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A Gendered View of Servant Leadership

Susanne Diehl
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

A GENDERED VIEW

OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP

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Susanne Diehl

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

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Indiana University of Pennsylvania
School of Graduate Studies and Research
Department of Sociology

We hereby approve the dissertation of

Susanne Diehl

Candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

_____ _____
John A. Anderson, Ph.D.
Professor of Sociology, Advisor

_____ _____
Melissa L. Swauger, Ph.D
Professor of Sociology

_____ _____
Beth J. Mabry, Ph.D.
Professor of Sociology

_____ _____
James K. Dittmar, Ph.D.
Chair, Department of Leadership Studies
Geneva College

ACCEPTED

_____ _____
Randy L. Martin, Ph.D.
Dean
School of Graduate Studies and Research

Title: A Gendered View of Servant Leadership

Author: Susanne Diehl

Dissertation Chair: Dr. John A. Anderson

Dissertation Committee Members: Dr. Melissa L. Swauger
Dr. Beth J. Mabry
Dr. James K. Dittmar

This purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional study was to examine whether differences exist between males and females in their servant leadership behaviors. Existing research concerning gender and servant leadership is inconclusive.

Participants in this study were alumni of a Master's of Science in Organizational Leadership (MSOL) program at a Christian liberal arts college in southwestern Pennsylvania. This study is unique in that the participants were similarly educated about servant leadership and have a common understanding about the practice of servant leadership. The Essential Servant Leadership behaviors scale (Winston & Fields, 2012) was distributed through emails via Survey Monkey. The college provided email addresses for 502 alumni. Of the 160 responses, 157 were usable, which yields a response rate of 31%. The participants included 63 males (39.4%) and 97 females (60.6%).

Gender, age, years of supervision, work sector and whether the participant's organization was in a period or organizational change or stability served and the independent variables. Factor analysis confirmed that the ten servant leadership behaviors measured one dimension. The resulting aggregated one-dimensional servant leadership scale served as the dependent variable.

Multiple regression analysis yielded a finding of no significant difference between males and females in their servant leadership behaviors. No significant differences existed in the number of years of supervision or the participants' perception of organizational change or

stability. The existence of significant differences in age groups of forty and above suggest that servant leadership practitioners in those ages tend to be more affirming of servant leadership. Also, the existence of statistically significant differences in the Healthcare and the Religious/Other sectors suggest that servant leadership practitioners who work in those sectors are more affirming of servant leadership behaviors than those who work in other sectors.

The results of this study contribute to the literature concerning gender and servant leadership and suggest that future research concerning servant leadership with respect to age and workplace sectors may be warranted.

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I would not have been able to complete this dissertation journey without the support of special people in my life.

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Last, but not least, to my precious grandtwins, Hazel and June. You're too little to know it yet, but I thought of you often as I completed the final leg of my dissertation journey. You will have so many more opportunities open to you when you become young adult women than your grandmother did when I was a young adult! The sky's the limit for you! I know you will use your gifts and talents to accomplish great things. Always remember to grow and stretch yourself at all seasons of your life.

—and to my future special grandchildren I haven't met yet—I can't wait to meet you!!!

DEDICATIONS

I would like to dedicate my dissertation to those who weren't here to see the end of my journey—

My mom, Betty Howard, was so proud of me when I finished my bachelor's and master's degrees. One of the last things she said to me, just days before her heart attack, was that she thinks I should go on for my doctorate. I wish I could tell her I took her advice.

To my dad, Dan Howard, Sr., who was so proud of me what I started working on my bachelor's degree because Darrel and I had three small children at the time. I was so disappointed when he didn't live to see my graduation, and I wish he were here now. I am so thankful to my mom and dad for instilling in me the value of an education.

For twenty years, Carolyn Stampfl was one of my closest friends. We started our careers in child welfare together and saw each other through both successful and stressful times in the field. She was such a cheerleader for me as I started my doctoral journey. I wish I could share the completion of my journey with her now.

The loss of my brother-in-law, Derek Diehl, just months ago, is still so fresh. Derek and his wife, Carole, have been a consistent part of our family celebrations. I know he would have been a part of this celebration. I miss the laughter and warmth he, along with Carole, brought to our family get-togethers.

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INTRODUCTION

Chapter Overview

This study examined whether differences exist between males and females in their self-reported servant leadership behaviors. The research built on two areas of change that took place throughout the twentieth century and into the twenty-first century: the advancement in theories and models of leadership towards a humanistic approach and the acceptance of women who participated in the work force and who aspired to positions of leadership.

Research concerning gender differences in various styles of leadership has historically yielded mixed results (Powell, 2011). This holds true for servant leadership in particular, which suggests the need for increased empirical investigation (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Page & Wong, 2000; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Humphreys, 2005; van Dierendonck, 2011). Although, women have made substantial advancements over the past thirty years into leadership positions, they continue to be underrepresented in upper managerial levels (Carli & Eagly, 2011). This research contributed to the literature concerning gender differences in Servant Leadership.

Historical Background: The Convergence of Gender and Leadership

An examination of historical perspectives of leadership and of women in the workforce throughout the twentieth century is foundational for understanding the late twentieth century convergence of humanistic leadership styles with the advancement of women as workplace participants.

Throughout the twentieth century, views pertaining to women's capacity to function and to achieve in the workplace underwent a steady transition, resulting in an increase in female workforce participation. In 1900, only 19% of women were in the workforce in any capacity, but

by the year 2000 the workforce participation of women increased to 60% (Powell & Graves, 2003). Even as female workforce participation steadily increased throughout the century, women aspiring to positions of leadership or management continued to face significant challenges.

In a Harvard Business Review survey in 1965, only 35% of men surveyed held a positive attitude towards women holding positions of leadership, and only 27% of the men surveyed indicated they would feel comfortable working for a woman (Bowman, Worthy, & Greyser, 1965). By the early years of the twenty-first century, however, survey participants in a 2005 Harvard Business Review fortieth anniversary survey revealed a more positive view of women's status in the workforce. Eighty-eight percent of the male respondents indicated a favorable view of women in management, and 71% of the men felt comfortable with the idea of working for a woman (Carlson, Kacmar & Whitten, 2006).

During the twentieth century, theories and approaches to leadership evolved from a highly structured approach to one that is more relationally-oriented. At the outset of the century, the American public expressed wide acceptance of Frederick Taylor's theory of scientific management because of its reputation for eliminating waste and increasing industrial production (Tomkins, 2005). Taylor's theory used a systematic method for controlling production and a top-down hierarchical management model (Taylor, 1911). As the century progressed, however, the approaches to leadership became less mechanical and more humanistic.

Mary Parker Follett (1924) formulated a more participative view of management in the early 1900's in which employees would have greater input into decisions that affected them. George Elton Mayo's research in Chicago from 1924 to 1932 produced evidence for the "Hawthorne Effect," which postulated that social interaction with employees increases their productivity (Mayo, 1934). Chester Barnard (1938) promoted his view that authority is more

effective when persuasion rather than power is the motivating force and when authority is exercised based on skills rather than on position. In Douglas MacGregor's *The Human Side of Enterprise* (1960), he posited two approaches to leadership: "Theory X," which presupposes that employers must control and threaten employees to ensure their productivity, and "Theory Y," which presumes that employers can motivate employees to be productive by encouraging their commitment to organizational goals.

In the latter stages of the twentieth century, these increasingly humanistic leadership approaches laid the groundwork for the emergence of James MacGregor Burns' transforming leadership (Burns, 1978). According to Burns, transforming leadership occurs when leaders set aside "naked power-wielding" in order to interact with the followers in such a way that "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (1978, p. 20). Rost (1991) declared Burns' approach to leadership to be "the cornerstone of the postindustrial age" (p. 122). Bass (1985) drew from Burns' work to introduce "transformational leadership." He sees the transformational leader as "one who motivates us to do more than we originally expected to do" (p. 20).

Concurrent with the emergence of transformational leadership, Robert K. Greenleaf published his essay, *The Servant as Leader* (1970). In practicing servant leadership, according to Greenleaf, leaders set aside aspirations of power in favor of aspirations to serve those being led. Transformational leadership and servant leadership share attributes such as trust, respect, integrity, and valuing people (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2003). Servant leaders differ from transformational leaders, however, in that they focus on meeting the needs of followers rather than focusing on meeting organizational objectives (Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2003). When servant leaders ensure the growth of the employees' capabilities, organizational objectives are

met with greater frequency, cost effectiveness is increased, and counterproductive conflicts are reduced (Hopen, 2010).

Throughout the twenty-first century, definitions of leadership moved from a structured, hierarchical approach towards a relationally-oriented approach. When definitions of leadership were congruent with stereotypical masculine characteristics (autocratic/directive), women found limited acceptance in managerial positions (Schein, 1973 & 1975; Dubno, 1985; Sutton & Moore, 1985; Brenner, et al., 1989; Heilman, et al., 1989). As definitions of leadership congruent with feminine stereotypes emerged (communal/participative), women found increasing managerial acceptance (Sharpe, 2000; Wachs, 2000; Wolfman, 2007; Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002; Rosener, 1990). As a result, by the beginning of the twenty-first century, the evolution in the societal perceptions of women with managerial aspirations converged with emerging changes toward humanistic approaches to leadership, resulting in an increasing acceptance of women in leadership.

Problem Statement

Literature concerning gender and servant leadership is minimal and yields mixed and inconclusive results. Researchers conducted studies to a greater extent on gender and transformational leadership. Some studies postulate that using a relationally-oriented leadership approach, such as transformational leadership, may give women a managerial advantage; under the impression that such an approach is more congruent with female attributes (Rosener, 1990; Bass, 1991; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Rowley, Houssain & Barry, 2010). Other existing literature found no significant gender differences and suggested that transformational leadership is gender-neutral (Yoder, 2001; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Epstein, 1991).

Multiple researchers drew comparisons between the transformational leadership and servant leadership (Farling, Stone & Winston, 1999; Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2003; Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora, 2008; Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, 2004; Reinke, 2004). Substantial literature exists pertaining to gender differences in transformational leadership, but such literature concerning servant leadership exists to a lesser extent. Some existing literature indicates no gender differences in the practices of servant leadership (Laub, 1999; Braye, 2000; Barbuto & Gifford, 2008; Jacobs, 2011; Goodwin, 2011). In contrast, Washington, Sutton & Feild (2006), Beck (2010), and Fridell, Belcher, & Messner (2009) detected gender differences in their research. In relevant literature, a comparison of attributes pertaining to masculine and feminine characteristics found slightly more alignment with feminine characteristics in comparison to masculine characteristics in both servant leadership and transformational leadership (see Appendix, Table A5).

A literature review reveals several different perspectives on gender differences in leadership. This difference in perspectives seems primarily related to differences in definitions of leadership in terms of gender. In some studies, definitions of leadership include male characteristics that favor men and disfavor women (Fuller & Batchelder, 1953; Orth & Jacobs, 1971; Boyle, 1973; Rand, 1968; Broverman et al., 1972; Schein, 1973 & 1975; Dubno, 1985; Sutton & Moore, 1985; Brenner, et al., 1989; Heilman, et al., 1989; Rudman & Killanski, 2000; Schein, 2001). Other studies favor women by defining leadership according to feminine characteristics (Sharpe, 2000; Wachs, 2000; Rosser, 2003; Rosener, 1990; Bass, 1991; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Carless, 1998). Still other studies defined leadership as gender-neutral (Powell, 1990; Vecchio, 2002; Morgan, 2004; Osborn & Vicars, 1976; Andersen & Hansson, 2011) or as contextual in nature (Powell, 2011; Eagly,

Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1991; Heilman, et al., 2004; Rudman & Killansky, 2004; Garcia-Retamero & Lopez-Zafra, 2006; van Engen et al., 2001). Generally, when definitions of leadership include male characteristics to the exclusion of female characteristics, women find limited acceptance in leadership positions. When definitions of leadership include feminine characteristics, women find greater acceptance in positions of leadership. The extent of acceptance for women in leadership positions varies in gender-neutral or contextual situations.

Women's presence in the workplace is increasing, and their presence in managerial positions is increasing as well. While women of the twenty-first century find greater acceptance in managerial ranks in the workplace than women of the twentieth century, they are still very much a minority in upper levels of corporate leadership. Today, women hold only 14.1% of executive officer positions and 16.1% of corporate board seats in Fortune 500 companies. Additionally, women occupy only 3.4% of Chief Executive Officer positions in Fortune 500 companies (Catalyst, 2011). As research concerning gender and various leadership approaches yields mixed results and as servant leadership continues to gain momentum, the question of whether gender differences exist in the implementation of servant leadership practices deserves further research.

