mission was 3.81 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .90 for the dimension of Displays Authenticity. The mean level for faculty not attending an orientation about mission was 3.77 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .74. Because the Levene Test for Equality of Variances showed that equal variances could not be assumed, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test (Table 13) was run with a mean rank of 434.42 for faculty attending an orientation which was found not to differ at a level of statistical significance from the mean rank of 400.70 for faculty who did not attend an orientation about mission. The asymptotic two-tailed significance of .201 supported the null hypothesis in the dimension of Displays Authenticity.

The nineteenth hypothesis of this study is that faculty members who participated in an orientation about the mission would exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in an orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Provides Leadership. The mean level for faculty attending an orientation about mission was 3.85 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .87 for the dimension of Provides Leadership. The mean level for faculty not attending an orientation about mission was 3.68 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .75. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Provides Leadership was supported because the mean for faculty who attended an orientation about mission was not found to differ at a level of statistical significance from faculty who did not attend an orientation about mission in the two-tailed test (p = .060).

The twentieth hypothesis of this study is that faculty members who participated in an orientation about the mission would exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in an orientation in their perceptions of how the organization Shares Leadership. The mean level for faculty attending an orientation about mission was 3.66 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .96 for the dimension of Shares Leadership. The mean level for faculty not attending an orientation about mission was 3.62 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .85. The null hypothesis for the dimension of Shares Leadership was supported because the mean for faculty who attended an orientation about mission was not found to differ at a level of statistical significance from faculty who did not attend an orientation about mission in the two-tailed test (p = .714).

The twenty-first hypothesis of this study is that faculty members who participated in an orientation about the mission would exhibit no significant difference from faculty members who did not participate in an orientation in their perceptions of Overall organization leadership. The mean level for faculty attending an orientation about mission was 3.82 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .84 for the Overall perspective. The mean level for faculty not attending an orientation about mission was 3.74 out of a possible 5 with a standard deviation of .73. The null hypothesis for the OLA Overall was supported because the mean for faculty who attended an orientation about mission was not found to differ at a level of statistical significance from faculty who did not attend an orientation about mission in the two-tailed test (p = .366).

Table 12

Independent Samples t Test: Perceptions by Attendance at Orientation about Mission (N = 860)

	Yes (n = 760)		No (n = 100)				
SL Dimensions	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p* (2-tailed)
Values People	3.96	.808	3.90	.757	858	.723	.470
Develops People	3.77	.932	3.71	.805	858	.672	.502
Builds Community	3.89	.805	3.78	.723	858	1.374	.170
Displays Authenticity[a]	3.81	.898	3.77	.745			
Provides Leadership	3.85	.868	3.68	.747	858	1.887	.060
Shares Leadership	3.66	.961	3.62	.845	858	.367	.714
Overall	3.82	.841	3.74	.730	858	.905	.366

[a]The dimension of Displays Authenticity did not meet the homogeneity assumptions of the Levene Test; Mann-Whitney *U* results reported in Table 13.

Table 13

Mann-Whitney U: Perceptions by Attendance at an Orientation about Mission (N = 860)

	Yes (n = 760)	No (n = 100)			
SL Dimension	*M* Rank	*M* Rank	*SD(All)*	*z*	Asymptotic Sig.
Displays Authenticity	434.42	400.70	.882	-1.277	.201

Chapter Four provided the results of the statistical analyses for the independent *t* test used to measure hypotheses one through seven, for which the null hypotheses were not supported. Results of the statistical analyses for the one-way analysis of variance used to measure hypotheses eight through fourteen did not support the null hypotheses. Results of the statistical analyses for the independent *t* test used to measure hypotheses fifteen through twenty-one found no significant difference, and the null hypotheses were supported. Chapter Five provides a summary of the results and discussion about the implications and recommendations relevant to the study.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The researcher's interest in the study was based on an understanding that mission is critical to colleges' and universities' accreditation, within an environment of increasing reliance on contingent faculty, and against a backdrop of somewhat negative attention and limited research as to adjuncts' efficacy. For Christian universities who espouse servant leadership, there is motivation and importance to organizational leaders exhibiting the characteristics of that mission. Since faculty, both FT and PT, are the primary interface with students, it seemed prudent to discover if there was a difference in the perceptions of faculty based on three identifiers—employment status, number of years employed, and attendance at an orientation about mission. The first area of inquiry sought to discover if FT and PT faculty differed in their perceptions of how well their organizational leaders exemplified servant leadership. The second area of inquiry sought to discover if faculty members' perceptions would differ based on the number of years they had been employed at the institution. The third area of inquiry sought to discover whether or not attending a time of orientation regarding the servant leadership mission would make a difference in faculty members' perceptions of the organizational leadership's alignment with its mission. Eleven institutions with membership in the CCCU who have a servant leadership mission and who had reported at least 65 PT faculty members, in the last required IPEDS staffing report comprised the convenience sample which participated. The Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) measured six dimensions of servant leadership and the overall perspective, and 860 faculty members participated in the study.

An independent samples *t* test was used to measure the independent variable of full-time and part-time (adjunct) faculty status and the independent variable of faculty's attendance or not at an orientation about the mission. A one-way ANOVA was used to analyze the faculty's perceptions of the organizational leadership within the sample, based on their years of employment at the institution. A summary of the results are provided for the hypotheses of the study.

Summary of Study

Part-time (adjunct) faculty respondents rate organizational leadership higher than do full-time faculty in all six dimensions of servant leadership and overall at a level of statistical significance. The null hypothesis (H1) for the dimension of Values People was not supported. The null hypothesis (H2) for the dimension of Develops People was not supported. The null hypothesis (H3) for the dimension of Builds Community was not supported. The null hypothesis (H4) for the dimension of Displays Authenticity was not supported. The null hypothesis (H5) for the dimension of Provides Leadership was not supported. The null hypothesis (H6) for the dimension of Shares Leadership was not supported. Consequently, the null hypothesis (H7) for the Overall score of the OLA was not supported.

Faculty employed at the institution a fewer number of years rate the organization's leadership higher than do those employed longer in at least one of the pairs' comparisons for every dimension of servant leadership at a level of statistical significance. The null hypothesis (H8) for the dimension of Values People was not supported since perceptions of faculty employed 0-5 years exceeded those employed more than 15 years. The null hypothesis (H9) for the dimension of Develops People was not supported since perceptions of faculty employed 0-5 years exceeded those employed 6-15 years as well as those employed more than 15 years. The null hypothesis (H10) for the dimension of Builds Community was not supported since perceptions of faculty employed 0-5 years exceeded those employed more than 15 years. The null hypothesis (H11) for the dimension of Displays Authenticity was not supported since perceptions of faculty employed 0-5 years exceeded those employed 6-15 years as well as those employed more than 15 years, and perceptions of those employed 6-15 years exceeded those employed more than 15 years. The null hypothesis (H12) for the dimension of Provides Leadership was not supported since perceptions of faculty employed between 0 and 5 years and 6-15 years exceeded those employed more than 15 years. The null hypothesis (H13) for the dimension of Shares Leadership was not supported since perceptions of faculty employed 0-5 years exceeded those employed 6-15 years as well as those employed more than 15 years; and perceptions of those employed 6-15 years exceeded those employed more than 15 years. The null hypothesis (H14) for the OLA Overall category was not supported since perceptions of faculty employed 0-5 years exceeded those employed 6-15 years as well as those employed more than 15 years; and perceptions of those employed 6-15 years exceeded those employed more than 15 years.

Based on whether or not faculty attended an orientation about mission, their perceptions of the organization’s leadership do not significantly differ in any of the dimensions of servant leadership or overall. The null hypothesis (H15) was supported for the dimension of Values People. The null hypothesis (H16) was supported for the dimension of Develops People. The null hypothesis (H17) was supported for the dimension of Builds Community. The null hypothesis (H18) was supported for the dimension of Displays Authenticity. The null hypothesis (H19) was supported for the dimension of Provides Leadership. The null hypothesis (H20) was supported for the dimension of Shares Leadership. The null hypothesis (H21) was supported for the Overall score on the OLA.

Summary of Findings and Interpretation of Results

The perceptions of faculty have been studied in the academy in areas such as pay scale, policies, motivation, job satisfaction, and grades to name a few. As adjunct faculty numbers have increased, so has the attention being given to their effectiveness in areas such as retention, graduation, and grades, perhaps with some tendency to assumptions of inadequacy with limited empirical research to substantiate. When a Christian institution of higher education has identified its mission as one of servant leadership, there is an expectation that its servant leaders at all levels, and particularly in administration, should “walk the talk” and exhibit qualities of servant leadership. Cotten and Wilson (2006) concluded what educators have long assumed that “student-faculty interactions are an important determinant of student outcomes” (p. 514). Because faculty have the greatest level of interaction with students and the greatest capacity for influence, a faculty member’s perception of the organizational leadership’s congruence with its mission can contribute to the success of an institution. If a large number of adjuncts teach students, if adjuncts spend less time at an institution without knowing it as well, and if adjuncts have limited or negative perceptions of the organizational leadership’s alignment with its servant leadership mission, then it is plausible to think that such perceptions could influence the students they teach. It was for this purpose that this study sought to determine if faculty’s perceptions of organizational leadership differed significantly based on employment status, years employed, or attendance at an orientation about mission.

Full-Time or Part-Time Employment Status

Of the 858 respondents in this study teaching at least one or more classes at the 11 colleges and universities who chose to answer the question regarding employment status, PT faculty had a higher perception of their organizational leadership's alignment with its servant leadership mission, as measured by the OLA, than did FT faculty members. On a five point scale in their Overall rating, the mean (M = 4.07) for PT faculty was over a half of a point above the mean (M = 3.50) for FT faculty. While FT faculty are at the midpoint above the "undecided" rating in the Overall rating of the OLA, PT faculty "agree" that the organizational leadership exhibits servant leadership characteristics. In the individual dimensions, FT faculty's mean perceptions registered between 3.33 and 3.69, while PT faculty means were higher, ranging between 3.92 and 4.17 (Table 5). The lowest means for any dimension was Shares Leadership for full-time faculty (M = 3.33). Some of the questions for Shares Leadership for rating "Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership" include the following:

24. Allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed.

29. Give workers the power to make *important* decisions.

34. Encourage each person to exercise leadership.

Another relevant question for Shares Leadership within the general rating of "people within this organization" includes:

17. Are encouraged by supervisors to share in making *important* decisions.

Despite the committee work and governance that faculty senates contribute to such academic processes as program approval, it is possible that these are not viewed as "important decisions" or an "exercise [of] leadership." Or, perhaps individual respondents to the survey made their judgments based on their individual contributions to shared leadership, rather than their collective participation as a faculty. When it comes to strategic planning processes about "where this organization is headed," wide variations of constituency involvement may be seen among colleges and universities. Even large strategic planning committees will seldom have more than a few faculty representatives in their membership which means the majority of the faculty respondents to this survey may have never participated in future planning for the organization.