Purpose Statement

This research examined whether differences exist between males and females in self-reported servant leadership behaviors. Additionally, the study also examined whether age, years of leadership experience, workplace sector, and organizational stability are predictors of the perceived levels of servant leadership.

The participants in this study are all alumni from a Master of Science in Organizational Leadership (MSOL) program at a Christian liberal arts college in southwestern Pennsylvania. All participants have a Master's Degree level of education or beyond.

The study followed a non-experimental cross-sectional design that used a survey instrument measuring "Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors" developed by Winston & Fields (2012). The authors developed this instrument after observing that multiple descriptions and operationalizations concerning servant leadership existed. This multiplicity, in their view, led to a vague and undefined theory of servant leadership. In order to address this issue, Winston & Fields asked an expert panel attending a servant leadership conference to rate 116 previously operationalized items from a list of descriptors found in other studies addressing servant leadership. From this endeavor the authors retained 22 of the most highly rated items. After including the 22 items in a survey to 456 working adults (with 443 usable responses), factor analysis further reduced the 22-item list to the following ten behaviors:

1. Practices what he/she preaches
2. Serves people without regard to their nationality, gender, or race
3. Sees serving as a mission of responsibility to others
4. Genuinely interested in employees as people
5. Understands that serving others is most important
6. Willing to make sacrifices to help others
7. Seeks to instill trust rather than fear or insecurity
8. Is always honest
9. Is driven by a sense of higher calling

10. Promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success. (Winston & Fields, 2012, p. 35)

For purposes of this study, I conducted factor analysis and formulated an index which measured servant leadership across one dimension.

All participants in this proposed study uniquely consist of program graduates who were similarly educated about servant leadership. I drew comparisons between the responses of male and female participants to determine if statistically significant differences exist.

Research Questions

The primary research question guiding this study asks whether differences exist between males and females in self-reported servant leadership behaviors. All participants have similar educational backgrounds in servant leadership as graduates of the same MSOL program. While investigating this primary research question, secondary questions addressed leadership differences across age differences, years of leadership experience, workplace sectors, and organizational stability.

Significance

Research concerning gender differences in various styles of leadership has historically yielded mixed results (Powell, 2011). This also holds true for servant leadership in particular, which suggests the need for increased empirical investigation (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Page & Wong, 2000; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Humphreys, 2005; van Dierendonck, 2011). Several studies specifically considered gender differences within servant leadership. Some studies found no gender differences (Laub, 2999; Braye, 2000; Barbuto & Gifford, 2008; Goodwin, 2011; Jacobs, 2011), while other studies indicate that gender differences exist (Washington, Sutton & Field, 2006; Beck, 2010; and Fridell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009).

Servant leadership has increasing appeal due to the relational emphasis placed on the leader and follower interaction (van Dierendonck, 2011). Also, women have made substantial advancements over the past thirty years into leadership positions, although they continue to be underrepresented in upper managerial levels (Carli & Eagly, 2011). This research contributes to the literature concerning gender differences in Servant Leadership.

The graduates of a southwestern Pennsylvania MSOL Program in a Christian liberal arts college are appropriate as participants in this research because as former students of this particular program, they were uniquely and uniformly educated on servant leadership. All participants have achieved an educational status at the Master's Degree level or beyond.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions provide a common understanding for the terminology introduced and used in this study.

Leadership: A variety of published definitions exist, but for purposes of this study, leadership is defined as, "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common good" (Northouse, 2007, p .3)

Role Congruity Theory: A theory that proposes that society views people more favorably if their behavior appears to be in alignment with societal role expectations placed on them. In particular, women leaders may experience more negative evaluations if characteristics society associates with femininity and characteristics society associates with leadership remain incongruent (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Servant Leadership: A leadership approach coined by Robert K. Greenleaf (1970) in which the leader has a desire to "serve *first*" and he/she leads in such a way that those being

served “become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants” (p. 15).

Social Role Theory: A theory that posits that men and women behave differently due to gendered expectations society places on them.

Transactional Leadership: A leadership theory posited by James MacGregor Burns (1978) in which leadership consists of an exchange process between leaders and followers, and in which the leader/follower relationship does not extend beyond the mutual exchange process.

Transformational Leadership: A leadership theory posited by Bass (1985) and derived from Burns’ (1978) Transforming Leadership in which the leaders motivate followers to “do more than we originally expected to do” (p. 20). This is accomplished when the leader raises followers’ consciousness about the value of stated goals, influences followers to transcend self-interest to pursue the goals, and allows followers to address higher order needs.

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

For the purposes of this research, I made several assumptions. First, the participants attended the same Master’ Degree in Organizational Leadership (MSOL) program and learned about servant leadership in a similar fashion. They responded to the questions in the research surveys truthfully rather than biasing answers in their favor. Towards that end, a statement of anonymity and confidentiality accompanied the survey so the participants were more comfortable in offering truthful and unbiased answers. Furthermore, the Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors questionnaire (Winston & Fields, 2012) that was used in this research provided valid and reliable information when measuring servant leadership among the participants in this study.

The design of this research included no pre-test, treatment, intervention, or control group, which presented a limitation of this study in terms of internal validity. These experimental approaches are not as critical, however, because the design involved the comparison of two groups and did not involve the manipulation of an independent variable. The use of this design also allowed for a greater sample size. A delimitation of this research design derived from the fact that all participants in this study were alumni from one program at one institution in Beaver Falls, Pennsylvania. The results of this study may, therefore, be less generalizable to the population of servant leadership practitioners. Because all participants engaged in the same educational experiences in regards to servant leadership, however, they share the same perception of what servant leadership entails. This is an asset as there is a lack of consensus about definitions of servant leadership by those who conduct research in this area.

Researcher's Positionality Statement

I approached this research as one who acquired my Master's of Science in Organizational Leadership (MSOL) degree in the same program as did the participants of this study. After acquiring my degree, I applied servant leadership to my practices as a nonprofit manager with favorable results. My desire to conduct this research on a gendered view of servant leadership stems from my personal experiences as a female servant leader in managerial roles.

Before beginning my doctoral studies, I was a Program Manager for two different nonprofit programs. Throughout my twenty years of working in the nonprofit world, I observed the practice of various leadership styles and the resultant organizational effects. I observed that some leaders had a demoralizing effect on their supervisees. Such leaders had a very directive, autocratic style. If subordinates did not perform as expected, the leaders responded in a punitive way. At times, I observed leaders use humiliation as a motivational strategy when they wanted to

see the employees function at a higher level. Those employees often expressed anger and frustration about their lack of job satisfaction to their peers. Their level of discontent was frequently revealed through the department's high levels of turnover.

I also observed leaders who had an uplifting effect on those they supervised. These leaders spoke to their staff members with respect. They reminded their subordinates of the value of their work. They responded positively when an employee performed well and coached employees who were struggling to meet their responsibilities. The subordinates of such leaders spoke highly of their supervisors and were committed to doing their jobs well. They seemed to enjoy being at work, and they were not looking for jobs elsewhere.

The contrast between the results of the differing approaches to leadership became even more apparent to me as I studied leadership in the MSOL Program. Several of my work colleagues and I went through this program simultaneously, while several other colleagues entered a nonprofit management program at another local university. We all started and completed our two respective programs at about the same time and I observed the differences in management style that resulted from the teachings of the two programs.

The group of colleagues who went through the nonprofit management program finished with a very different leadership approach from the one I had studied. They equated leadership with taking control of their subordinates and ensuring their obedience. One such manager set up strict rules for her department and stated, "Some managers prefer to be liked. I prefer to be respected." This statement was indicative of a leadership approach that was distinct from what my fellow students and I had learned through the MSOL program. Our goal as leaders was not to advocate for employees to show respect to us, but rather to serve those we were leading; to ensure our subordinates' needs were being met. We were to do so in way that demonstrated

personal integrity and we were to treat the employees working under our supervision with respect.

I had the opportunity to put the servant leadership principles in practice through two Program Manager positions. I never had to demand respect from the employees under my supervision. When I put my supervisees first and treated them with respect, I received respect in return. Staff members provided feedback to me that they enjoyed their work environment. I became a believer in the servant leadership approach.

Along with studying leadership styles, I believe it is also important to understand the effect of gender on leadership perceptions. My interest in this area primarily developed since the late seventies when I worked as a secretary in various organizations. In my experience at that time, most "bosses" were male, and they typically exercised authority in a very directive fashion. Employees both expected and accepted this approach. Many believed that women were by nature unsuitable for leadership positions. It was common for me to hear comments in the workplace to the effect that women were "too emotional" or "too unstable" to be managers. Doubts were expressed by some about whether women—especially wives and mothers—should be in the workforce at all.

I noticed that when women attained promotions into supervisory positions three decades ago, they often faced a dilemma. If they became directive as leaders, their subordinates did not see them favorably as they were "acting like a man." However, if they were not directive by nature, their subordinates did not recognize their authority as leaders because they did not exert a powerful image for the purpose of exercising control over others.

Although the process has been slow and evolutionary, I have perceived many changes in the acceptance of women as leadership material since the 1970's. Women now have much more

of a presence in managerial levels and people in the workforce have increasing difficulty in denying the capabilities that women possess.

Personally, I did not notice gender differences in leadership styles in the agencies for which I worked. I saw both directive/autocratic men and women; and I saw both participative/democratic men and women. Although I noticed that supervisees showed more positive response to the participative/democratic styles, the gender of the leader seemed to have no bearing on the effectiveness of the leader.

I had the opportunity to work for an agency in which several of us in management learned about the servant leadership approach to leadership in our Master's degree programs. Men and women alike who had embraced Servant Leadership as their preferred style seemed to succeed in building strong organizational teams.

At this time, research to determine the extent of gender differences among those who self-report as practicing servant leaders is minimal. This reality led to my interest in conducting such research. My educational experiences on the servant leadership approach were gender-neutral. My goal in conducting this research was to provide data that would confirm or deny the gender-neutrality of servant leadership as a leadership approach.

I had the opportunity to draw upon those who have graduated from the MSOL Program as my research participants. Those who have been through the program have a thorough understanding of what the servant leadership model entails, and they have, most likely, had the opportunity to put this leadership style into practice. Most have achieved a similar educational level.

Before considering a gendered view of servant leadership, it seems important to analyze the components of each of the concepts by examining the history of leadership including servant leadership and women and leadership.

Chapter Summary

This study examined whether gendered differences in servant leadership behaviors exist. Such research has relevance as servant leadership increases in prominence as a leadership approach and as the prevalence of women in managerial positions concurrently expands.

In my literature review preceding my research, I examined the historical perspectives of leadership during the twentieth century as well as the historical perspectives of women in their pursuit of workplace parity with men. This longitudinal outlook laid the groundwork for examining the convergence of humanistic styles of leadership with positive perceptions of women in the workforce.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter Introduction

The following quote from the Lutheran Witness magazine captures the sentiments underlying the many challenges faced by women in the workplace and those seeking women's rights in general:

> Many women will be so busy about voting and political office that the home and children will have no attraction for them, and American mothers and children, like Christian charity, will be a rarity. (Wenchel, 1920, p. 330)

This quote was one of many similar statements found in numerous editorials opposing women obtaining the right to vote. As the twentieth century dawned, women faced daunting struggles in their quest to secure equal rights. Few challenged the belief that women were best suited for homemaking and childcare (Donovan, 1985). Women possessed few rights in every area of life, including business, family life, and religion. They did not have the political freedom to vote to overturn such laws (Donovan, 1985). Only in rare circumstances did women combine motherhood with paid employment (Giele, 1995).

People in the workplace at that same time toiled under management that was top-down, hierarchical, and systematized. Frederick Taylor's scientific management was preeminent during that period (Tomkins, 2005). Although this approach received praise because its implementation often increased efficiency in production, it also faced criticism that the approach represented the dehumanization of the employees (Tomkins, 2005).

The twentieth century was a period of change in women's roles and in perspectives about leadership. Women increased in workforce participation and in their quest for careers with status

and authority (Twenge, 2001). Ideals about leadership moved away from hierarchical structures to relationally-oriented approaches (Carli & Eagly, 2001). For instance, transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970) emerged in the latter part of the century as communal leadership approaches. Some viewed such leadership approaches as being more congruent with feminine attributes (Bass, 1991; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Carless, 1998, Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen, 2003, Eagly & Carli, 2007, Vinkenburg, et al., 2011, Rowley, Houssain, & Barry, 2010).