For every dimension of the OLA, the statistical analysis indicated a significant difference at the .001 level between FT and PT faculty's perceptions (Tables 5 and 6). The results align with the limited studies of faculty differences found in the satisfaction that PT faculty expressed over FT faculty with their careers, their affective commitment, and the sentiment that they would choose an academic career if they had the choice to make all over again (Antony & Valadez, 2002; Maynard & Joseph, 2008).

This study did not research the reasons for PT faculty rating their organization's leadership significantly higher in every dimension of servant leadership, but perhaps there is something relational to be learned from Smith and Shoho (2007). Smith and Shoho found that adjunct faculty members have a greater degree of trust in their academic deans than do tenured faculty, which the researchers explain might be fostered by respect for positional leadership as a baseline, since all factors to be considered are not readily known. If so, that would be in keeping with how administrators view themselves, as leaders based on the requirements of the position (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006). Rosser's (2004) analysis of NSOPF data concluded that "tenured professors also perceive their worklife as less positive than untenured professors" (p. 303). Though "tenured" cannot be equated to "full-time" and "worklife" does not consist entirely of the dimensions displayed in servant leadership (Values People, Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, Provides Leadership, and Shares Leadership), Rosser's conclusion might be relevant to this study's findings about faculty perceptions, at least to some degree. Further, the results remind that part-time faculty members' reasons for working are not solely based on financial need; many simply enjoy the academic environment, love sharing their expertise (Antony & Valadez, 2002; Ritter, 2007; Thornton, 2006; Tomanek, 2010), or feel good about empowering the next generation of leaders.

For institutions which employ a large number of contingent faculty, the results are positive and suggest that their perceptions of the mission alignment of their organizational leaders are favorable, whether or not they have much interaction with the leaders and despite what appears on surface to be less than favorable working conditions. As the primary interface with students, there appears to be no damaging effect for adjunct faculty—at least not in their understanding of missional servant leadership and views of organizational leaders.

Number of Years Employed at the Institution

For the researchers who considered the years of an employee's service in their analysis of the OLA, several studies did not find that the variable was significant (Arfsten, 2006; Herman, 2010; Iken, 2005; Kell, 2010). In addition, in a recent dissertation concerning faculty job satisfaction levels, Stachowiak (2010) found that there was no significant difference based on years of service. These studies were not in keeping with the findings about number of years employed in this study of faculty perceptions.

Of the 859 participants who responded to the demographic question regarding number of years employed, this study found some levels of significant difference. The lowest means for any dimension was Shares Leadership for faculty employed more than 15 years (M = 3.35), prompting similar observations to those about full-time faculty as to why those with the greatest longevity do not view themselves as contributing to planning and important decision-making for the institution. For every dimension of the OLA (Values People, Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, Provides Leadership, Shares Leadership, and Overall) there were significant differences found between at least two of the three subgroups. Faculty employed from 0 to 5 years had stronger perceptions that their organizational leadership exhibited characteristics of servant leadership in all dimensions and overall than faculty who had worked more than 15 years at their institution. For the dimensions of Develops People, Displays Authenticity, Shares Leadership, and Overall, faculty employed from 0 to 5 years had stronger perceptions that their organizational leadership exhibited characteristics of servant leadership in all dimensions and overall than faculty who had worked from 6-15 years at the same institution. For the dimensions of Displays Authenticity, Provides Leadership, Shares Leadership, and Overall, faculty employed from 6-15 years had stronger perceptions that their organizational leadership exhibited characteristics of servant leadership than faculty who had worked for more than 15 years at the same institution.

In the instance of working longer under an organization's leaders at an institution of higher education, the years increase the opportunity for the number of interactions—both negative and positive. A greater number of years employed at an institution would, ostensibly, have the greater likelihood of increasing the faculty member's observations, information, and insights about its organizational leaders. The idiomatic expression "familiarity breeds contempt" comes to mind. In a study about constituent familiarity with congressional leaders, Mondak, Carmines, Huckfeldt, Mitchell, and Schraufnagel (2007) concluded that "citizens who know Congress the best like Congress the least"(p. 34). Research by Norton, Frost, and Ariely (2007) confirmed that possessing more information about a person results in liking them significantly less.

This study does not explain the results but it does generate more questions regarding the significant differences. Perhaps the number of negative interactions was greater, perhaps expectations for leadership increase over time, or perhaps a faculty member's memory is stronger about the negative interactions. Since the greatest number of significant differences occur between the lowest and highest number of years, the faculty member with longer tenure would have had a greater opportunity to work under a number of different leaders with varying leadership styles as well. In addition, they might have worked in various departments within different circumstances, cultures, challenges, and contexts. Many variables, other than number of years alone, could have contributed to the differences in perceptions. These results could, however, be construed as aligning with other related research within a sample of hospital employees (Lok & Crawford, 2001) and among faculty, staff, and administrators in higher education (Thomas, 2008). Both studies found an inverse relationship between tenure and commitment to the organization.

Attendance at Orientation about Mission

No significant difference was found for the independent variable of attendance or no attendance at an orientation about mission, and the null hypotheses were supported. Though this research question seemed initially relevant as a contributing factor to whether or not faculty would understand the institution's mission, it did not produce a significant difference in faculty perceptions of organizational leadership. Does the lack of significant difference, based on the demographic question of attendance at orientation or not, have any meaning? Orientation is not the only way that faculty acquire an understanding of mission; much may be learned about mission via more informal means. Furthermore, it is possible that given the length of time since the faculty member participated in an orientation, he or she might simply assume that one must have been provided, that mission probably was addressed, and that he or she must have attended. It is also highly possible that colleges and universities infuse the mission into more of their community rather than simply cover it at a time of orientation. Ongoing faculty development activities might address mission. Some institutions have a requirement that mission be addressed in the course syllabi and in promotional materials, all of which would allow an understanding of mission to be acquired by means other than formal orientation.

With little empirical research available about orientation, specifically to mission as a component of faculty orientation, it can still be considered a positive that faculty do find ways to inculcate the servant leadership mission into their understanding by some means other than a formal time of presentation. It was somewhat surprising to see that such a large percentage (88%) of the faculty (FT & PT) had attended an orientation about mission. Additionally, it was encouraging to find upon closer scrutiny of the data that only 73 of the

368 PT faculty reported they had not participated in an orientation about mission. Of course, this does not measure the efficacy of an orientation, consider its format or presenters, or measure what was conveyed about a servant leadership mission and its characteristics. In addition, there is always the possibility that faculty might have answered in the affirmative, to give the institution the benefit of the doubt. In other words, as time passed and the faculty member acquired more information about the institution’s mission, it is possible that they attributed that knowledge to have derived from a time of orientation. Further, the result does not say whether or not the institutions offered an orientation about mission but only that the faculty member had or had not attended one. Regardless, attendance at an orientation about mission does not appear to negatively or positively influence faculty perceptions of the organizational leaders’ authenticity, how well they value or develop people, whether or not they build community, and if they provide or share leadership.

Generalizations

Because this study was dependent on the optional participation of the convenience sample of 11 institutions within the population of 31 Christian colleges or universities with membership in the CCCU which have servant leadership missions, its generalizability is not without caution. While other Christian colleges might find some of the results resonate with their understanding of their own institution, the researcher offers no such broad applicability. At a minimum, the strength and consistency of the findings regarding hypotheses one through seven about PT faculty having a higher perception found in those leading the organization, for every dimension measured by the OLA, offers possible parallels among other schools with similar missions. It is unknown if the years employed at the institutions or attendance at an orientation about mission would be generalizable to the larger population and relevance could depend upon a number of other unaccounted for variables.

Limitations

The sample of institutions (11) represented 35% of the population (31) who elected to participate in this study. Notwithstanding their similar missions and Christian identities, each institution has unique nuances representing limitations. The sample is limited in that it only measured faculty members' perceptions of organizational leadership's alignment with the dimensions of servant leadership found in the OLA. Among other stakeholders of the institutions, such as students, staff, alumni, or trustees, perceptions might differ. Further, it is possible that each institutional culture defines servant leadership differently. They might attribute other characteristics to servant leadership in addition to the six dimensions of Values People, Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, Provides Leadership, and Shares Leadership. Additionally, each institution could easily place varying levels of value or emphasis on these dimensions. Another unknown which could represent differences in the institutions' understanding of its servant leadership mission could be the length of time the servant leadership mission has been in place.

It was also anticipated that respondents might well define their organization's leadership differently, as they reflected on the statements found within Section 1 of the OLA about "managers/supervisors and top leadership." It is not known if respondents were considering academic leaders such as deans or department chairs as "managers/supervisors and top leadership." However, the OLA has been used in multiple studies without offering an organizational hierarchy to define these terms any further. Essentially, the respondent is allowed self-definition of leadership at their own organization as they are also able to apply their own personal standards for each of the statements within the OLA. One person's judgment might not equal another person's judgment, yet this is the inherent nature of self-administered, indirect survey assessments. Substantive variability could be found among the organizational structures and classifications of the various institutions. Since faculty members have different levels of interaction with the president and cabinet, their answers are quite naturally limited to the leaders, academic or administrative, with whom they have the greatest degree of experience. In addition, it is unknown what degree of familiarity that faculty, particularly adjuncts, have with the organization's leadership team.

Implications

As higher education is at a crossroads which can "test the boundaries of its economic and intellectual resources," (Baker, 2002, p. 629) studies which consider the organizational essentials of mission among its most important members of the workforce, the faculty, can be helpful. Particularly relevant are the opinions of the fastest growing members of the higher education workforce, the part-time faculty members who without rank, long-term contract, or tenure are yet pivotal in their representations of the mission and its leaders to their students. While PT faculty are considered substandard by some in the academy, they appear to view their leaders favorably. It would be helpful to learn if this means that on the most simplistic level that adjuncts respect leaders based on position. The findings of this study are in keeping with Maynard and Joseph (2008) who found that "part-time faculty positions are not inherently dissatisfying," and PT faculty "report relative satisfaction with their jobs and emotional attachment to their institutions" (p. 149).

Since adjunct faculty members in this study expressed higher perceptions of the organizational leadership's alignment with its servant leadership mission, the question becomes why full-time faculty members think less of the same. Without further research, only speculation can be made as to their lesser opinion. If there are "administrative behaviors that hinder faculty work and create barriers to the development of stimulating intellectual and social climates" as Del Favero (2002) stated, then they "have the potential for negatively impacting student learning outcomes" (p. 64). Likewise, if there are full-time faculty beliefs or behaviors that adversely impact administrative capacity to accomplish the mission, then these should be explored and addressed.

The standards of regional accreditation derive from best institutional practices and its membership, relying on qualified colleagues to apply their collective judgments in evaluating institutions according to standards, voted upon by their membership. It is by this means that peer accreditation successfully self-monitors, allowing institutions within the broader higher education mission to further differentiate their own missions and take responsibility for evidencing whether or not they accomplish both the general and specific. It is possible that accreditation standards which reference mission speak to the more general one for higher education, rather than the specifics of the differentiated, such a servant leadership. Even so, as a part of regional accreditation's ongoing self-analysis and desire for improvement, the results of this study regarding adjunct faculty's perceptions might contribute to a discussion of how mission is accomplished and by whom. At a minimum, faculty perceptions of mission might begin a new conversation in the academy about contingents' capacity, commitment, sufficiency, ongoing development, and integration into the life of the college or university.

The implications regarding years of employment at an institution are much more complex and specialized; nevertheless, they pertain to the ongoing care and development of long-term faculty members. Is there some perception within leaders themselves that professors who remain at an institution are satisfied in their jobs, without inquiring if that is an accurate assumption. If organizational leadership contributes to organizational climate, then this study's results do not align with those of Thomas (2008) who "did not find any differences in climate perceptions based upon … years of experience in higher education, [or] full- or part-time status" in his study of Christian higher education (p. 243). He observed that "employees may remain with the organization because of their agreement with the school's mission" (p. 244) which is a plausible reason for longevity, rather than any degree of satisfaction with organizational leadership.

If leaders invest time in sustaining relationships with ongoing faculty, much as they focus on building relationships with new hires, the question is whether or not the benefits would outweigh the cost. Meixner et al. (2010) found that "satisfied part-time faculty members revealed that full-time faculty members, department chairs, associate deans, and college deans took the time to engage with them" (p. 146). If it is possible for part-time faculty members to engage more fully with long-term faculty members, as well as the organization's leaders, some of the reciprocal benefits might include new excitement, innovation, wisdom, and maturity.

Finally, though Meixner et al. (2010) report adjuncts feel "least connected to their College and/or the University at large" (p. 146), the results of this study determined there were no significant differences in faculty perceptions of organizational leadership based on attendance at an orientation about mission. However, the one demographic question of this study about attendance at an orientation about mission did not ask if the orientation was conducted at the department, school, or institutional level. Nor did it identify the format for the orientation. The demographic data suggest that the largest percentage of contingent faculty are, at least, attending orientations about mission and that orientations are, at a minimum, not adversely impacting their perceptions of organizational leadership as compared to FT faculty. The outcome suggests further questions of clarification might be needed as to the effectiveness of orientation related to an understanding of mission; however, the finding itself is not significant in this study.

Recommendations

For Researchers

Because it appears that colleges and universities will continue filling the classroom with a number of contingent faculty, for a variety of reasons, and because accrediting standards address the delicate balance of FT and PT faculty in light of accomplishing mission, more studies are needed regarding the differences in faculty perceptions. Further, it is only possible to speculate as to why those employed more than 15 years hold the organizational leadership in lower estimation, but with an aging professoriate (Leslie & Janson, 2005), it appears to be a question of relevance to mission accomplishment and perhaps to faculty morale.

1. While this research indicates that perceptions of faculty do differ based on full-time and part-time employment status, studies are needed to explore why there are differences. The NSOPF (Cataldi et al., 2005a) asks some of the categorical

basics such as tenure and level of degree, but a mixed method study with a qualitative component of open-ended comment questions on a survey or follow-up interviews might surface some of the less obvious reasons (Ambrose, Huston, & Norman, 2005) that FT faculty hold organizational leaders in lower estimation as exhibiting servant leadership dimensions. Additional categorical questions might even allow for further analysis and understanding by demographics.

2. A mixed method study with a qualitative component or a survey with open-ended questions for faculty employed more than 15 years might surface contributing factors to their lower estimation of organizational leadership's alignment with its servant leadership mission. Ambrose, Huston, and Norman (2005) recommend a qualitative approach because they believe the quantitative to offer an incomplete perspective, suggesting that "prior research . . . offered little insight into the complex interaction of events and experiences in the lives of individual faculty members that shape their perceptions" (p. 805). It is possible that long-term faculty members' lower perceptions of organizational leaders are influenced by many different variables, not evaluated in the context of this study. Such a qualitative approach might then be incorporated into demographic questions for another administration of the OLA and analysis of results.

3. Parallel studies among faculty members employed at other colleges and universities of other religious affiliations or identities (for-profit, publics, research universities, etc.) but with servant leadership missions could assist in refuting or confirming the significant differences or lack thereof of this study's findings,

based on faculty's full- or part-time employment status, years employed, and attendance at an orientation about mission.

4. The most obvious study might be found in analyzing the job satisfaction scores measured by the OLA in conjunction with perceptions of faculty based on status of employment or number of years employed. The results appear to be mixed as one study found that older ages (not necessarily equated to number of years) were more satisfied with their academic profession (Feldman & Turnley, 2001), yet this does not necessary align with prior NSOPF studies' findings. Without further analysis, the facile assumption might be that those serving at one institution for a long time must be satisfied with their jobs; however, Ambrose, Huston, and Norman (2005) found that faculty's reasons for staying long-term were not necessarily attributable to being happy at the institution. If perception of organizational leadership is lower for FT and longer term faculty, then would job satisfaction correspond?

For Organizational Leaders

The recommendations for organizational leaders are intended for practical application.

1. Individual institutions with servant leadership missions and a large number of adjunct faculty, who are willing to engage in such a level of scrutiny, might wish to conduct a similar study among faculty because it could benefit the organizational leaders' understanding of faculty perceptions. Such a study might inform efforts at engaging both FT and PT faculty in understanding and accomplishing the mission. However, there are deterrents to grouping all of an

organization's leaders at a single institution under one umbrella for judgments such as these. Quite naturally, it is against human nature to wish to be evaluated as a collective whole in any aspect of leadership. Similarly, faculty members might object to a study of their own alignment with the dimensions of servant leadership, should administration wish to evaluate them as a sum total. It is particularly daunting at Christian institutions where leaders with Authenticity, one of the dimensions assessed by the OLA, recognize that though they strive to emulate the servant leadership of Jesus, they are imperfect in doing so.

2. If an institution with a servant leadership mission has never characterized the components of that mission definitively, then the lack of definition might contribute to confusion about whether or not such a mission is being accomplished (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011). For institutions desiring to improve their alignment with a servant leadership mission, dialogue could begin by exploring the specifics of the questions and categories of the OLA.
3. At a minimum, an objective set of eyes could audit the policies and practices at the institution (Lyons & Burnstad, 2007) in light of its servant leadership mission. Though adjunct faculty might be reticent to speak frankly in focus groups, such interaction would be helpful for the organization's leaders and full-time faculty to learn how they can be more like servant leaders in specific ways to support those teaching part-time.
4. In any event, PT faculty can be shown that organizational leadership Values and Develops People (OLA dimensions) by such means as inviting them to help plan orientations about the servant leadership mission, assist in communicating the

mission, and engage in conversation about how to Build Community (OLA dimension) based upon the mission.

5. Particularly relevant to organizational leaders might be learning that the lowest dimension score is one of Shares Leadership. Further dialogue with FT faculty should be explored to gain additional insights (Mayer et al., 2005) into governance issues and if or why FT faculty members might not view such roles as service on standing university committees as indicative of shared leadership.
6. An exploration of the question of difference within the categories of years of employment, further analyzed by PT faculty and FT faculty, might prove helpful to determine if years employed has stronger influence than FT or PT employment status. It would add insight as to how the organization's leaders should focus their faculty development—upon building relationships based on employment status or length of service.

Conclusion

With the complexities of faculty in higher education today, there is more to be considered than standard categorical measures such as terminal degrees (Cataldi et al., 2005a; Jacoby, 2006), number of hours teaching (Cataldi et al., 2005a; Eagan, 2007), or even this study's simplistic question of attendance at an orientation. Some studies have begun to measure outcomes more closely connected to student learning such as retention and completion (Bailey et al., 2005; Baker, 2004; Bettinger & Long, 2006; Eagan & Jaeger, 2008; Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005; Jacoby, 2006; Jaeger & Eagan, 2010; Kehrberg &Turpin, 2002) or even grades (Kehrberg & Turpin, 2002; Kezim et al., 2005; Ronco and Cahill, 2006; Sonner, 2000), but the results are mixed and more research is needed. The results do suggest that part-time faculty maintain a positive outlook on organizational leaders at their institution and view them in a favorable light. Such results might be deemed as good news, especially for those institutions which use a large number of contingent faculty. The strong response rate from part-time faculty suggests that they care enough to participate in research, perhaps because they want to have a greater part in scholarship, are genuinely interested in the heart and culture of the institution, or are pleased that someone asked their opinion. If institutions are driven by their missions and accreditation considers sufficiency of full-time faculty numbers in light of those missions, then it is incumbent for mission to be considered in research. As institutions fill the classrooms with more part-time faculty, they will become increasingly relevant to matters of accreditation. At the heart of the matter is exploring to what extent and how stakeholders understand and effectively contribute to the identity of the institution—both the general mission of higher education and its differentiated mission. When Christian colleges and universities choose servant leadership as their purposeful identity, vulnerability and accountability increase for leadership's congruence with that differentiated mission but so does the opportunity for exhibiting behavior that is a worthy tribute to their namesake, the one who expects servants to lead and who inspires respect for leaders attempting to serve.