The purpose of this research was to examine whether males and females self-report differences in servant leadership behaviors. A review of literature concerning the historical perspectives of leadership laid the groundwork for understanding later leadership approaches, such as transformational leadership and servant leadership. Likewise, a review of the historical perspectives of women's quest for equality laid the groundwork for understanding women's current status in leadership roles. The relationship and convergence of these perspectives served to lay a foundation to conduct research concerning gendered differences in servant leadership.

This chapter follows this approach by first presenting perspectives of leadership throughout the twentieth century which culminated in humanistic approaches to leadership, such as transformational and servant leadership. An examination of the historical perspectives of acceptance women in leadership roles will follow. The chapter will then give an overview of literature pertaining to gender and servant leadership.

Leadership

In this section, I first examined approaches to leadership from the perspective of the early to mid-nineteenth century, and I then examined leadership approaches from the mid-nineteenth century through the present. After reviewing the historical perspectives of leadership, I explored

relationally-oriented approaches to leadership, such as transformational and servant leadership approaches.

Historical perspectives of leadership.

The advancement of servant leadership, as conceptualized by Robert K. Greenleaf (1970) towards the end of the twentieth century, was the result of evolutionary changes in leadership that took place throughout that period. At the beginning of the 1900's, "leadership was mainly a matter of how and when to give directions and orders to obedient subordinates" (Bass, 1985, p. 5). Servant leadership, in contrast, exhibits an approach that is more humanistic and relationally-oriented. The development in humanistic approaches to leadership took progressive steps throughout the century.

Early to mid-nineteenth century.

Scientific management, as developed by Frederick Taylor around the turn of the twentieth century, revolutionalized industrial production with its emphasis on increased efficiency (Tomkins, 2005). Taylor (1911) wrote about scientific management in *The Principles of Scientific Management.* Some aspects of his theory included:

- Systematizing the work process
- Dividing work into narrowly defined tasks
- Determining the one best way to perform a task
- Training workers on the one best way
- Setting performance standards
- Offering economic incentives for meeting production quotas with primarily extrinsic rewards
- Top-down, control-oriented managerial approach

The system Taylor developed proved to be very successful in increasing industrialization capacities, and it spread as a concept to other parts of the world, such as Europe, Japan, and Russia. The system faced criticism, however, in that many believed it treated human needs as secondary to production and control (Tompkins, 2005).

In the early 1900's, social worker Mary Parker Follett challenged the ideas of scientific management from a humanistic standpoint and formulated the pre-human relations theory (Tompkins, 2005). She used a social and psychological approach to the workplace environment rather than a systematic approach. Follett's theory of integration (1924) provided an alternative to the command and control type of leadership found in scientific management. Follett believed in collective problem-solving because, in her view, everyone who would be affected by a problem should contribute to solving that problem. She also promoted a participative management type of structure because she believed that managers should be open to the input of all affected by the decisions about organization issues, policies, and procedures (Follett, 1924).

Through his research, George Elton Mayo foreshadowed the introduction of the human relations approach (Jaffee, 2001). He and some of his associates were responsible for conducting a research experiment for Western Electric in Chicago from 1924-1932. The original purpose of the experiment was to determine the effect of changes in physical conditions on the performance and productivity of the employees at the plant (Mayo, 1933). The researchers manipulated the physical conditions (such as lighting, the layout of the work area, or the pace of the work), and recorded the measurements of output from employees who were subject to the physical changes. The results revealed that productivity increased no matter which way or how much the physical conditions changed. Instead, the factor that had the greatest effect on worker output was the social interaction that took place between the experimenters and the employees. Mayo deduced

that the social context of the work environment affected the job satisfaction and therefore the productivity of the employees. For organizations to succeed, its leaders must consider the psychological and social needs of the employees (Mayo, 1933). The findings became known as the Hawthorne Effect, and laid the groundwork for the human relations theory (Jaffee, 2001).

Chester Barnard (1938) disagreed with Taylor's scientific management theory as he believed this approach reduced humans to a level of dignity equivalent to moving interchangeable parts (Jaffee, 2001). Barnard (1938) offered his theory of organization and management during the 1930's. Although most structures within organizations were hierarchical in nature, Barnard did not see employees as powerless. From his perspective, in order to solicit cooperation from employees, organizations needed to motivate employees by persuasion as opposed to force, and by appealing to the employees' self-interest (Barnard, 1938).

The trait theory maintained varying levels of interest throughout the twentieth century (Northouse, 2007). This theory emphasizes the importance of individual personal traits in leadership style. If an individual possesses certain traits that are critical for leadership, then that individual will be able to lead effectively. Different theorists have emphasized different traits over the course of time as being important to leadership. For instance, Allport (1937) studied personality traits and concluded that everyone has a few specific traits that predominate his or her personality. Stogdill (1974) analyzed 163 studies on the subject and concluded that situational factors intermingle with personality traits to indicate leadership potential in an individual. McCrae & Costa (1987) determined that five core traits interact with each other to form the basis of the human personality. The five personality factors include Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness (McCrae & Costa, 1987). .

Mid-twentieth century to the present.

By the latter half of the twentieth century, leadership theories evolved to an understanding that followers are unique individuals rather than members of a homogenous group to be tightly regulated. In 1960, Douglas McGregor published his book, *The Human Side of Enterprise*, in which he offered his view that organizational environments develop as a result of the assumptions management makes about basic human nature. McGregor posited that some managers operate under assumptions he classified as "Theory X." Theory X managers believe most people dislike working, will do their best to avoid working and accepting responsibility, and prefer instead to be directed on how to do their jobs. These people therefore must be coerced, controlled, and threatened into performing adequately on the job. "Theory Y" managers hold a more positive view of human nature. Theory Y managers assume that:

- Humans find work to be a natural state.
- Humans will be motivated to work if they are committed to the goals; they do not need to be threatened.
- Humans seek responsibility.
- Under the conditions that exist in industry, human potential was only partially used as a resource.

From McGregor's perspective, Theory Y managers see employees as assets to be developed rather than commodities that need to be forced to perform. With this approach, McGregor believes that employees have a higher commitment to meeting organizational goals, which increases productivity (McGregor, 1960).

Another theory that emerged in the 1960's was Fiedler's contingency theory" (Fiedler, 1967). According to the contingency theory, leaders are typically either task-motivated

(concerned with reaching a goal) or relationship-motivated (concerned with building relationships). Fiedler believed that because of this distinction, a given leader could not be effective in every leadership scenario. Although one leadership style may be effective in one type of situation, that same style may not be effective in another. For example, people who are task-oriented may be effective in stable workplace situations. People who are relationship-oriented may succeed in unstable situations (Fiedler, 1967).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) introduced "situational leadership" in which they believed that leadership approaches were more effective if leaders made adjustments according to differing circumstances. In situational leadership, leaders modify their behaviors according to the needs of the followers in relation to each individual follower's level of competence and level of commitment. As the needs of a follower changes, so does the leader's style of leadership.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, scientific management was the predominant management style. Organizational leaders saw employees as tools to be regulated for the benefit of the organization. As the century progressed, organizational leaders began to take an increasingly humanistic approach in which they saw the benefit of considering the followers' needs. The above historical perspectives of leadership throughout the 1900's, which culminated in relationally-oriented approaches to leadership in the latter portion of the century, set the stage for the emergence of transformational leadership and servant leadership in the 1970's. I present both approaches individually in terms of their definitions and models, and I then review literature that compares the two approaches with each other.

Transformational leadership.

Through his initial concept of "transforming leadership," James MacGregor Burns became the primary contributor to the transformational leadership approach. Burns (1978)

considered every leader to be either transactional or transforming. In transactional leadership, "one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things" (Burns, 1978, p. 19). The relationship does not go beyond the bargaining processes between the leader and the follower. The transactional approach occurs in most leader/follower relations, according to Burns.

Definitions of transforming and transformational leadership.

Burns' definition of transforming leadership, in contrast to transactional leadership, described effective leadership as an approach that elevates the followers. In Burns' view, transforming leadership "occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (1978, p. 20). Burns considered his perspective of leadership to be moral because it set aside "naked power-wielding" and "raised the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration" of both the leader and the follower (p. 20). His vision for transforming leadership was lofty; he described it as, "elevating, mobilizing, inspiring, exalting, uplifting, preaching, exhorting, evangelizing" (p. 20). A transforming leader could reach this vision by recognizing the higher order needs of the followers and striving to satisfy those needs.

Bass (1985) built on Burns' vision of transforming leadership and modified the name to "transformational leadership." In Bass' view, a transformational leader is "one who motivates us to do more than we originally expected to do" (p. 20). A transformational leader does this by ensuring that the subordinate has confidence in what the leader is trying to accomplish and by giving the subordinate the opportunity to see that the proposed outcomes have value.

Although Bass (1985) generally agreed with Burns' transforming leadership, he pointed out that he differed with Burns' view that transformational and transactional leadership exist at

opposite ends of a continuum. Bass believed that all leaders are both transformational and transactional leaders, although they display varying degrees of both on different occasions. In Bass' view, "most leaders do both, but in different amounts" (Bass, 1985, p. 22). Bass initially (1985) differed with Burn's view of the morality of transformational leaders, but he later revised his outlook. Originally, Bass (1985) drew attention to the fact that Burns did not see a leader as transforming unless the changes the leader made were for the ultimate good of society. For example, Bass pointed out that Burns would not see Adolph Hitler as a transforming leader because the changes he made were detrimental to those affected by the changes. Bass, on the other hand, saw Hitler's actions as promoting changes that were experienced by many long after his death. In that sense, according to Bass, Hitler was a transformational leader. Later, Bass, along with Steidlmeier (1999), emphasized the moral character and ethical values of the transformational leader. Bass & Steidlmeier differentiated between authentic transformational leaders (altruistic leaders who promote universal brotherhood) and pseudo-transformational leaders (egoistic leaders who vie for power and position at the expense of the followers). In this sense, Hitler was not an authentic transformational leader. According to Bass & Steidlmeier (1999), authentic transformational leadership must be built on a foundation of morality. In their view, "foundational moral discourse rests upon polarities found in both *moral intention* (egoism versus altruism) and in *moral consequences* (benefits and costs for self and others)" (p. 183). They warned of pseudo-transformational leaders who profess to be altruistic leaders with concern for others but who actually are egoistic leaders with concern for their own self-interest.

Rost (1991) generally concurred with Burns' depiction of transformational leadership, and in fact, envisioned Burns' approach to be "the cornerstone of the postindustrial age" (p. 122). He made a few distinctions, however, between Burns' approach and his own. In Rost's view, the

concepts of transactional and transformational leadership described the differences between management and leadership (although Rost acknowledged that Burns disagreed with this perspective). Rost also believed that leadership ethics has more to do with the process and outcome of organizational change rather than the personal ethics of the individual functioning as the leader. From Rost's standpoint, the ethics of an action may be difficult to determine at times because individuals often disagree about what the right thing to do is.

Yukl (1998) provided a list of behaviors he regarded as transformational (p. 497). These included:

- Increasing commitment to objectives and strategies
- Expressing confidence in the ability of the group
- Providing opportunities to experience success in initial efforts
- Role modeling and leading by example
- Team building used to provide a distinctive identity for the group
- Involving people in a collaborative effort
- Taking responsibility for significant activities and decisions as delegated to competent individuals to give them a sense of self-control and improve the quality and speed of decisions. (Yukl, 1998, p. 497)

In Yukl's view, a transformational leader recognizes the value of emotional processes as much as rational processes in influencing organizational members. Yukl also saw the organizational influence process as going beyond the dyadic leader/follower levels and considering the culture or the organization as well.

Model of transformational leadership.

Bass (1985) conceptualized transformational leadership as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Idealized influence refers to the ability of a transformational leader to exert influence over his or her followers through his or her charismatic personality. Transformational leaders also build trust with their followers through adherence to ethical principles. They demonstrate a willingness to take appropriate and beneficial risks.

A transformational leader who demonstrates *inspirational motivation* is a visionary who persuasively communicates the vision to followers and inspires confidence and motivation in them to carry out it out.

When a transformational leader promotes *intellectual stimulation,* he or she encourages followers to autonomously exercise creativity, make decisions, and suggest solutions to problems.

A transformational leader who exercises *individualized consideration* is concerned with the needs of his or her followers and offers support to them in meeting those needs. This includes assuming the role of mentor or coach to help the followers strengthen areas in which they may need assistance. Further, he or she keeps open communication with the followers, treats them with respect, and acknowledges their unique contributions to the organization.