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Appendix A: Five Measures of Servant Leadership

	Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS) (Sendjaya et al., 2008)	*Organiza-tional Leadership Assessment (OLA)* (Laub, 2003)	*Revised Servant Leadership Profile (RSLP)* (Wong and Page, 2003)	*Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ)* (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006)	*Servant Shepherd Leadership Scale (SSLS) (*Whittington et al., 2006)
Number of items	35	66	97	23	30
Number of subscales	6	6	10	5	4
Name of subscales	• Voluntary Subordination	• Displays authenticity	• Leading	• Altruistic calling	• Other-centeredness
	• Authentic Self	• Shares leadership	• Servanthood	• Emotional healing	• Facilitative Environment
	• Covenantal Relationship	• Values people	• Visioning	• Wisdom	• Self-sacrifice
	• Responsible Morality	• Provides leadership	• Developing others	• Persuasive mapping	• Affirmation
	• Transcendental Spirituality	• Builds community	• Team-building	• Organizational	
	• Transforming Influence	• Develops people	• Empowering others		
			• Shared decision making		
			• Integrity		
			• Abuse of power		
			• Egotistic pride		
Content validation	Yes, through literature review, semi-structured interviews, and expert panel	Yes, through expert panel	Yes, through literature review and personal experience	Yes, through literature review and expert panel	NA
Factor analyses	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note: Taken from “Defining and Measuring Servant Leadership Behaviour in Organizations,” by S. Sendjaya, J. Sarros, and J. Santora, 2008, *Journal of Management Studies*, *45*(2), p. 411.

Appendix B: Servant Leadership Components

Buchen (1998)	**Spears (1998)**	**Farling et al. (1999)**	**Laub (1999)**	**Russell (2001)**	**Patterson (2003)**	**Ingram (2003)**	**Liden et al. (2008)**
Self-identity	Listening	Vision	Valuing people	Vision	Love	Accept-ance	Emotional healing
Capacity for reciprocity	Empathy	Influence	Devel-oping people	Credibility	Humility	Encourage-ment	Creating value for the community
Relation-ship building	Healing	Credi-bility	Building community	Trust	Altruism	Relation-ship	Conceptual skills
Pre-occupation with the future	Awareness	Trust	Displaying authent-icity	Service	Vision	Credibility	Empowering
	Persuasion	Service	Providing leadership	Modeling	Trust	Vision	Helping subordinates grow and succeed
	Concept-ualization		Sharing leadership	Pioneering	Empow-erment	Influence	Putting subordinates first
	Foresight			Appre-ciating others	Service		Behaving ethically
	Steward-ship			Empow-erment			
	Commit-ment to growth of people						
	Comm-unity building						

Note. Adapted from "Utilizing the Organizational Leadership Assessment as a Strategic Tool for Increasing the Effectiveness of Teams within Organizations," by J. Irving, 2008, *Journal of Management & Marketing Research*, p. 85. Irving adapted the table from "Development and Validation of Servant Leadership Behavior Scale," by S. Sendjaya, 2003, *Proceedings of Regent University's Servant Leadership Research Roundtable*, p. 2.

Appendix C: Regional Accreditation Standards
(Excerpts with relevant components underlined)

I. Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools: Middle States Commission on Higher Education

> For institutions relying on part-time, adjunct, temporary, or other faculty on time-limited contracts, employment policies and practices should be as carefully developed and communicated as those for full-time faculty. The greater the dependence on such employees, the greater is the institutional responsibility to provide orientation, oversight, evaluation, professional development, and opportunities for integration into the life of the institution (p. 38).

Source: *Characteristics of Excellence in Higher Education: Requirements of Affiliation and Standards for Accreditation.* (2006). Online Version. 12th edition. Middle States Commission on Higher Education. 3624 Market Street, Philadelphia, PA 19104. Retrieved August 1, 2010 from http://www.msche.org/publications/CHX06_Aug08REVMarch09.pdf

II. New England Association of Schools and Colleges

> 1.4 The mission and purposes of the institution are accepted and widely understood by its governing board, administration, faculty, staff, and students. They provide direction to the curricula and other activities and form the basis on which expectations for student learning are developed. Specific objectives, reflective of the institution's overall mission and purposes, are developed by the institution's individual units (p. 3).

4.22 Institutions offering graduate degrees have an adequate staff of full-time faculty in areas appropriate to the degree offered. Faculty responsible for graduate programs are sufficient by credentials, experience, number, and time commitment for the successful accomplishment of program objectives and program improvement (p. 9).

Standard Five-Faculty: The institution develops a faculty that is suited to the fulfillment of the institution's mission. Faculty qualifications, numbers, and performance are sufficient to accomplish the institution's mission and purposes. Faculty competently offer the institution's academic programs and fulfill those tasks appropriately assigned them.

5.1 Faculty categories (e.g., full-time, part-time, adjunct) are clearly defined by the institution as is the role of each category in fulfilling the institution's mission and purposes. Should part-time or adjunct faculty be utilized, the institution has in place policies governing their role compatible with its mission and purposes and the Standards of the Commission (p. 14).

5.3 There are an adequate number of faculty whose time commitment to the institution is sufficient to assure the accomplishment of class and out-of-class responsibilities essential for the fulfillment of institutional mission and purposes. Responsibilities of teaching faculty include instruction and the systematic understanding of effective teaching/learning processes and outcomes in courses and programs for which they share responsibility; additional duties may include such functions as student advisement, academic planning, and participation in policy-making, course and curricular development, research, and institutional governance (p. 14).

5.7 Faculty assignments and workloads are consistent with the institution's mission and purposes. They are equitably determined to allow faculty adequate time to provide effective instruction, advise and evaluate students, contribute to program and institutional assessment and improvement, continue professional growth, and participate in scholarship, research, creative activities and service compatible with the mission and purposes of the institution. Faculty workloads are reappraised periodically and adjusted as institutional conditions change (pp. 14-15).

5.8 The institution avoids undue dependence on part-time faculty, adjuncts, and graduate assistants to conduct classroom instruction. Institutions that employ a significant proportion of part-time, adjunct, clinical or temporary faculty assure their appropriate integration into the department and institution and provide opportunities for faculty development (p. 15).

5.14 The institution has a statement of expectations and processes to ensure that faculty act responsibly and ethically, observe the established conditions of their employment, and otherwise function in a manner consistent with the mission and purposes of the institution (p. 15).

Standard Eleven-Integrity: The institution subscribes to and advocates high ethical standards in the management of its affairs and in all of its dealings with students, faculty, staff, its governing board, external agencies and organizations, and the general public. Through its policies and practices, the institution endeavors to exemplify the values it articulates in its mission and related statements.

11.1 The institution expects that members of its community, including the board, administration, faculty, staff, and students, will act responsibly and with integrity; and it systematically provides support in the pursuit thereof. Institutional leadership fosters an atmosphere where issues of integrity can be openly considered, and members of the institutional community understand and assume their responsibilities in the pursuit of integrity (p. 27).

Source: *Standards for Accreditation*. (2005). Commission on Institutions of Higher Education New England Association of Schools and Colleges. 209 Burlington Road, Suite 201, Bedford, MA 01730. Retrieved August 1, 2010 from http://cihe.neasc.org/downloads/Standards/Standards_for_Accreditation__2006.pdf.

III. North Central Association of Colleges and Schools: The Higher Learning Commission

Mission and Integrity-Criterion Statement: The organization operates with integrity to ensure the fulfillment of its mission through structures and processes that involve the board, administration, faculty, staff, and students (p. 1).

Core Component 1b: In its mission documents, the organization recognizes the diversity of its learners, other constituencies, and the greater society it serves.

Examples of Evidence…The organization's required codes of belief or expected behavior are congruent with its mission…. (p. 2).

Core Component 1c Understanding of and support for the mission pervade the organization.

Examples of Evidence…

- The board, administration, faculty, staff, and students understand and support the organization's mission.
- The organization's strategic decisions are mission-driven.
- The organization's internal constituencies articulate the mission in a consistent manner (p. 3).

Source: *The Handbook of Accreditation: Criteria for Accreditation: Version 1*. (2003, October**).** North Central Association of Colleges and Schools. The Higher Learning Commission. 30 North LaSalle, Suite 2400, Chicago, IL 60602. Retrieved August 1, 2010 from http://www.ncahlc.org/information-for-institutions/criteria-for-accreditation.html

IV. Northwest Commission on Colleges and Universities

Mission and Goals: The institution's mission and goals define the institution, including its educational activities, its student body, and its role within the higher education community. The evaluation proceeds from the institution's own definition of its mission and goals. Such evaluation is to determine the extent to which the mission and goals are achieved and are consistent with the Commission's *Eligibility Requirements* and standards for accreditation.

1.A.1 The institution's mission and goals derive from, or are widely understood by, the campus community, are adopted by the governing board, and are periodically reexamined (para. 1).

Faculty Selection, Evaluation, Roles, Welfare, and Development**:** The selection, development, and retention of a competent faculty is of paramount importance to the institution. The faculty's central responsibility is for educational programs and their quality. The faculty is adequate in number and qualifications to meet its obligations toward achievement of the institution's mission and goals (para. 1).

4.A.8 Part-time and adjunct faculty are qualified by academic background, degree(s), and/or professional experience to carry out their teaching assignment and/or other prescribed duties and responsibilities in accord with the mission and goals of the institution (para. 9).

4.A.10 The institution demonstrates that it periodically assesses institutional policies concerning the use of part-time and adjunct faculty in light of the mission and goals of the institution (para. 11).

Source: *Accreditation Standards.* Northwest Commission on Colleges and Universities. 8060 165th Avenue N.E. Suite 100, Redmond, WA 98052. Retrieved August 1, 2010, from http://www.nwccu.org/Standards%20and%20Policies/Accreditation%20Standards/Accreditation%20Standards.htm

V. Southern Association of Colleges and Schools: Commission on Colleges

Core Requirement 2.8: The number of full-time faculty members is adequate to support the mission of the institution and to ensure the quality and integrity of its academic programs (p. 18).

Comprehensive Standard 3.7.1: The institution employs competent faculty members qualified to accomplish the mission and goals of the institution…. (pp. 28-29).