Servant leadership.

In the same era that transformational leadership gained in prominence as a leadership approach, another approach—servant leadership—concurrently emerged. Robert K. Greenleaf introduced the term "Servant Leader" in 1970 in his essay, *The Servant as Leader*.

Greenleaf was a retired executive from AT&T (Spears, 1998). He started his career with AT&T digging telephone poles for the organization, but within a year and a half, the company recognized his management potential and he was promoted to work in AT&T's New York City office (Dittmar, 2006). He worked for AT&T for thirty-six years. After retiring from AT&T, Greenleaf served as a management consultant for major institutions, such as Ohio University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the Ford Foundation, and others. Greenleaf enjoyed working for educational institutions, drawing from the passions the students expressed. It was through his interactions with the students that he became aware of Hermann Hesse's *Journey to the East* (1956). Greenleaf credits this book with formulating his concept of "servant leadership" (Dittmar, 2006).

In Hesse's *Journey to the East* (1956), Leo, the main character in this story, accompanies a group of men on a journey (Greenleaf, 1970). His role for the group is to perform the menial chores for the others, and he also supports them with his inspirational attitude. When Leo disappears from the group, the remaining group members find they cannot function without him and the group falls apart. A group member (the narrator of the book), finds Leo after some time and discovers that Leo, who had functioned as the servant, was actually the head of the order that commissioned the journey.

In contemplating the message behind the book, Greenleaf believed that "this story clearly says—*the great leader is seen as servant first,* and that simple fact is key to his greatness" (1970, p. 9). Greenleaf found it significant that "Leo was actually the leader all the time, but he was servant first because that was what he was, *deep down inside"* (p. 9).

Greenleaf chose to bring his concept to the fore in 1970 because he perceived that the country was experiencing a crisis in leadership (Spears, 1998). He also detected a shift in leadership philosophies. Greenleaf wrote:

> A fresh critical look is being taken at the issues of power and authority, and people are beginning to learn, however haltingly, to relate to one another in less coercive and more creatively supporting ways. A new moral principle is emerging which holds that the only authority deserving one's allegiance is that which is freely and knowingly granted by the led to the leader in response to, and in proportion to, the clearly evident servant stature of the leader. Those who choose to follow this principle will not casually accept the authority of existing institutions. *Rather they will freely respond only to individuals who are chosen as leaders because they are proven and trusted as servants.* To the extent that this principle prevails in the future, the only true viable institutions will be those that are predominantly servant-led. (Greenleaf, 1970, pp. 11-12)

In describing Servant Leadership, Greenleaf stressed that "it begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve *first*. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead" (1970, p. 15). After a leader has the awareness of his or her desire to serve, in Greenleaf's view, he or she should be inspired to act on these feelings. In order to determine whether one truly has the heart of a servant leader, Greenleaf asks leaders to evaluate, "do those served persons grow; do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants?" (1970, p. 15). Greenleaf put an emphasis on the fact that the desire to serve will precede the Servant Leaders' desire to be a leader.

Definitions of servant leadership.

Greenleaf did not give a specific definition for servant leadership in his writings. He preferred, rather, to discuss what a servant-leader does and what the outcomes of a servant leader's actions ideally mean. Several researchers sought to develop a definition by accentuating aspects of servant leadership that they found to be most important.

When writing about servant leadership, Larry Spears, who was the President and Chief Executive Officer of the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership in Indianapolis from 1990 to 2008 and is currently President and CEO of the Larry C. Spears Center for Servant Leadership, stressed that this approach "emphasizes increased service to others, a holistic approach to work, promoting a sense of community, and the sharing of power in decision-making" (1998, p. 3). Other servant leadership researchers emphasized putting aside self-interest for the good of the follower (Laub, 1999; Patterson, 2003; Reinke, 2004; Boyum, 2006; Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson, 2008), showing concern for the personal development of the followers (Laub, 1999; Page & Wong, 2000; Reinke, 2004; Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson, 2008), and creating a vision for the organization (Reinke, 2004). Table A1 in the Appendix offers specific definitions of servant leadership that researchers have offered.

Multiple researchers have studied the essays of Robert Greenleaf and other related works that contributed to an understanding of what servant leadership entails. After careful consideration, many have offered their interpretations of specific attributes that must be demonstrated by a servant leader.

Spears (1998) developed what he saw as the ten characteristics of servant leadership. He based this list on his reading of Greenleaf's book, *The Servant as Leader,* because he "sought to extract from Greenleaf's own writings a relatively brief list of characteristics and the ten which I

selected appeared to me to be the ones that Greenleaf suggested were most important" (Dittmar, 2006, p. 113). The ten characteristics include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. From Spears' point of view, these characteristics were concepts that Greenleaf mentioned repeatedly in his writings and seemed to be important ideas for Greenleaf to convey to his readers. Spears stated, however, that the ten characteristics he outlined "are not a definitive list" (Dittmar, 2006, p. 113).

Other researchers have developed a list of servant leadership attributes that they believe contribute to an understanding of servant leadership. Some of the more commonly repeated characteristics include vision, service before self, authenticity, and empowerment. A list of attributes various authors proposed is included in the Appendix, Table A2.

Models of servant leadership.

By the beginning of the twenty-first century, servant leadership was growing in recognition and support. It received favorable attention from *The Indianapolis Business Journal, Fortune* magazine, and *The New York Times* (Page & Wong, 2000). Some researchers sensed that empirical support for this approach was lacking (Farling, Stone & Winston, 1999; Page & Wong, 2000; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Humphreys, 2005; Washington, Sutton & Field, 2006; van Dierendonck, 2011; Winston & Fields, 2012). In response to this constraint, researchers who had an interest in examining servant leadership began to take steps to develop the instruments and tools required for empirical research. As they did so, they did not have unanimous agreement on the constructs that define servant leadership.

Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora (2008) pointed out that all models share servanthood as the primary construct. All other constructs as delineated by the respective researchers formed models

with the purpose of establishing a basis for researchers to use. A comparison of the models and instruments that researchers developed is located in the Appendix, Table A7.

Farling, Stone & Winston (1999) depicted their Servant Leadership Variable Model in an upward spiraling model of vision, which influences credibility, which influences trust, which influences service, with the process repeating. Those being led, according to this model, reach higher levels of "organizational self-actualization" (p. 52) as they rise to the next level in the spiral.

Laub (1999) developed the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment (SOLA) to be used by anyone in an organization at any level, including work groups and teams. He designed the tool to allow all top organizational leaders to hear from all parts of the organization. The three sections of the SOLA include an assessment of the entire organization, an assessment of the leadership of the organization, and an assessment of the organization based on the personal experiences of the participants. Laub used the Delphi method to formulate six servant leadership dimensions for his instrument, which included values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership.

Page & Wong (2000) developed a model of servant leadership and a quantifiable instrument tool. In the Page and Wong model, character is central to all of servant leadership. Their model consisted of four dimensions and twelve subscales: "character (integrity, humility, servanthood); people-orientation (caring for others, empowering others, developing others); task-orientation (visioning, goal-setting, leading); and process-orientation (modeling, team-building, and shared decision-making)" (p.16). From these constructs, they developed the Servant Leadership Profile as an instrument to measure servant leadership for research.

Russell and Stone (2002) developed a model of servant leadership due to their observation that "the literature regarding Servant Leadership is rather indeterminate, somewhat ambiguous, and mostly anecdotal" (p. 145). The authors noted that "optimally, the prime motivation for leadership should be a desire to serve" (p. 145). Servant leadership, according to the Russell and Stone model, includes nine "functional attributes (vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, and empowerment)" and eleven "accompanying attributes (communication, credibility, competence, stewardship, visibility, influence, persuasion, listening, encouragement, teaching, and delegation)" (p. 147). The authors expressed their hope that their delineation of these attributes would serve as a basis for future research on the servant leadership approach.

Dennis & Winston (2003) studied Page and Wong's work (2000) and determined that the instrument they developed did not conduct factor analysis on their specified constructs. According to Dennis & Winston, factor analysis confirmed only three of Page and Wong's twelve factors: vision, empowerment, and service. Dennis & Winston concluded that their results nevertheless indicate that "Page and Wong's instrument has merit and deserved further development and modification" (p. 455).

In 2003, researchers Wong and Page revised their model to take into account "authoritarian hierarchy and egotistic pride as two main forces antithetical to the implementation of servant leadership" (p. 1). They proposed the revised multi-dimensional Opponent-Process Model of Servant Leadership (OP) which included ten constructs: leading, servanthood, visioning, developing others, team-building, empowering others, shared decision-making, integrity, authoritarian hierarchy, and egotistical pride. Authoritarian hierarchy and egotistical pride are scored in reverse reflecting intentional vulnerability and voluntary humility.

The purpose of Patterson's dissertation (2003) was to "define and develop the component constructs underlying the practice of servant leadership" (p. 5). In doing so, she developed a model of servant leadership that included seven constructs: agapao love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, and service.

Reinke's (2004) model characterized servant leadership by the constructs of openness, stewardship, and vision within a trusting organizational culture. In Reinke's view, trust is the intervening variable between servant leadership behaviors (the independent variable) and organizational success (the dependent variable).

Dennis & Bocarnea (2006) designed an instrument to measure Patterson's (2003) servant leadership constructs of agapao love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, service, and empowerment. Their factor analysis yielded five factors: empowerment, love, humility, trust, and vision. They designed an instrument to measure the five constructs that they recommended for use in organizations that self-identify as advocating servant leadership as their organizational model of leadership.

The purpose of Barbuto & Wheeler's research (2006) was to clarify servant leadership constructs based on Spears' ten characteristics (listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, growth, and community-building) and adding calling as a construct. Factor analysis reduced Spears' constructs to five constructs: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship. The authors then developed a scale from the remaining five constructs that can be used in any organizational setting.

In 2008, Liden, Wayne & Zhao developed a 28-item scale measuring seven servant leadership dimensions, including conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow and

succeed, putting subordinates first, behaving ethically, healing of emotions, and creating value for community. The authors saw servant leadership as consisting of multi-dimensional constructs. Their instrument is strongest when testing supervisors and subordinates.

Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008) developed a multi-dimensional model of servant leadership that presents servanthood as the basis for the model and includes six constructs with twenty subthemes: "voluntary subordination (being a servant, acts of service), authentic self (humility, integrity, accountability, security, vulnerability), covenantal relationship (acceptance, availability, equality, collaboration), responsible morality (moral reasoning, moral action) transcendental spirituality (religiousness, interconnectedness, sense of mission, wholeness), and transforming influence (vision, modeling, mentoring, trust, empowerment)" (p. 413). From the perspective of the authors, their model is holistic in comparison to previous models because they incorporate the spiritual dimension into their model's constructs. They believe that the desire to serve is driven by "the leaders' spiritual insights and humility" (p. 410). Furthermore, "acts of serving are exercised in accordance with moral and ethical principles" (p. 410). Based on the constructs and subthemes, Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008) developed a multi-dimensional scale that they described as suitable for use in any industry or cultural setting.

Van Dierendonck (2011) stated his concern that in spite of the fact that four decades had passed since the introduction of servant leadership, no unilateral definition and theoretical framework existed of this approach to leadership. In his view, several of the servant leadership models that had been presented were the most influential: Spears (1995), Laub (1999), Russell & Stone (2002), and Patterson (2003). Those models involved a total of 44 key attributes. Van Dierendonck stated the possibility that considering multiple models would appear to "only confuse our understanding" (2011, p. 1232). He added that by considering overlaps between the

models and by "differentiating between antecedents, behavior, mediating processes, and outcomes and by combining the conceptual models with the empirical evidence gained from the measures of servant leadership" (p. 1234), van Dierendonck identified six characteristics of servant leadership: empowering and developing people, humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, providing direction, and stewardship.

Although multiple researchers have worked towards conceptualizing servant leadership and developing measurement instruments to empirically explore this leadership model, there continues to be no consensus on the best approach to use (van Dierendonck, 2011). When researchers followed up on work completed by previous researchers, they frequently reevaluated and revised the previous work.

Winston & Fields (2012) believe the multiple attempts at defining servant leadership led to ambiguity about the model and provided little groundwork on which to implement servant leadership on an organizational level. In conducting their research, Winston & Fields set out to meet three goals: (a) to clarify how servant leadership is established and transmitted in an organizational setting, (b) to identify specific leader behaviors that are essential to establish servant leadership, and (c) to examine the extent to which these essential behaviors demonstrate construct validity (p. 5).

In conducting their research, Winston & Fields (2012) garnered the expertise of twenty-three researchers who have proficiency in servant leadership. Through a multi-stage process (described in Chapter 3: Methodology), the researchers (Winston & Fields, 2012) developed the Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale. This scale includes the following ten behaviors:

1. Practices what he/she preaches
2. Serves people without regard to their nationality, gender, or race

3. Sees serving others as a mission of responsibility to others
4. Genuinely interested in employees as people
5. Understands that serving others is most important
6. Willing to make sacrifices to help others
7. Seeks to instill trust rather than fear or insecurity
8. Is always honest
9. Is driven by a sense of higher calling
10. Promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success. (Winston & Fields, 2012, p. 35)

From the perspective of the researchers, these behaviors offer clarification about "how servant leadership is established and transmitted among members of an organization" (p. 21). Conceptualizing servant leadership through the essential behaviors identifies what behaviors are vital to the institution of servant leadership.

Comparison of servant leadership with transformational and transactional leadership.

Researchers often draw comparisons between transformational leadership and servant leadership as the two approaches emerged and developed around the same time and share a humanistic orientation. Spears drew such a comparison in remarking that, "At its core, servant leadership is a long-term, transformational approach to live and work—in essence a way of being—that has the potential for creating positive change in society" (1995, p. 3).

Burns (1978) viewed transformational leadership with its emphasis on elevating others as being dichotomous with transactional leadership with its emphasis on exchange processes between leaders and followers. A comparison of attributes for Greenleaf's servant leadership and

concepts of transformational and transactional leadership models from the perspectives of various researchers is located in the Appendix, Table A3. As seen in this table, transformational leadership and servant leadership approaches hold multiple attributes in common, but transactional leadership overlaps very little with these approaches.

Stone, Russell & Patterson (2003) examined servant leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership. The authors state that many compare servant leadership with transformational leadership because "a cursory glimpse of transformational leadership and servant leadership leaves the perception that the concepts are rather similar. In fact, some individuals question whether there is any real difference between the concepts" (p. 2). When Stone, Russell & Patterson made their comparisons, they concluded that the two models are not identical, but complementary. Farling, Stone, & Winston (1999) saw servant leadership as one form of transformational leadership. Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko (2004) viewed servant leadership as subsumed within transformational leadership. More researchers concluded that servant leadership and transformational leadership are similar but have some distinctions (Reinke, 2004; Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004; Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden, Wayne & Zhao, 2008; Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora, 2008; van Dierendonck, 2011).

The researchers often differed on the basis of the comparisons they made. Some researchers used Bass' (1985) conceptualization of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) as their starting point. For instance, when Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008) made a similar comparison to Bass' (1985) model, they saw idealized influence and intellectual stimulation as concepts included in servant leadership, but they did not include inspirational motivation or individualized consideration. They saw servant leadership and transformational leadership as

moderately correlated in that the leaders in both approaches show sensitivity towards the needs of greater society and encourage the followers to aspire to elevated levels of moral reasoning. The focus on serving the follower first that is found in servant leadership is not encapsulated in transformational leadership.

Van Dierendonck (2011) saw Bass' conceptions of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation as being compatible with servant leadership. He believed that idealized influence, however, was not compatible in that it may promote an allegiance to the charisma of the leader. The leader's allegiance in transformational leadership is to the organization. The employees' personal growth is therefore secondary to the well-being of the good of the organization. According to van Dierendonck, the prioritization of the organization's needs or of the leader's personal growth above those of the employees lends itself to "an obvious risk of manipulation" (p. 1235). Van Dierendonck also saw servant leadership as including a commitment to social responsibility to the community, which is lacking in transformational leadership.

Stone, Russell & Patterson (2003) concluded that the principal difference between the complementary concepts of servant leadership and transformational leadership lies with the focal point of the leader. In transformational leadership, the leader is focused on building a culture in which the followers demonstrate commitments to reaching organizational objectives. Servant leaders, on the other hand, subordinate the objectives of the organization to meet the followers' needs. Both models share attributes such as trust, respect, integrity, and valuing people. They differ in that transformational leaders rely on charisma for their ability to influence, while servant leaders view their acts of service towards the followers as the root of their ability to influence. Washington (2007) also found that the servant leaders' focus on the followers as

opposed to transformational leaders' concentration on achieving organization objectives is an important differentiation between the two models. At the same time, both models emphasize morality, inspiration, empowerment, and people-orientation.

Parolini's (2007) dissertation used an online survey to conduct an empirical investigation into the differentiation between transformational and servant leadership. The results of her research found several distinctions. Transformational leadership focuses on the needs of the organization, demonstrates an inclination to lead first, shows loyalty to the organization, and uses charisma and control as modes of influence. Servant leadership, on the other hand, focuses on the needs of the individual, shows primary interest in serving first, demonstrates a commitment to the needs of the individual, and uses service, freedom, and autonomy as the manner of influence.

Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008) posit that both servant leadership and transformational leadership are committed to elevating those being led to higher levels of morality. Servant leaders, though, make serving the followers' ultimate good the first priority and are more likely to serve marginalized people than are transformational leaders, who typically focus on achieving organizational objectives.

Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko (2004) determined that servant leadership matches with transformational leadership on three of four dimensions (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration). From their perspective, servant leadership is subsumed within transformational leadership, although the two approaches operate from different motivational bases. The motivational drivers in servant leadership include valuing people, developing people, building community, displaying authenticity, and sharing leadership. According to the authors, leaders who function according to these drivers will foster an organizational "spiritual generative culture," (p. 86) that they define as one in which leaders

focus on personal growth of themselves and the followers. The function of the organization is to promote the growth of the individuals involved. The transformational leader functions from a macro motivational base, which is more organizationally focused. Transformational leaders strive to ensure organizational survival in a challenging outer environment. Although individual success is important, it is subordinated to organizational achievement. While servant leadership leads from a perspective of egalitarianism (the leader is equal to the followers), transformational leadership sees the followers as those who need to be lifted up through inspiration.

Reinke (2004) notes that transformational leadership is potentially authoritarian as well as participative. With servant leadership, however, an authoritarian approach is coercive and ultimately destructive to meeting organizational goals. While transformational leadership can be motivated from utilitarian or from moral purposes, depending on the situation, servant leadership, on the other hand, places an emphasis on the morality of leadership to the virtual exclusion of utilitarianism. Reinke (2004) sees both models as building community, instilling vision, and healing. According to Reinke, servant leadership is a form of transformational leadership as servant leadership seeks to build the people with the organization as well as the organization itself. She adds, however, that Greenleaf, as the originator of the servant leadership approach, ultimately did not explain how to reconcile conflicts between the needs of the individual and the needs of the organization.

Whetstone (2002) compared the two models and commented on the strengths and pitfalls of both. Theoretically, transformational leadership has the goal of creating a moral climate, encouraging independence, and promoting the greater organizational good. While they are worthy goals, Whetstone saw several potential pitfalls of transformational leadership. For instance, transformational leaders may be tempted to downplay the followers' contributions, or

they may encourage unhealthy dependency in followers. They may exercise "bogus empowerment" (p. 387) in which they manipulate followers to believe they have more power than they actually do. Whetstone also warned of the possibility of leaders using charisma for immoral ends, such as in the case of Adolph Hitler. He believes this reality is what led Bass (1995) to distinguish between authentic transformational and pseudotransformational leaders. In Whestone's view, while transformational leadership can be an effective leadership approach, organizational safeguards must be in place to overcome the possibility of abuse of power. There is less danger of servant leaders falling prey to those same pitfalls, according to Whetstone, because of the use of persuasion, example, and listening in the implementation of this approach. The servant leader is also called to be self-reflective. Whetstone acknowledges that any approach is potentially flawed. For instance, some criticize servant leadership as being too unrealistic and encouraging passivity in followers. The approach may make the leader vulnerable to follower manipulation. Servant Leaders can overcome these concerns, according to Whetstone, by demonstrating concern for followers first, cultivating trust, listening, and using persuasion and example to promote the leaders' vision.

A comparison of servant leadership, transformational, and transactional leadership attributes is located in the Appendix, Table A3. This comparison reveals that servant leadership and transformational leadership share some attributes in common, such as appreciating people, commitment to the growth of people, empowerment, integrity, and others. Transactional leadership, which includes such attributes as discipline, directive leadership, task-orientation, and formal bureaucratic authority, did not overlap such attributes with Servant leadership.

Transformational leadership as well as servant leadership emerged concurrently in the latter period of the twentieth century and used such humanistic approaches.

Although Robert Greenleaf introduced servant leadership as a leadership approach, he did not offer a specific definition for servant leadership. Multiple researchers have since developed definitions of this approach to leadership, yet no consensual definition exists.

Based on a review of literature and for purposes of conducting this research, I offer the following definition of servant leadership: Servant Leadership is an approach to leadership in which serving others with integrity is the leaders' first priority. Servant leaders put their followers' well-being before their own self-interest and success, demonstrate concern for the followers' personal development, and share power and decision-making with their followers. Servant leaders also build a sense of community and develop a culture of trust within their organizations.

Women and Leadership

Historical perspectives of women and leadership.

While the twentieth century was a period of change in approaches to leadership, it was also a period of change for the roles of women. The number of women in the workplace and in positions of leadership steadily increased throughout the 1900's (Powell & Graves, 2003). These advances for women did not occur in a vacuum. A review of the historical perspectives of the roles of women lays the groundwork for understanding the changes in status of women and leadership during this time. As cultural changes in views of leadership progressed, changes in acceptance of women in leadership roles concurrently evolved.

Mid-nineteenth to mid-twentieth century.

Prior to the nineteenth century, women were subordinates to men in every area of life; including family, religion, and business. Legal prohibitions excluded women from the right to make contracts or to retain custody of their children—and they did not have the right to vote to

overturn such laws. Society, both men and women alike, generally accepted the assumption that women belonged in the home as wife and mother (Donovan, 1985). The United States has no historical record of any organized movement for the purpose of addressing women's status or equal rights during this time period (Giele, 1995).

During the nineteenth century, the Industrial Revolution caused the separation of the workplace from the home. Factory mechanization of products made home-based industries irrelevant. Men began to leave the home to go to work, while women remained isolated in their homes (Donovan, 1985). These changes bolstered the assumptions that women belonged in the home focused on their roles as wives and mothers. During this time, women gradually began to increase their educational pursuits (Giele, 1995). Additionally, the Second Great Awakening, which spread Evangelical Christianity through the United States, promoted the religious and moral autonomy of women. Likewise, the principles of the Enlightenment Era advocated ideals of political and civil autonomy for all individuals. Simultaneously, many women who opposed the injustices of slavery felt compelled to organize abolitionist groups (Giele, 1995). Their activism raised an awareness of their own political and social limitations within the prevailing structures of society. Women realized they had few avenues open to them in which to pursue justice and equality for slaves and for themselves.

In 1848, a group of people – both female and male – met in Seneca Falls, New York to proclaim their "Declaration of Sentiments" to advocate for women's rights. The statement closely resembled the national Declaration of Independence (Giele, 1995). The list of grievances included:

- Denial of the right to vote
- Government without representation

- Civil disability
- Loss of property
- Loss of guardianship as a result of marriage
- Unequal employment, remuneration, and education
- Pre-emption of moral authority
- Exclusion from ministry in the church

Following such proclamations, advocates for women's rights made some gains, such as improvements in women's legal position in child custody cases, liberalized divorce laws, and increased opportunities in education and employment (Donovan, 1985). Despite these advances, however, women did not obtain the right to vote on a national level until 1920 with the adoption of the Nineteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution. In 1923, Congress introduced the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA), but the amendment did not reach the floor of the House or Senate for a vote (Giele, 1995). The ERA spurred debate about whether such protectionist laws for women were helpful or harmful (Laughlin & Anderson, 1924). Those who opposed the ERA and favored protectionist legislation argued that states with such legislation provided better working conditions for women. Those who opposed protectionist legislation argued that such measures would provide judges with opportunities to arbitrarily discriminate against women and that only a constitutional amendment such as the ERA could guarantee that there would not be any discrimination against women.

During the depression era (1929-1940), as the unemployment rate dramatically increased, women faced resentment in the workplace as some believed women's workforce participation deprived men of scarce opportunities for employment (Powell & Graves, 2003). This view changed during World War II as the trend of men leaving work to go to war caused a temporary

demand for female labor. Although the majority of women – particularly those who were mothers – remained in the home during the war or left their jobs to return home after the war, society began to accept the idea that women could hold outside employment.