Source: *The Principles of Accreditation: Foundations for Quality Enhancement. (*2009). Southern Association of Colleges and Schools: Commission on Colleges. 1866 Southern Lane, Decatur, GA 30033. Retrieved August 1, 2010 from http://www.sacscoc.org/pdf/2010principlesofacreditation.pdf

VI. Western Association of Schools and Colleges: Accrediting Commission for Senior Colleges and Universities

Core Commitment to Institutional Capacity: The institution functions with clear purposes, high levels of institutional integrity, fiscal stability, and organizational structures to fulfill its purposes… While the Standards provide an opportunity to review institutional performance within a defined area, the framework of institutional capacity allows an institution to explore cross-cutting issues such as whether resources, structures and processes are aligned with the institution's mission and priorities, and whether the institution has the capacity to measure, interpret, and use evidence about its effectiveness (p. 8).

Standard 2-Achieving Educational Objectives Through Core Functions: The institution achieves its institutional purposes and attains its educational objectives through the core functions of teaching and learning, scholarship and creative activity, and support for student learning and success. It demonstrates that these core functions are performed effectively and that they support one another in the institution's efforts to attain educational effectiveness (p. 14).

Teaching and Learning-Criteria for Review: The institution's educational programs are appropriate in content, standards, and nomenclature for the degree level awarded, regardless of mode of delivery, and are staffed by sufficient numbers of faculty qualified for the type and level of curriculum offered (p. 14).

Faculty and Staff-Criteria for Review: The institution employs personnel sufficient in number and professional qualifications to maintain its operations and support its academic programs, consistent with its institutional and educational objectives.

The institution demonstrates that it employs a faculty with substantial and continuing commitment to the institution. The faculty is sufficient in number, professional qualifications, and diversity to achieve the institution's educational objectives, to establish and oversee academic policies, and to ensure the integrity and continuity of its academic programs wherever and however delivered.

GUIDELINE: The institution has an instructional staffing plan that includes a sufficient number of full-time faculty with appropriate backgrounds, by discipline and degree level. The institution systematically engages full-time non-tenure track, adjunct, and part-time faculty in such processes as assessment, program review, and faculty development (p. 18).

Source: *Handbook of Accreditation*. (2008, July). Western Association of Schools and Colleges**:** Accrediting Commission for Senior Colleges and Universities. 985 Atlantic Avenue, Suite 100, Alameda, CA 94501. Retrieved August 1, 2010 from http://www.wascsenior.org/findit/files/forms/Handbook_of_Accreditation_2008_with_hyperlinks.pdf

VII. Western Association of Schools and Colleges: Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges

Ethical and effective leadership throughout the organization guides the accomplishment of the mission and supports institutional effectiveness and improvement (Standard IV) (p. 1).

Standard III: Resources

A. Human Resources

1. The institution assures the integrity and quality of its programs and services by employing personnel who are qualified by appropriate education, training, and experience to provide and support these programs and services.

a. Criteria, qualifications, and procedures for selection of personnel are clearly and publicly stated. Job descriptions are directly related to institutional mission and goals and accurately reflect position duties, responsibilities, and authority. Criteria for selection of faculty include knowledge of the subject matter or service to be performed (as determined by individuals with discipline expertise), effective teaching, scholarly activities, and potential to contribute to the mission of the institution …. (p. 14).

2. The institution maintains a sufficient number of qualified faculty with full-time responsibility to the institution. The institution has a sufficient number of staff and administrators with appropriate preparation and experience to provide the administrative services necessary to support the institution's mission and purposes (p. 15).

Source: *Standards of Accreditation.* (2002, June). Western Association of Schools and Colleges: Accrediting Commission for Community and Junior Colleges. 10 Commercial Boulevard, Suite 204, Novato, CA 94949. Retrieved August 1, 2010 from http://www.accjc.org/pdf/ACCJC_WASC_Accreditation_Standards.pdf

Appendix D: Permission from Dr. Jim Laub for OLA, E-mail Excerpts

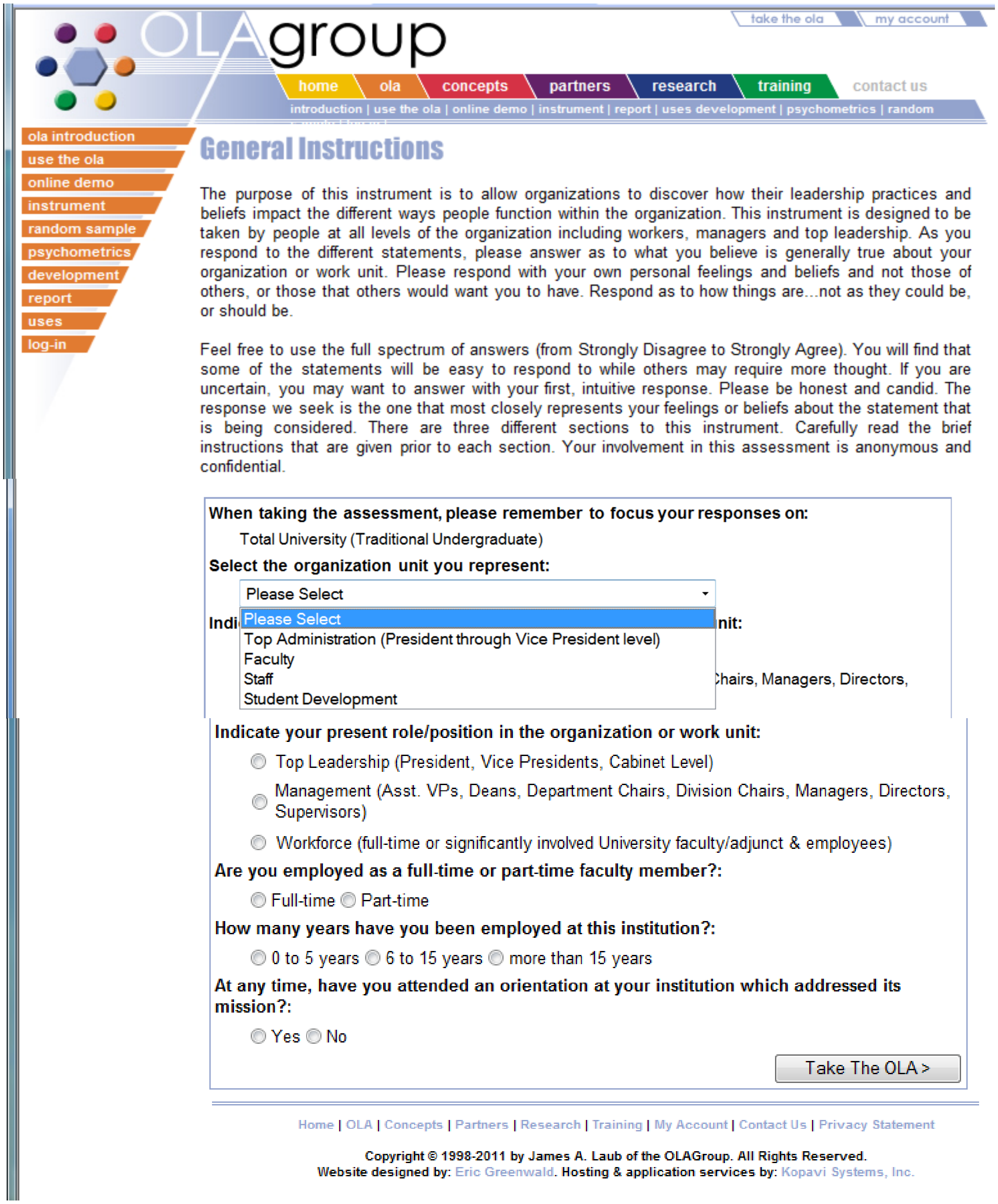
From: OLA Group [mailto:olagroup@comcast.net]
Sent: Thursday, July 22, 2010 8:00 AM
To: Palmer, Marila
Cc: 'OLA Group'; 'JIM LAUB'
Subject: RE: Dissertation Research

Marila: Thank you for your interest in the OLA and servant leadership research. I very much appreciate your thoughtful approach to this study and I want to support this study. …. Again, I like the idea of your research design and would like to see this accomplished.

We do have a "University version" that may work best for you rather than the standard or ed. Version….

Jim Laub
OLAgroup
5345 SE Jennings Lane
Stuart, FL 34997
561-379-6010

Appendix E: Organizational Leadership Assessment University Version (Online)



OLAgroup

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home | ola | concepts | partners | research | training | contact us

introduction | use the ola | online demo | instrument | report | uses development | psychometrics | random

- ola introduction
- use the ola
- online demo
- instrument
- random sample
- psychometrics
- development
- report
- uses
- log-in

General Instructions

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

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

When taking the assessment, please remember to focus your responses on:

Total University (Traditional Undergraduate)

Select the organization unit you represent:

Please Select

Indi … **nit:**

- Please Select
- Top Administration (President through Vice President level)
- Faculty
- Staff
- Student Development

…hairs, Managers, Directors,

Indicate your present role/position in the organization or work unit:

- Top Leadership (President, Vice Presidents, Cabinet Level)
- Management (Asst. VPs, Deans, Department Chairs, Division Chairs, Managers, Directors, Supervisors)
- Workforce (full-time or significantly involved University faculty/adjunct & employees)

Are you employed as a full-time or part-time faculty member?:

Full-time Part-time

How many years have you been employed at this institution?:

0 to 5 years 6 to 15 years more than 15 years

At any time, have you attended an orientation at your institution which addressed its mission?:

Yes No

Take The OLA >

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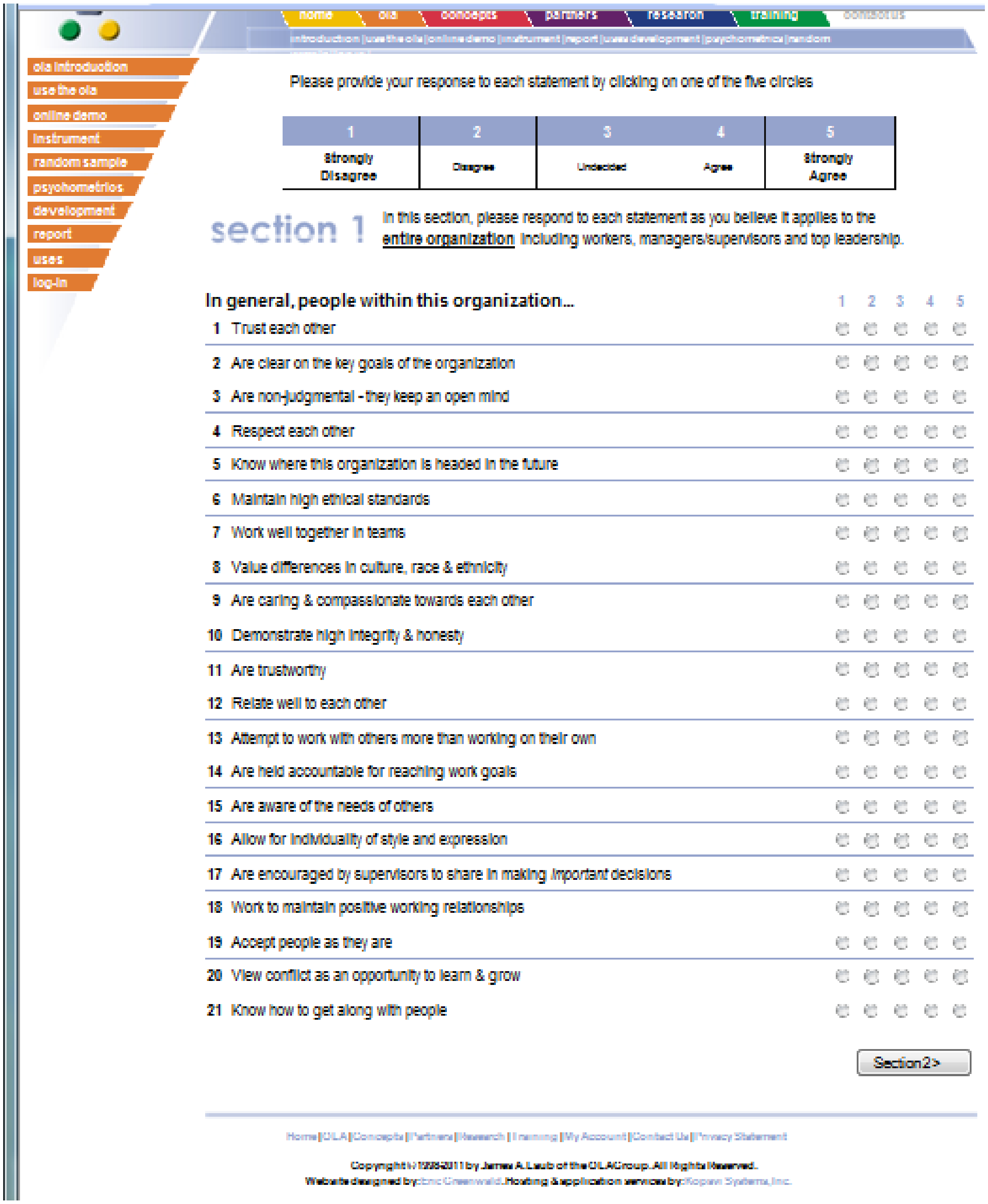

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introduction | use the ola | online demo | instrument | report | uses development | psychometrics | random

ola introduction
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instrument
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log-in

Please provide your response to each statement by clicking on one of the five circles

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

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

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

Section2>

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Please provide your response to each statement by clicking on of the five circles

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

section 2

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

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
22 Communicate a clear vision of the future of the organization	○	○	○	○	○
23 Are open to learning from those who are *below* them in the organization	○	○	○	○	○
24 Allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed	○	○	○	○	○
25 Work alongside the workers instead of separate from them	○	○	○	○	○
26 Use persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force	○	○	○	○	○
27 Don't hesitate to provide the leadership that is needed	○	○	○	○	○
28 Promote open communication and sharing of information	○	○	○	○	○
29 Give workers the power to make *important* decisions	○	○	○	○	○
30 Provide the support and resources needed to help workers meet their goals	○	○	○	○	○
31 Create an environment that encourages learning	○	○	○	○	○
32 Are open to receiving criticism & challenge from others	○	○	○	○	○
33 Say what they mean, and mean what they say	○	○	○	○	○
34 Encourage each person to exercise leadership	○	○	○	○	○
35 Admit personal limitations & mistakes	○	○	○	○	○
36 Encourage people to take risks even if they may fail	○	○	○	○	○
37 Practice the same behavior they expect from others	○	○	○	○	○
38 Facilitate the building of community & team	○	○	○	○	○
39 Do not demand special recognition for being leaders	○	○	○	○	○
40 Lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior	○	○	○	○	○
41 Seek to influence others from a positive relationship rather than from the authority of their position	○	○	○	○	○
42 Provide opportunities for all workers to develop to their full potential	○	○	○	○	○
43 Honestly evaluate themselves before seeking to evaluate others	○	○	○	○	○
44 Use their power and authority to benefit the workers	○	○	○	○	○
45 Take appropriate action when it is needed	○	○	○	○	○
46 Build people up through encouragement and affirmation	○	○	○	○	○
47 Encourage workers to work *together* rather than competing against each other	○	○	○	○	○
48 Are humble - they do not promote themselves	○	○	○	○	○
49 Communicate clear plans & goals for the organization	○	○	○	○	○
50 Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally	○	○	○	○	○
51 Are accountable & responsible to others	○	○	○	○	○
52 Are receptive listeners	○	○	○	○	○
53 Do not seek after special status or the "perks" of leadership	○	○	○	○	○
54 Put the needs of the workers ahead of their own	○	○	○	○	○

Section 3 >

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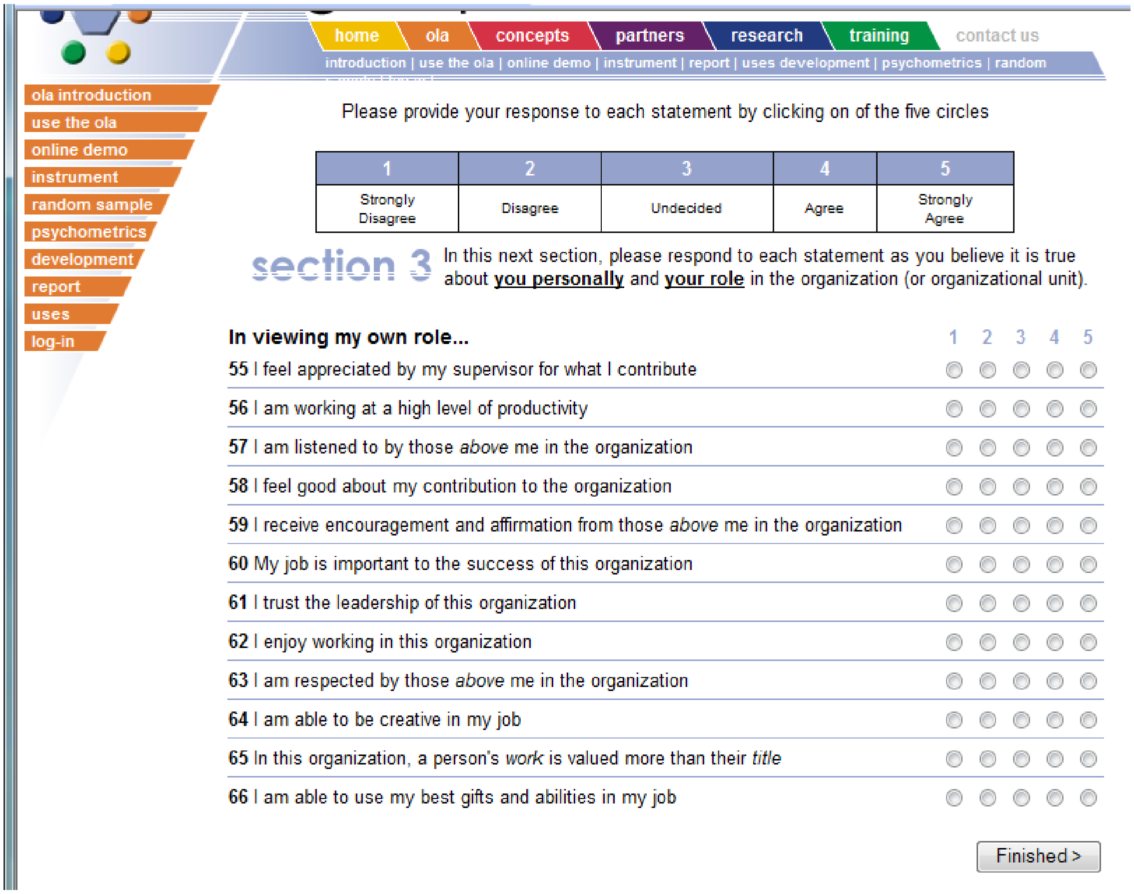

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Please provide your response to each statement by clicking on of the five circles

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

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

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

Finished >

Appendix F: Letter to Chief Academic Officers
(Provosts and Vice Presidents for Academic Affairs)

March 18, 2011

Dr. _______________
Chief Academic Officer
___________University
Address
City, State Zip

Dear Dr. __________:

As a five-year member of LeTourneau University's Institutional Review Board and point person for all external research and information requests, I fully understand how many doctoral students ask your institution if they may survey your stakeholders. Give me a moment, and I would be glad to answer a couple of questions—the same ones that I ask of researchers making such requests.

Why is my institution being asked to participate? Your institution has a mission similar to other Christian colleges and is in the top 50% of the CCCU in terms of number of adjunct faculty.

Is this research valuable to my institution? Every regional accrediting body in the United States has a standard which addresses faculty and mission, and most address the need for enough full-time faculty to accomplish mission. As institutions increasingly rely on part-time faculty, it could be helpful to compare their perceptions of the organization and its leadership in light of institutional mission to the perceptions of full-time faculty. Since mission is foundational to accreditation and faculty are fundamental to accomplishing mission, I believe the research has value to your institution and is worth the minimal time it will take.

Is the research well-designed? Dallas Baptist University's Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (Institutional Review Board) has carefully reviewed and authorized this research. Two CCCU universities have already granted permission for the survey to be conducted with their faculty members. The survey will be conducted via www.olagroup.org. The website contains information regarding the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), which has been found valid and reliable in multiple studies.