During the 1950's, women only rarely combined motherhood with employment. Images of women during this time primarily centered on homemaking. As women who were born in the 1930's and 1940's came of age, however, they were able to transition more easily into the workforce (Giele, 1995). These women built on the increased acceptance of female employment that started during World War II and brought in a new era of feminism. They advocated for changes to improve women's status in the home and the workplace.

Mid-twentieth century to the present.

Building on the advancements of the first half of the twentieth century, many cultural changes took place during the 1960's and 1970's that affected the lives of women (Powell & Graves, 2003). More women aspired to higher levels of education. The contraceptive known as the "Pill" became available in 1960, which gave women the ability to control timelines for childbearing and therefore the ability to pursue professional careers. Additionally, Betty Friedan published the book entitled *The Feminine Mystique* in 1963 which was instrumental in Ms. Friedan's goals to "develop new role patterns that would become more common later" (Giele, 1995, p. 170). In her book, Friedan (1963) questioned the idea that all women can find personal fulfillment in the traditional gender roles of housewife and mother. She asked, "The whole world lies open to American women. Why, then, does the image deny the world? Why does it limit women to 'one passion, one role, one occupation?'" (p. 37). Friedan put forward the idea that women can pursue personal fulfilment through creative work apart from the housewife role and

simultaneously be a successful wife and mother. She urged wife, husband, and society to consider the benefits that accrue when women find and fulfil their full potential:

> Who knows what women can be when they are finally free to become themselves? Who knows what women's intelligence will contribute when it can be nourished without denying love? Who knows of the possibilities of love when men and women share not only children, home, and garden, not only the fulfilment of their biological roles, but the responsibilities and passions of the work that creates the human future and the full human knowledge of who they are? It has barely begun, the search of women for themselves. But the time is at hand when the voices of the feminine mystique can no longer drown out the inner voice that is driving women on to become complete. (Friedan, 1963, p. 378)

In 1966, Friedan established the National Organization for Women (NOW) which helped to "forge an ideology for the rebirth of feminism" (Giele, 1995, p. 170).

In addition to these cultural changes, women benefitted from legislative advances (Powell & Graves, 2003). Congress passed the Equal Pay Act in 1963 which made it illegal to pay one sex differently than the other for equivalent work. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act passed in 1964, which prohibited discrimination on the basis of sex, color, race, religion, or national origin. The number of white collar jobs available increased, and with the assistance of anti-discriminatory laws, the proportion of women who moved into management positions increased as well.

In 1972, Congress reintroduced the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) (Giele, 1995). The ERA passed in both houses of Congress and moved on to the states for ratification. Although the amendment quickly passed in 34 states, 38 states needed to pass it for ratification. Activist Phyllis Schlafly had organized a STOP ERA campaign, and the legislation did not pass (Giele,

1995). Ms. Schlafly successfully argued that ERA would mandate that the government must treat men and women exactly the same with no special considerations for the needs of women: no provisions would be made for separate rest rooms, anti-rape laws, or exemptions from compulsory military services—even for soldiers who were mothers. The proposal for the ERA reinvigorated discussions from fifty years prior about whether protectionist legislation hurts or harms women. Its defeat demonstrated that feminist ideology must address questions about the realities of sex and gender differences (Giele, 1995).

One example of a gender difference that may serve as an impediment toward women's progress towards equality is women's commitment to family responsibility (Giele, 1995). Employers were skeptical about promoting women into managerial positions, as many believed that women would have difficulty balancing their family life with their career (Orth & Jacobs, 1971; Boyle, 1973; Rosen & Jerdee, 1974; Brenner, et al. 1989). Ozawa (1976) stated that "the most significant factor deterring the advance of working women" was "that many working women also bear and care for the offspring of the human race" (p. 458). Many believed that women's caretaking responsibilities with their children would interfere with their careers because new mothers would need maternity leave (Schwartz, 1989) and after maternity leave, mothers would require time off to care for the children (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

Legislation proposed following the defeat of the ERA reflected the realization that the women's rights movement must take women's family commitments into consideration and shift from focusing on the individual rights to social rights. Many also recognized that much of the necessary change should occur at the state levels. In the last quarter of the twentieth century, many states passed legislation concerning marriage and divorce, sexual assault, aid to displaced homemakers, and domestic violence. On a national level, Congress passed the Pregnancy

Disability Act in 1978, which mandated that employers must treat pregnancy in the workplace the same as they would treat a man's disability. In 1993, the Family and Medical Leave Act passed, requiring employers to grant unpaid leave to employees who have a health need, a family member with a health need, or a new child. Such legislation made workforce entry of women with family responsibilities a more plausible reality.

Definitions of leadership in terms of gender.

The twentieth century was a period of cultural, economic, and legislative shifts which greatly affected the societal role of women. The changes described above made it possible for more women, including women who were married and had children, to enter into and succeed in the workplace. Whereas in 1900, 6% of married women and 44% of single women found employment outside the home (Powell & Graves, 2003), by the year 2000, 62% of married women and 66% of single women were in the workforce.

Despite their influx into the workplace, women made slow progress into managerial ranks. In 1900, four percent of all managers were women. By 1970, however, the number had increased to only sixteen percent (Powell & Graves, 2003). A review of relevant literature on gender differences in leadership reveals that distinct perspectives exist pertaining to the acceptance of women in managerial roles. Some literature defines leadership in terms of male characteristics that favor men or disfavor women (Fuller & Batchelder, 1953; Orth & Jacobs, 1971; Boyle, 1973; Rand, 1968; Broverman et al., 1972; Schein, 1973 & 1975; Dubno, 1985; Sutton & Moore, 1985; Brenner, et al., 1989; Heilman, et al., 1989; Rudman & Killanski, 2000; Schein, 2001). This was particularly true in studies conducted before the latter portion of the twentieth century. Towards the end of the century, some studies emerged that defined leadership in terms of feminine characteristics that favored women (Sharpe, 2000; Wachs, 2000; Rosser,

2003; Rosener, 1990; Bass, 1991; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Carless, 1998). Some of the literature defined leadership in terms of gender neutrality (Powell, 1990; Vecchio, 2002; Morgan, 2004; Osborn & Vicars, 1976; Andersen & Hansson, 2011; Andersen & Hansson, 2011) and still others defined gender in leadership contextually-based (Powell, 2011; Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1991; Heilman, et al., 2004; Rudman & Killansky, 2004; Garcia-Retamero & Lopez-Zafra, 2006; Van Engen et al., 2001. Much of the literature on gender differences in leadership falls within one of these four perspectives. Generally, when definitions of leadership favor men, women find limited acceptance as workplace leaders. When definitions of leadership show more favorability to women, they find greater acceptance as leaders in the workplace. In gender-neutral or contextual situations, levels of acceptance of women as leaders may vary.

Definitions of leadership that favor men or disfavor women.

Multiple researchers have found an account of beliefs that society viewed men as better suited for positions of leadership in the workplace. For example, executives who participated in a Harvard Business School research project for the purpose of evaluating a Radcliff Management Training Program for women (Fuller & Batchelder, 1953) interpreted leadership in masculine and racist terms and saw women and minorities as unfit for leadership roles, as seen in comments the authors recorded:

- One executive stated that, "I could no more send a woman on that audit job than I could send a Negro, although I use both very effectively within the office" (p. 117).
- Another executive said that women should not be placed in human resources positions because they would need to interview professionals at times, and "any man applying for

such a position would begin to wonder about the company the minute he found he was to be interviewed by a woman" (p. 117).

- Placing women in managerial positions would be a logistical problem for one employer, "because women were not admitted to the dining room where the bank entertained" (p. 120).
- Another logistical problem mentioned was that "men just will not work for women." (p. 122)

Additional literature confirms the view that companies should avoid placing women in managerial roles because of the discomfort men would experience. When Harvard Business Review (Bowman, Worthy & Greyser, 1965) surveyed executives in 1965, only 9% of the men indicated they would feel comfortable working for a woman (p. 166). A 1985 follow-up survey revealed that the number of men who expressed comfort with working for a woman had increased to only 21% (Sutton & Moore, p. 48). Hollander & Yoder (1980) found that women generally would not find acceptance in leadership roles unless they proved themselves as possessing extraordinary abilities.

Fuller & Batchelder's (1953) interviews of male executives regarding their views of women in managerial roles revealed that some perceived women as temperamentally unfit for leadership. For example, one executive commented that "women are more emotional than men and take everything too personally" (p. 124). This lack of control over emotions, therefore, rendered women ineffective as leaders. Another male executive stated that "women are not dependable—they are too emotional and fall apart in a crisis" (Orth & Jacobs, 1971, p. 142). Boyle (1973) also recorded comments from executives expressing concerns about women's emotional make-up.

Beyond concerns about the emotionality of women, research frequently illustrated the common perception that women did not possess personal characteristics required to be effective leaders. Multiple studies alluded to the dichotomous nature of male and female characteristics and detailed those characteristics (see Appendix, Table A4).

Rand (1968) determined that career-oriented women possess masculine characteristics (such as endurance, dominance, and independence) in comparison to homemaking-oriented women who were feminine (nurturing, empathetic, and understanding). Others believed that "only men are considered to be dominant, aggressive, and competitive enough to gain the follower respect necessary for successful supervision," and because all women lack those attributes, they "just do not make good leaders" (Osborn & Vicars, 1976, p. 440). Broverman et al. (1972) found the existence of sex role stereotypes that described women as "less competent, less independent, less objective, and less logical than men" (p, 75).

Multiple studies discussed the perception that masculine characteristics typically align more closely with characteristics of leadership (Schein, 1973 & 1975; Dubno, 1985; Sutton & Moore, 1985; Brenner, et al., 1989; Heilman, et al., 1989). Schein (1975) found that women generally accepted masculine constructions of leadership as often as did men and that if women were in positions of making hiring decisions, they would just as often choose in favor of men.

Rudman & Killanski (2000) found that participants held negative views of women in leadership positions because it is "more natural for a man to take control" (p. 1325) than it is for a woman to do so. The authors suggest the reason for this finding is that powerful women violate cultural expectancies of women and some may see powerful women as "stepping on men's toes" (p. 1325). Descriptions of managers aligned more closely with descriptions of males, in research conducted by Heilman et al. (1989), and descriptions of women were far less congruent with

descriptions of successful managers. A "think manager, think male" bias existed (Schein, 2001, p. 675).

Eagly's (1987) Social Role Theory offered a rationale for perceptions of gendered differences in leadership styles. According to the Social Role Theory, women and men behave differently and assume differing roles on the basis of expectancies society places upon them. Social role beliefs may place constraints on women who aspire to leadership positions if masculine characteristics define leadership. For example, Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) found that society frequently portrayed males in agentic or task-oriented roles, and females in communal or relationally-oriented roles. Attributes of an agentic person, which align more closely with masculinity, include "aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, daring, self-confident, and competitive" (p. 783). Communal characteristics (aligned more closely with femininity) include "affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturant, and gentle" (p. 783). Agentic attributes produce a directive leadership approach in men, while communal attributes (characteristically helpful, understanding, and warm) produce a participative leadership approach in women (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Other researchers (Heilman, 2001; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007; Eagly, 2007; Pittinsky, Bacon, & Welle, 2007; Johnson, et al., 2008; Rosette & Tost, 2010) understood masculine and feminine social roles in the same way.

Generally, society expects that people's gender identities agree with their stereotypical gender roles. According to the Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), when people align with their gender roles, their workplace evaluations are more favorable. Women aspiring to leadership positions, however, may find that adherence to gender roles hinders their workplace advancement. They are, therefore, placed in a double bind situation (Eagly & Carli, 2007). When

facing a double bind, a woman may find that if she presents herself in a feminine way, in conformance with the construction of her social role, then society will not see her as a leader. A feminine woman will have fewer agentic/masculine qualities, which society expects for leadership roles. If she displays agentic qualities, society will see her as unfeminine and as nonconforming to her social role. Therefore, because of such a double bind, her evaluations as a leader may be less favorable. (Ely & Rhode, 2011).

Society may perceive competent women who assume masculine gender roles, and who therefore are not in congruity with social role expectations, as less effective (Bartol & Butterfield, 1976), as cold (Heilman, 2001), and/or unlikeable (Heilman, 2001; Eagly, 2007; Johnson et al., 2008). Workplace colleagues may like women who are congruent with feminine role expectations but not respect them whereas the same colleagues may respect women who conform to masculine stereotypes but not like them (Ely & Rhode, 2011). Non-congruity with social roles could lead to social rejection and may have a negative impact on a woman's career aspirations (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007).