What does it take to participate? All that I need to include your institution in the study is 1) written authorization from you, the Chief Academic Officer (attached Permission Page can be faxed, 903-233-3105, or e-mailed to marilapalmer@letu.edu) and 2) an Excel spreadsheet of your faculty e-mail addresses. No names should be included in the Excel spreadsheet. If possible, please identify and separate all full-time faculty into one column and all part-time faculty (adjuncts) into another. It is okay to send them grouped together, if you will tell me the total number of FT faculty separate from the number of PT faculty employed. Please do not include graduate assistants. You may include your comprehensive listing of adjunct faculty who are available to teach for you, whether or not they are currently contracted for a class.

Are there assurances of anonymity and any benefits? All responses from the various participating colleges and universities will be aggregated for the statistical analysis and publication of the results. No individual institution will be named in the study and only described in a generic manner, so as to obscure identification. Each institution will be given one generic Organizational Code and PIN for all faculty to use. Individual respondents will not be identified, and I will not know the IP address of the respondents. After the dissertation is defended, I will provide an Excel file to you or your designee with your institution's raw data. In this way, you may choose to evaluate the data for your own purposes in studying mission, orientation, longevity, or perceptions of organizational leadership. There is no cost to your institution.

When will the research begin and how long will it take? Please send your faxed Permission Page as soon as possible but no later than March 30, 2011 and your Excel file of e-mail addresses at the same time. If you have any questions about the study, you may contact me, and I would be happy to help. If I do not hear from you, I will call to follow up. The OLA survey will take the faculty member approximately 15 minutes to complete.

How do I as the CAO encourage faculty to participate? Sample e-mail wording is attached, which you might use or modify to invite your faculty to participate and to give your support to the study. So as not to predispose participants' responses, only general information about what the OLA measures will be provided in the researcher's e-mail to them. The content of the e-mail and attachment, which represents informed consent, is attached for your reference. However, please do not forward it directly to the faculty, since the researcher must take responsibility for doing so, once given your approval. The e-mail will be distributed via my LeTourneau University account of marilapalmer@letu.edu.

I look forward to hearing from you and receiving your agreement to participate along with the Excel file of faculty e-mail addresses. But if you should have any questions, feel free to e-mail or call me at 903-233-3130 or 903-241-5102. Thank you for your careful consideration and your committed academic leadership in Christian higher education.

Sincerely,

Marila Palmer
DBU Doctoral Student and
EVP, External Relations
LeTourneau University

Appendix G: Proposed Language of Support from CAO (to faculty member)

In the next week or so both full-time and part-time faculty members should receive an e-mail from Marila Palmer, inviting you to participate in a study. You might know Ms. Palmer from her role in leadership at LeTourneau University, but she is also a doctoral student at Dallas Baptist University, conducting her dissertation research. Ms. Palmer's e-mail will explain her study and ask you to complete a survey which should take no more than15 minutes of your time. Please consider this e-mail my support of her research.

Her study has been approved by DBU's Institutional Review Board, and I believe everything is in order. More importantly, I believe that the study could be beneficial to our institution, since we value and want to understand faculty's perceptions of organizational leadership and mission. I have received assurances that individual schools will not be named in her study. Individual faculty members will not be identified nor their responses connected to an e-mail address.

If you need to adjust your antispam settings so as to receive this message from Ms. Palmer, please do so now. Her e-mail address from which the invitation will be sent is marilapalmer@letu.edu. Thank you for helping further the scholarship on full-time and part-time faculty at Christian colleges and universities.

Appendix H: Agreement to Participate

As the Chief Academic Officer, I grant permission for Marila Palmer to contact the full- and part-time faculty of ______________________________ **(Institution's name)** and invite them to participate in her research, according to the e-mail addresses I provide. I understand that Ms. Palmer will enlist faculty members' participation in an online survey for the study described below.

Name: ____

Title: ____

E-mail address: ____________________________________

Phone number: ____________________________________

Brief Description of Research

The study is being conducted by Marila Palmer as a part of her dissertation research at Dallas Baptist University (DBU). It is intended to evaluate full- and part-time faculty perceptions of organizational leadership in light of institutional mission**.** DBU's Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (Institutional Review Board) has granted approval to the researcher to conduct the study. The survey is conducted via a website hosted by an external organization www.olagroup.org and is estimated to take 15 minutes of the faculty member's time. All responses will be aggregated for the statistical analysis and publication of the results. No individual institution will be named in the study and respondents will be anonymous. Each individual institution will be given one Organizational Code and PIN for all faculty at that institution to use.

PLEASE FAX THIS COMPLETED PAGE TO
MARILA PALMER AT 903-233-3105
OR SIGN AND SEND BY E-MAIL TO marilapalmer@letu.edu
ON OR BEFORE MARCH 30, 2011

MARILA PALMER AT 903-233-3105

Appendix I: Invitation E-mail and Consent Information Link

The Office of Academic Affairs at (name of college or university) has given their support and approved my contacting you for this research. My name is Marila Palmer, and I am a doctoral student at Dallas Baptist University, in cohort II of the PhD in Leadership Studies with a concentration in Curriculum & Instruction. Dallas Baptist University's Institutional Review Board, the Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects, has approved this study. **I invite you to participate in the research described below and thank you in advance for completing the survey in the midst of your busy schedules.**

Purpose of the Study—This research is intended to measure the faculty's perceptions of organizational leadership at participating institutions with similar missions who are members of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities. As a full-time or part-time/adjunct faculty member, your candid opinions are very valuable. Your responses to the survey are anonymous. For anonymity reasons, all (name of college or university) faculty will be given the same organizational code and PIN to take the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA). For the purposes of the dissertation analysis, all responses will be combined with those of faculty at other institutions. The OLA survey will remain open for faculty members at your institution through midnight, **Wednesday, April 20, 2011,** at which time the survey will be unavailable.

Giving of Consent—If you have read, understand, and agree to the Consent Information, click on the link below and proceed to the survey. By doing so you are indicating that "I understand what is being requested of me as a participant in this study. I acknowledge that I freely consent to participate and certify that I am at least 18 years of age."

Instructions

1. Click on the link **www.olagroup.com** and click "Take the OLA" in the upper right of the screen.
2. Type in _______ as the organizational code.
3. Type in _______ as the PIN.
4. Choose the university version of the OLA.
5. The university version is only available in the English language, at present. Please choose this.
6. Click "Start."
7. Read the brief Introduction.
8. Select Present Role/Position as "Workforce," regardless of other responsibilities you might have.
9. Complete the demographic questions.
10. Click "Take the OLA."

Marila Palmer, DBU Doctoral Student
EVP for External Relations
LeTourneau University

Consent Information—Linked

Marila Palmer—Dissertation Research
Consent Information

Title of the Study—Faculty Perceptions of Organizational Leadership and Institutional Mission at Christian Universities

This study will contribute to the researcher's completion of directed research under the supervision of the following dissertation committee:

- Dr. Norma Hedin, Committee Chair & Adjunct Professor, Dallas Baptist University
- Dr. Rick Gregory, Vice President and Dean, Gary Cook Graduate School of Leadership, Dallas Baptist University
- Dr. Gail Linam, Provost, Dallas Baptist University

Definitions for the Purposes of this Study

- Full-time faculty: Faculty employed according to the institution's definition as FT, on a contract for the year (9, 10, 11, or 12 months) and receiving benefits from the university, such as retirement contributions or health insurance. Typically, FT faculty are eligible for tenure and/or promotion by rank at the institution.
- Part-time (Adjunct or Contingent) faculty: Faculty which are contracted to teach on a per course basis and not for the year. Typically, PT faculty do not receive a complete set of benefits and are not eligible for tenure and/or promotion by rank at the institution. Graduate assistants are not included in this study.
- Top Leadership: Academic leaders, such as provosts, vice presidents for academic affairs, chief academic officers, deans, department chairs, and campus directors; administrative or cabinet leaders, such as executive vice presidents, vice presidents, chief information officers, chief enrollment officers, and chief student affairs officers, etc.; and executive leaders, such as the president, chancellor, or chief executive officer of the institution.

Research Procedures—The Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) will be used as a survey to measure faculty perceptions. It has been shown to have validity and reliability in multiple studies. If, after you read through the information below, you are willing to participate in this study, you will be asked to click on the link in the Instructions section within the e-mail invitation your received and then be taken to the website which hosts the survey.

Time Required—The OLA will take approximately 15 minutes of your time to complete and must be completed in one sitting, since it is not possible to save a portion and return to complete it at a later time.

Risks—As a survey, there are no more than minimal risks involved; as such, no medical or psychological treatment nor other services related to taking the survey are available.

Benefits—No direct benefits, including no monetary payment, exist for this study to the individual respondent. However, it is hoped that the study will add to the body of knowledge regarding faculty's perspectives of organizational leadership at Christian institutions.

Confidentiality—Your responses to the survey are anonymous. For anonymity reasons, all faculty at your institution are being given the same username and password to take the OLA. For the purposes of the dissertation analysis, all responses will be combined with those of faculty at other institutions. No institutions will be identified in the dissertation by name. Dr. Jim Laub and the OLA Group, will provide a collective dataset to the researcher. Confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. No absolute guarantees can be made regarding the confidentiality of electronic data.

Each participating academic office at the institution will receive a dataset of responses particular to their institution alone. However, the dataset will not contain any identifying information for the respondents, though the answers will be associated with the demographic questions of FT or PT, number of years employed at the institution, and attendance at a time of orientation on mission. The researcher retains the rights to use and publish non-identifiable data. The researcher will store the data in a secure location for three years, at which time it will be destroyed. None of the participating institutions will be identified by name by the researcher in the dissertation or any research article.

Participation & Withdrawal—Your participation in the survey is voluntary. If you become uncomfortable, you may choose to stop answering the questions at any time by closing your browser. Because the participant is completing an anonymous survey, once it is submitted, the researcher will be unable to extract anonymous data from the database, should the participant wish to withdraw. Since there are no rewards for participation, withdrawing from the survey has no penalty.

Appreciation & Questions about the Study—Thank you for taking the time to assist in this research. If you have questions or concerns during the time of your participation or after your completion of this survey, or if you would like to receive a copy of the results, please contact one of the individuals below.

Contact Information

Researcher: Marila Palmer
- Executive Vice President for External Relations, LeTourneau University
- Doctoral Student, PhD in Leadership Studies, Dallas Baptist University

LeTourneau University
P.O. Box 7001
Longview, TX 75607
marilapalmer@letu.edu;
903-233-3130

Advisor: Dr. Norma Hedin
- Director of Master's Programs; Professor, Foundations of Education, B.H. Carroll Theological Institute
- Adjunct Professor, Dallas Baptist University

B.H. Carroll Theological Institute
301 S. Center Street, Suite 100
Arlington, TX 76010-7139
nhedin@bhcti.org; 817-274-4284

Research Subject's Rights: Dr. Sue Kavli
- Professor of Research and Leadership
- Chair, Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects, Dallas Baptist University

Dallas Baptist University
3000 Mountain Creek Parkway
Dallas, TX 75211
Suek@dbu.edu; 214-333-5381

Giving of Consent—By clicking on the link in the e-mail and proceeding to the survey, you are acknowledging that you freely consent to participate and certifying that you are at least 18 years of age.

Appendix J: Additional Analysis

The structure of the OLA online and its access allowed respondents to choose one of the formats other than the university version, despite instructions to choose the university version. Formats other than the university version allowed the selection of a Provider Code. Further, some respondents of the university version chose to self identify their role as other than workforce, which represented faculty. It is possible that some administrative staff were included in the e-mail addresses provided by the chief academic officers because the individual might teach an occasional class as a faculty member. Due to these unanticipated possibilities and the wish to provide a perspective that excludes any responses from those who did not fully designate their role as faculty, the following analyses are provided in addition to the comprehensive perspective of the 860 respondents. In Tables J.3 through J.13, responses from the following Provider Codes were excluded: staff, student development, top administration, and total organization. Responses for Roles of top leader and manager/supervisor were also excluded. Provider Code and Roles are not mutually exclusive; responses were excluded once for either.

Table J.1

Summary of Participants by Provider Code

Provider Code	Frequency	Percent
Faculty	811	94.3
Staff	25	2.9
Student Development	3	.3
Top Administration	6	.7
Total Organization	15	1.7
Total	860	100.0

Table J.2

Summary of Participants by Role

Role	Frequency	Percent
Top Leader	2	.2
Manager/Supervisor	90	10.5
Workforce	768	89.3
Total	860	100.0

Table J.3

Demographic Summary of Participants, Excluding Provider Code or Role

Independent Variable	Demographic Question	*n*	Percentage
FT or PT Employment Status of Faculty	Full-time	288	39.5
	Part-time	439	60.2
	Missing	2	.3
	Total for Analysis	727	99.7
Number of Years Employed at the Institution	0-5 years	314	43.1
	6-15 years	303	41.6
	More than 15 years	111	15.2
	Missing	1	.1
	Total for Analysis	728	99.9
Attended Orientation about Mission	Yes	643	88.2
	No	86	11.8
	Total for Analysis	729	100.0

Table J.4

Means, Standard Deviations, Kurtosis, and Skewness of Composite Average Scores

SL Dimensions	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis	N
Values People	4.00	.788	-.950	.956	729
Develops People	3.82	.903	-.812	.447	729
Builds Community	3.93	.790	-.761	.447	729
Displays Authenticity	3.87	.859	-.825	.385	729
Provides Leadership	3.89	.834	-.724	.200	729
Shares Leadership	3.70	.927	-.755	.208	729
Overall	3.87	.812	-.762	.380	729

Table J.5

Independent Samples t-Test: Perceptions by FT or PT Employment Status (N = 727)

	Full-Time (n = 288)		*Part-Time (n = 439)*					
SL Dimensions	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p* (2-tailed)	*Cohen's d*
Values People	3.72	.784	4.18	.721	725	-8.070***	.000	.612
Develops People	3.46	.911	4.05	.816	725	-9.110***	.000	.691
Builds Community	3.66	.772	4.10	.753	725	-7.700***	.000	.584
Displays Authenticity[a]	3.52	.870	4.10	.771				
Provides Leadership	3.55	.826	4.11	.761	725	-9.529***	.000	.723
Shares Leadership[b]	3.53	.966	3.92	.844				
Overall	3.55	.805	4.08	.746	725	-9.111***	.000	.691

[a]The dimension of Displays Authenticity did not meet the homogeneity assumptions of the Levene Test; Mann-Whitney *U* results reported in Table J.6.
[b]The dimension of Shares Leadership did not meet the homogeneity assumptions of the Levene Test; Mann-Whitney *U* results reported in Table J.6.
*** $p < .001$.

Table J.6

Mann-Whitney U: Perceptions by FT or PT Employment Status

SL Dimensions	N	*SD*	*z*	Sig.
Displays Authenticity	727	.429	-9.280***	.000
Shares Leadership	727	.489	-7.896***	.000

*** $p < .001$

Table J.7

One-Way Analysis of Variance: Perceptions by Number of Years Employed at Institution

SL Dimensions	Groups	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	F		*p*	η^2
Values People	Between	4.529	2	2.264	3.761	*	.024	.010
	Within	436.481	725	.602				
	Total	441.010	727					
Develops People	Between	10.135	2	5.067	6.304	**	.002	.014
	Within	705.958	725	.804				
	Total	724.119	727					
Builds Community	Between	3.862	2	1.931	3.106	*	.045	.008
	Within	450.750	725	.622				
	Total	454.613	727					
Displays Authenticity[a]								
Provides Leadership	Between	7.817	2	3.909	5.682	**	.004	.015
	Within	498.734	725	.688				
	Total	506.551	727					
Shares Leadership[b]								
Overall	Between	8.642	2	4.321	6.639	**	.001	.018
	Within	471.858	725	.651				
	Total	480.500	727					

[a]The dimension of Displays Authenticity did not meet the homogeneity assumptions of the Levene Test; the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis was used as reported in Table J.8.
[b]The dimension of Shares Leadership did not meet the homogeneity assumptions of the Levene Test; the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis was used as reported in Table J.8.
*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$.

Table J.8

Kruskal-Wallis: Perceptions by Number of Years Employed at Institution

SL Dimensions	*n*	Years	*M* Rank	Asymptotic Sig.
Displays Authenticity	728			.000***
	314	0 to 5 years	392.95	
	303	6 to 15 years	358.38	
	111	more than 15 years	300.73	
Shares Leadership	728			.000***
	314	0 to 5 years	392.07	
	303	6 to 15 years	355.56	
	111	more than 15 years	310.91	

***$p < .001$.

Table J.9

One-Way ANOVA: Mean and Standard Deviations by Groups of Years (N = 728)

SL Dimensions	0 to 5 years (*n* = 314)		6 to 15 years (*n* = 303)		more than 15 years (*n* = 111)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Values People	4.06	.76	4.00	.77	3.83	.85
Develops People	3.94	.85	3.79	.93	3.60	.92
Builds Community	4.00	.77	3.91	.79	3.79	.84
Displays Authenticity	3.99	.80	3.85	.88	3.60	.91
Provides Leadership	3.97	.80	3.89	.85	3.66	.86
Shares Leadership	3.85	.83	3.66	.96	3.43	1.02
Overall	3.97	.77	3.85	.83	3.65	.86

Table J.10

Tukey HSD for One-Way ANOVA: Perceptions by Number of Years Employed at Institution

SL Dimensions	Years (A)	Years (B)	*M* Difference (A-B)	*Sig.*
Values People	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.06666	.535
		more than 15 years	.23487*	.017
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.06666	.535
		more than 15 years	.16820	.125
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.23487*	.017
		6 to 15 years	-.16820	.125
Develops People	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.15292	.087
		more than 15 years	.33854**	.002
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.15292	.087
		more than 15 years	.18561	.149
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.33854**	.002
		6 to 15 years	-.18561	.149
Builds Community	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.08822	.347
		more than 15 years	.21155*	.041
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.08822	.347
		more than 15 years	.12333	.336
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.21155*	.041
		6 to 15 years	-.12333	.336
Displays Authenticity[a]				
Provides Leadership	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.08131	.443
		more than 15 years	.30874**	.002
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.08131	.443
		more than 15 years	.22743*	.036
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.30874**	.002
		6 to 15 years	-.22743*	.036
Shares Leadership[b]				
Overall	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.12228	.145
		more than 15 years	.31957**	.001
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.12228	.145
		more than 15 years	.19729	.071
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.31957**	.001
		6 to 15 years	-.19729	.071

[a]The dimension of Displays Authenticity did not meet the homogeneity assumptions of the Levene Test; non-parametric Games-Howell was used as reported in Table J.11.
[b]The dimension of Shares Leadership did not meet the homogeneity assumptions of the Levene Test; non-parametric Games-Howell was used as reported in Table J.11.
$^{*}p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$

Table J.11

Games-Howell Test: Perceptions by Number of Years Employed at Institution

SL Dimensions	Year (A)	Year (B)	*M* Difference (A - B)	Sig.
Displays Authenticity	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.14843	.073
		more than 15 years	.39259***	.000
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.14843	.073
		more than 15 years	.24416*	.042
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.39259***	.000
		6 to 15 years	.24416*	.042
Shares Leadership	0 to 5 years	6 to 15 years	.18988*	.024
		more than 15 years	.41736***	.000
	6 to 15 years	0 to 5 years	- .18988*	.024
		more than 15 years	.22748	.106
	more than 15 years	0 to 5 years	-.41736***	.000
		6 to 15 years	-.22748	.106

*$p < .05$ ***$p < .001$.

Table J.12

Independent Samples t-Test, Means and Standard Deviations: Perceptions by Attendance at an Orientation about Mission (N = 729)

	Yes (n = 643)		No (n = 86)				
SL Dimensions	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*p* (2-tailed)
Values People	4.01	.786	3.95	.721	727	.618	.537
Develops People	3.83	.919	3.77	.773	727	.541	.589
Builds Community	3.94	.798	3.81	.723	727	1.440	.150
Displays Authenticity	3.88	.877	3.83	.719	727	.485	.628
Provides Leadership	3.92	.841	3.70	.756	727	2.251*	.025
Shares Leadership	3.71	.942	3.68	.807	727	.287	.774
Overall	3.68	.825	3.80	.710	727	.925	.355

*$p < .05$.

Table J.13

Reliability of the OLA Excluding Non-Faculty

SL Dimensions	*n* = 729 University Version
Entire OLA Instrument	.988
Values People	.931
Develops People	.942
Builds Community	.934
Displays Authenticity	.953
Provides Leadership	.927
Shares Leadership	.947