Definitions of leadership that favor women.

Although sex stereotyping biases provided an immense obstacle for women's progress towards managerial positions, as the twentieth century came to a close some researchers began to notice a cultural trend in favor of women in leadership. The proportion of women in management had increased from 33% in 1984 to 46% (Powell, Butterfield & Parent, 2002). Duehr and Bono (2006) found that male managers were moving towards characterizing female managers as "less passive and submissive and more confident, ambitious, analytical, and assertive" (p, 837). Perceptions of leadership characteristics began to include traits that were more congenial towards women (Sharpe, 2000; Wachs, 2000; Wolfman, 2007; Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002;

Rosener, 1990). Two ways of thinking emerged concerning this shift. Some believed that defining leadership in terms of feminine characteristics would serve to promote the workplace advancement of women. Others believed, however, that this trend may fall short in serving the long-term best interests of women aspiring to positions of leadership.

Definitions of leadership that favor women and will help women.

In 2000, Business Week published an article ("As Leaders, Women Rule: New Studies Find that Female Managers Outshine their Male Counterparts in Almost Every Measure;" Sharpe, 27 Nov. 2000) which postulated that women are more effective leaders than are men. The article referenced management studies in which peers, subordinates, and superiors rated female executives more highly than they rated male executives on multiple measures "from producing high-quality work to goal-setting to mentoring employees" (para. 2). The message conveyed to executive recruiters as a result of this research: "Hire a female" (2000, para. 1).

In her book, *Why the Best Man for the Job Is a Woman: The Unique Female Qualities of Leadership,* Wachs (2000) discussed the "new paradigm" in leadership in which women use "feminine traits" to their advantage (p. 9). Wachs noted that, in general, society associates women with traits such as nurturing, displaying empathy, engendering loyalty and respect, and playing down egos for the good of the team. Women also typically emphasize abolishing hierarchies, collaborating with employees, and connecting with customers. These proclivities, according to Wachs, give women an advantage in an emerging new paradigm in leadership that includes the need for skills in coordinating, facilitating, coaching, supporting, and nurturing. If society constructs leadership in a way that includes stereotypically feminine qualities, women will find greater acceptance in managerial ranks.

Rosser (2003) surveyed 1,950 faculty members (with 865 usable responses) at a major doctoral/research university to determine whether gendered differences exist in perceptions of deans as leaders. The results from her research revealed that participants perceived females as more effective than males as leaders in all leadership dimensions. In Rosser's view, this study "provides empirical evidence that women are far more reaching in their leadership abilities than previously portrayed (p. 77). She concluded that the barriers to opportunities for women to move into or obtain leadership positions may have a cultural basis. Although she believed that women and men may bring different qualities to their roles as leaders, she did not see males and females as differing in their abilities to achieve organizational goals.

Noting the upward trend in the proportion of females in management between 1984 and 1999, Powell, Butterfield & Parent (2002) examined whether the culture was moving away from the previously held view that effective managers possessed masculine characteristics (such as assertiveness, independence, and a willingness to take risks). They deduced from their research that while women are increasing in numbers in management, they are bringing a different set of characteristics to their managerial roles. A call for "feminine" characteristics in leadership (such as coaching and people skills as well as flexibility) may increase the attractiveness of women as organizational leaders.

Rosener (1990) surveyed male and female leaders and published her findings in her article, *Ways Women Lead*. She observed from her research that women who were successful in the management ranks often achieved their success because of – and not in spite of – their feminine characteristics. According to Rosener, men were more "transactional" in their style of leadership: they are more likely to exchange rewards or punishments for services rendered, and they are more likely to pursue positional power and formal authority. Women, however, are

more likely to elicit conformance from subordinates by generating concern for a broader goal. They do this, according to Rosener, by appealing to their own natural "charisma, interpersonal skills, hard work, or personal contacts" (p. 120). Rosener described this type of style as interactive leadership and she categorized this feminine approach to leadership as transformational leadership (p. 120).

The transformational leadership approach modified the previous socially constructed definition of leadership from one of authoritarian leadership (such as seen in transactional leadership) to leadership that is relationally oriented, which includes characteristics in congruence with femininity (Bass, 1991; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Carless, 1998; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen, 2003; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Vinkenburg, van Engen, Eagly, & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2011; Rowley, Houssain, & Barry; 2010).

Bass (1991), expressing his appreciation for Rosener's work in the *Ways Women Lead* article (1990), stated that Rosener's findings were consistent with his own research in which women scored higher than men on the transformational leadership factor. According to Bass, "for years we believed that women simply adapted to the male model to achieve the higher management levels. Rosener is to be complimented on providing data that suggest a new women's way may be emerging" (p. 153).

Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) found that communal traits of women, such as the focusing on the individual needs and the mentoring and development of subordinates, were more congenial to the ideals of transformational leadership. Similarly, Carless (1998) believed that women's tendencies for participative decision-making, collaboration, and quality interpersonal relationships made them more amenable to becoming transformational leaders.

According to Bass, Avolio & Atwater's research (1996), participants rated female leaders as generally more transformational than their male colleagues. Women and men who lead in aggressive, competitive, tough, and masterly ways created dissatisfaction for direct reports (Bass, Avolio, & Atwater, 1996). Those who lead in a caring manner received higher ratings from their subordinates. In general, the subordinates in this research saw women as less authoritarian, more developmentally oriented, and more concerned about moral and ethical issues. These characteristics align more closely with the transformational model.

The Role Congruity Theory may offer an explanation for why women tend to gravitate towards transformational leadership (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen, 2003). Women who aspire to obtain managerial positions have faced, and many have overcome, incalculable barriers to achieve their career objectives. Historically, society has viewed women as inherently lacking in the capabilities associated with responsible positions in the workforce. In becoming a transformational leader, women may be effective leaders without having to adopt masculine characteristics. By adopting a leadership style that aligns with effective leadership and is also congenial to feminine characteristics, women may be able to overcome role incongruity they previously experienced and be better able to attain positions in higher organizational levels.

Some researchers found that while women gravitate towards a transformational style, this type of leadership is not exclusively feminine. Yoder (2001), for example, found that transformational leadership was more congenial as a style for women with achievement aspirations, but rather than deeming it to be a strictly feminized model, she stated that men could also be effective transformational leaders. Bass, Avolio, & Atwater (1996) found that "male and female leaders do not differ on ratings of leadership that would suggest any disadvantages for

female leaders" and, in fact, "female leaders were rated no less, and generally more, transformational than their male counterparts" (p. 26).

Overall, Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) believed that women's practice of transformational leadership "has very favorable implications for women's increasing representation in the ranks of leaders" (p. 795). The prevalence of the transformational leadership style that is amenable to characteristics typically regarded as feminine in nature holds promise as a means for women to gain acceptance as organizational leaders.

Definitions of leadership that favor women but might hurt women.

Some researchers suggested that defining leadership with the idea that a woman's feminine traits provide a leadership advantage may actually harm women professionally for several reasons. For example, Pittinsky, Bacon & Welle (2007) suggested that women who may be promoted because of the belief that they possess communal traits, such as cooperation, warmth, nurturance, and gentility, may find themselves at a disadvantage if they apply for positions that do not require those specific traits. Additionally, they found that some view feminine traits and masculine traits to be mutually exclusive and may overlook the similarities between men and women if they are too focused on the differences. The authors believe that the similarities between the sexes are more prevalent than the differences and that discussions regarding effective leadership styles should be conducted in non-gendered terms.

Researchers Due Billing & Alvesson (2000) also saw drawbacks to an approach that claims that femininity offers an advantage to women in leadership. Such drawbacks may include the reinforcement of gender stereotypes, the promotion of women into relationally-oriented organizational spheres to the exclusion of traditional male technological and economic spheres, and the exploitation by organizations of women's perceived conflict resolution skills for the

purpose of tasking them with upholding policies that may be unpopular to the organization's employees. Powell (2011) agreed that women risk limitations in pursuing other interests if they face stereotypes that stress "feminine" skills such as social sensitivity or interpersonal skills. Organizations may funnel women into such fields as public relations or consumer affairs with less consideration given for areas such as finance, sales, or production. Further, when women do not fit the stereotypical model, their evaluations may reflect lower ratings.

Epstein (1991) stated that sex-typing should be minimized and women should be lauded for sex-neutral characteristics, such as intelligence, adaptability, and efficiency. Women and men alike can be transformational. "The category is 'people,' not 'men' and 'women,'" (p. 151).

Definitions of leadership that are gender-neutral.

Some researchers found no gender differences in their research. Researchers offered multiple reasons for why previous studies which found gender differences contradict their own findings that gender differences do not exist. For example, some researchers believe that studies conducted in organizational settings rather than laboratory studies are more likely to reflect reality than would an artificial environment and may therefore result in "no differences" findings. Also, some believe that gender characteristics overlap rather than form a dichotomy, which may decrease the likelihood of discovering absolute differences between the genders.

Powell (1990) conducted a review of literature which addressed gender differences in management. In his review, studies frequently compared task-oriented behavior (aligned with masculine characteristics, such as setting deadlines and standards) and people-oriented behavior (aligned with female characteristics, such as building subordinate self-confidence and soliciting input). Laboratory studies on these two behaviors showed gender differences, whereas studies conducted in actual organizational settings did not reveal gender differences. Powell obtained

similar results when he reviewed studies of subordinate responses to managers. Laboratory studies revealed gender differences which favored males as effective leaders, but studies in actual organizations did not reveal such gender differences. Powell suggested that laboratory studies control variables more effectively, but studies conducted within actual organizations provide more details about the managers involved. When looking at manager motivation, Powell found no gender differences in some studies and nonstereotypical differences in others. His evaluations of gender differences in management were inconclusive. Powell (1990) stated his review of literature "supports a 'no differences' view of sex differences in management," and he concluded that "there is not much difference in the needs, values, and leadership styles of male and female managers" (p. 4). In his view, organizations should disregard gender in hiring decisions (unless they are offsetting past discrimination), and they should minimize the construction of artificial gender differences. Powell (1990) recommends the promotion of women through granting access to the same advanced executive training programs which men attend.

From Vecchio's (2002) literature review of gender differences in leadership, claims made about gender advantage based on stereotypes are "overstated" (643). In order for claims of gender differences to be valid, according to Vecchio, clear-cut polarities must exist between the two sexes. Research shows, Vecchio believed, that an overlap exists in male and female characteristics. Vecchio also concluded that previous results of laboratory studies which revealed stereotypical differences may actually reflect artificial circumstances in which men and women felt compelled to affirm their own stereotypical roles. According to Vecchio, "strong claims of masculine or feminine advantage do not have the data to support them" (2002, p. 655). He attributed the absence of sex differences to societal and organizational dynamics. Societal factors

include society's acceptance of women in leadership positions and egalitarian socialization within the educational system. Organizational dynamics include homogeneous job incumbents due to the belief that certain people are attracted to certain positions, are selected by the employers, and are more likely to acclimate to certain organizational expectations.

When Morgan (2004) studied gender differences in a leadership program at a military academy, he found no statistically significant gender differences on most leadership dimensions. Differences within the genders surpassed the differences between the genders. Morgan chose to conduct this research because of the lack of research concerning women in military leadership positions. He concluded that it would be unnecessary to design separate leadership development training curriculum for the genders.

Osburn & Vicars (1976) conducted research to find out whether female managers behave differently than male managers towards subordinates and whether female managers have a different effect on subordinates than do male managers. To answer these questions, the authors studied mental health systems in the mid-west using questionnaires. Based on results of this study, the authors concluded that the sex of the leader does not have a significant effect on the behavior of the leader or of the satisfaction of the subordinates. They acknowledged these results stand in contradiction to the results of other studies that found sex differences. They deduced that their study showed no differences due to their methodology, which included a long-term field study in contrast to previous studies that were short-term laboratory situations. In their view, laboratory studies may create an artificial environment that yields results that reflect participant stereotypical expectations rather than a realistic reflection of behavior. Osborn & Vicars saw the lack of gendered differences in leadership as a promising indication that "women may eventually take their rightful place in American management as the administrative equals of men" (p. 447).

A survey of 385 public officials in Sweden, conducted by Andersen & Hansson (2011), found no significant differences between male and female managers in dimensions such as affiliation vs. power, task-orientation vs. people-orientation, and leadership behaviors. Any similarities and differences were not attributable to gender and appeared to be related to organizational differences. Andersen & Hannson considered their results to be a contribution to the "rising trend that emphasizes the need to help women and men move away from gender stereotypes" (p. 437).

Antonaros (2010) studied gender differences in a higher education context and found only mild and inconsistent results concerning perceptions of leadership perceptions and styles. The findings also revealed that transformational leadership was "a strong predictor of perceived leadership effectiveness" (p. 156). This finding, in Antonaros' view, indicated that, in light of related research that aligned transformational leadership with femininity, female leaders may benefit from utilizing transformational leadership as a leadership style. Women may, therefore, be better positioned to excel as leaders due to higher perceptions of leadership effectiveness.

Definitions of leadership that are contextually-based.

Relevant literature determined that "situations differ in whether they favor women or men as leaders" (Powell, 2011, p. 7). For example, Powell stated that his review of literature indicated a male advantage in male-intensive settings (such as military settings) or when there were a greater number of males in leadership and subordinate positions. On the other hand, women were more effective leaders in female-intensive settings, such as education, government, and social services. The research did not note contextual differences, however, in business settings.

Existing research also supports the idea that evaluations of leadership may be contextual in nature. In 1991, Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky determined that female leaders received negative evaluations if they held positions as leaders in a male-dominated industry. Heilman, et al., (2004) also found deleterious effects for women who faced evaluations in masculine domains. The reason for the negative evaluations, according to Rudman & Killansky, (2000), may be because, "a female may be disliked for 'stepping on a man's toes' or 'usurping a man's position in the hierarchy'" (p. 1325).

Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani (1995) found that, "leaders of each sex were more effective to the extent that they were in a leadership role regarded as congruent with their own gender or that was numerically dominated by their own sex" (p. 140). According to the authors, "women fared poorly in settings in which leadership was defined in masculine terms, especially military settings" (p. 140). Also, "Men fared slightly worse than women in settings in which leadership was defined in less masculine terms, especially in educational organizations and in governmental and social service organizations" (p. 140). Garcia-Retamero & Lopez-Zafra (2006) concluded that women faced biases in any industry that was not congruent with their gender roles. When they worked in a female-dominated industry, they received evaluations in parity with men. Van Engen et al. (2001) found no significant gender differences in leadership behavior among department managers in four different department stores. They found, however, leadership behaviors that were significant among the different stores, causing them to consider that differences in leadership behaviors are related to context rather than gender.

For some researchers, organizational stability provides the contextual basis. Ryan and Haslam (2007) proposed that female traits, such as creative thinking and good communication skills, make women particularly effective for organizations undergoing a period of instability.

They proposed a "think crisis—think female" perspective (p. 553). Female proclivities to be understanding, intuitive, and creative may make women particularly effective in an organization facing a crisis. The converse may also be true, according to Garcia and Lopez-Zafra (2006). For more stable organizations not facing a time of crisis, the researchers found a preference for male characteristics in leadership.

From Yoder's perspective, transformational leadership offers the idea that women in management can be in parity with men, particularly in contexts that are change-oriented as opposed to task-oriented, as this model "appears to work similarly for women and men leaders who choose to empower others (2001, p. 826). Women and men may be equally effective in unstable organizational environments if they as leaders promote an emphasis on the empowerment of the followers. (Yoder, 2001).

Historically, society has viewed positions of leadership as a masculine domain requiring stereotypical characteristics, such as dominance, competitiveness, and aggressiveness. Throughout the twentieth century, perspectives of effective leadership modified along with perspectives of women's roles and societal status. Whereas traditional research on gender and leadership consistently favored men, towards the end of the twentieth century, that understanding of leadership was no longer so clear. Researchers who studied leadership during the late 1900's in terms of gender with no particular leadership approach in mind found a variety of results: definitions of leadership that favor male characteristics or disfavor female characteristics, definitions of leadership favor female characteristics, definitions of leadership that are gender-neutral, or definitions of leadership that are contextually-based.

In conducting this particular research, it is important to narrow the scope to examine the effect of gender in regards to humanistic approaches, such as transformational leadership and

servant leadership. In the next section, I review literature that explores gendered differences in both transformational and servant leadership approaches.

Gender and Servant Leadership

A review of the historical perspective of leadership throughout the twentieth century provides a basis for understanding the emergence of both transformational and servant leadership in the latter part of the time period. Also, a review of the historical perspectives of women in the workplace and in positions of leadership in the 1900's provides a basis to understand women's increasing acceptance in such positions towards the end of the century and into the next. These historical perspectives of leadership and gender provide a foundation to study gender differences as they relate particularly to both transformational and servant leadership.

Multiple researchers examined the extent of gender differences in the implementation of transformational leadership with varying conclusions about whether feminine attributes help or hinder the advancement of women in the workplace. Some found that the practice of transformational leadership gave women an advantage (Rosener, 1990; Bass, 1991; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Carless, 1998; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen, 2003; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Vinkenburg, van Engen, & Eagly; 2011; Rowley, Houssain, & Barry; 2010). Other researchers determined that the practice of transformational leadership does not give either gender an advantage (Yoder, 2001; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Epstein, 1991). Such research concerning gender and servant leadership exists to a lesser extent.

Barbuto & Gifford (2008) conducted a study to determine the sex differences, if any, of follower's perceptions of their servant leaders. The authors used Barbuto & Wheeler's (2006) instrument, The Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ), which included five constructs for

servant leadership. From the five constructs, the authors delineated three constructs as communal (or feminine); altruistic calling, emotional healing, and organizational stewardship. They considered wisdom and persuasive mapping as agentic (or masculine) constructs. Sixty-five percent of the 462 participants in this study were females. The results of this research indicated that no gender differences existed in the application of communal or agentic characteristics. Females displayed wisdom and persuasive mapping, and males displayed altruistic calling, emotional healing, and organizational stewardship. According to this research, both genders are capable of overcoming stereotypic expectations within the servant leadership approach.

Beck (2010) used Barbuto & Wheeler's (2006) Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) in his doctoral dissertation and noted the impact of gender on the SLQ's five constructs. Beck found a significant difference for gender on three of the SLQ constructs: altruistic calling, emotional healing, and organizational stewardship, which are the three constructs classified as communal (or feminine) by Barbuto & Gifford (2008). The constructs classified as agentic (or masculine) did not show significant differences by gender.

While conducting research for his dissertation, the purpose of which was to define servant leadership and to develop a measurable instrument based on the definition (the Servant-Leader Organizational Assessment or SOLA), Laub (1999) included gender as one of his demographic variables. Laub used the Delphi method to formulate six servant leadership dimensions for his instrument, which included values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership. While conducting his research, his demographic variables included age and ethnic origin, as well as gender. His research results state that "no significant difference in mean SOLA scores was found between males and females" (p. 69). Goodwin (2011) used Laub's SOLA instrument in his dissertation

examining the presence of Servant Leadership within nonprofit organizations. He found no statistical differences between males and females on the subscales within Laub's instrument.

Braye (2000) used Laub's Servant Leadership Organizational Assessment in conducting her research. Her stated purpose was to "find out the degree to which servant leadership belief and practices exist in women-led businesses from the perspective of women in top leadership" (p. 5). The women Braye surveyed for this dissertation were not self-identified servant leaders. Braye used the six servant-leader constructs delineated in Laub's (1999) SOLA (values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership) for the measurements in her study. Three male business leaders were the benchmarks for seventy-eight female business leaders. Other variables included education and age. Braye's research found no significant differences in the beliefs and practices of female and male business leaders. Braye described the participants' levels of servant leadership beliefs and practices as "high" (p. 65), regardless of gender, age, education level, or years in the organization.

Jacobs (2011) examined the effects of servant leadership as a teaching style on student satisfaction at the university level. Her results determined that males and females did not differ on the perceived levels of servant leadership as a teaching style.

In response to what the authors regarded as a lack of empirical support for servant leadership, Washington, Sutton, & Feild (2006) sought to investigate the relationship between servant leadership and leaders' values, including empathy, integrity, competence, and agreeableness. Although gender was not specified as being a part of the research, the researchers found relevant gender-related results. Questionnaires served as the means of data collection. When analyzing the results, the authors unexpectedly found that there was a positive relationship between servant leadership and gender: The results found that females demonstrated a higher

level of servant leadership than did males. The authors presented gender and servant leadership as promising areas of future study.

Fridell, Belcher, & Messner (2009) developed their own Servant Leadership Styles Inventory (SSI) that incorporated traditional leadership styles and servant leadership styles within the survey. The purpose was to determine whether male and female public school principals differ in their implementation of traditional leadership styles and servant leadership. They found significant differences between men and women's usage of the servant leadership approach. While the results found that men were servant leaders, women were strong servant leaders in that they applied the servant leadership style more often than did men. The results also found no significant differences in perceptions of traditional leadership styles between men and women as the perceptions of both genders were weak in the use of traditional leadership styles.

While the research of Barbuto & Gifford (2008), Laub (1999), Goodwin (2011), Jacobs (2011), and Braye (2000) resulted in findings of no gender differences in Servant Leadership, Washington, Sutton & Feild (2008), Beck (2010), and Fridell, Belcher, & Messner (2009) conducted research that pointed towards possible gender differences.

In her article, *The Myth of Servant Leadership: A Feminist Perspective,* Deborah Eicher-Catt argues that the concept of aligning "servant" and "leader" together as a leadership model is unfeasible, and furthermore, is harmful to women. She reasoned that the juxtaposition of the words "servant" and "leader" leads to ambiguity due to the contradictory nature of the two words. "Servant" implies subjugation of one person to another, while "leader" suggests an authoritative position. The Servant-Leader is therefore in a position to interpret the term to mean what they choose and can promote a self-motivated agenda. According to Eicher-Catt, society aligns feminized leadership with emotions and feelings while society aligns masculinized

leadership with persuasion and foresight. At this time, males typically hold upper level organizational positions, and females hold predominantly middle to lower management levels. From Eicher-Catt's perspective, in this type of structure, those in upper-level positions assume "leadership" roles while encouraging those on middle to lower levels to assume "servant" roles. Because society sees women as displaying "feminized" leadership while seeing men as displaying "masculinized" leadership, Eicher-Catt believes that the "'de-gendering'" or 'de-feminization' of Servant Leadership will never be possible" (p. 19).

When studying gender and leadership from a general perspective unrelated to any particular leadership approach, the outcomes vary: some show that men have a leadership advantage; others show that women have a leadership advantage; at times, no differences exist between the genders; and, in some examples, gendered differences are contextual.

My literature review centering on relationally-oriented leadership approaches, such as servant leadership and transformational leadership, yields results that do not demonstrate the same level of variation. Studies concerning transformational leadership, which are more extensive than that of servant leadership, typically yield results that show that men and women are equally transformational or they show a feminine advantage. The results of research that studies gender and servant leadership look very similar. In some studies, the genders are equally proficient in their manifestations of servant leadership, and in others women were more proficient. The results found in this literature review appeared to diminish the probability of finding a masculine advantage in the gendered manifestation of servant leadership in this study. After considering this literature review, the likelihood of gender neutrality or a feminine advantage appeared to be greater.

Analysis of Literature Review

The many changes in women's roles and status that took place since the beginning of the twentieth century began with a women's movement that aimed to address cultural inequities between men and women. Through a feministic approach, women saw many cultural and legislative advances (workplace nondiscriminatory legislation such as the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the Equal Pay Act of 1964) and family-friendly policies (such as the Pregnancy Disability Act of 1978), which reflected a greater acceptance of women's presence in the workplace.

As the culture shifted, multiple researchers sought to determine the attributes most desirous for those in leadership. When definitions of leadership favored men and disfavored women (such as in autocratic/directive styles), women faced greater barriers to promotion to managerial positions (Schein, 1973 & 1975; Dubno, 1985; Sutton & Moore, 1985; Brenner, et al., 1989; Heilman, et al., 1989). As definitions of leadership emerged that favored women and were more congruent with the feminine role (such as democratic/participative styles), women were in a better position to advance in the workplace (Sharpe, 2000; Wachs, 2000; Wolfman, 2007; Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002; Rosener, 1990).

As the twentieth century moved into the twenty-first century, transitions in approaches to leadership and acceptance of women in leadership positions converged. Definitions of leadership included relationally-oriented characteristics and women found acceptance in managerial levels in greater numbers.

Transformational leadership emerged as an approach that received particular consideration in regards to gender and leadership. Researchers vary on their views of whether transformational leadership benefits women in leadership. Some postulate that transformational leadership constructs leadership in a way that is more congruent with the socially constructed

view of feminine characteristics (Bass, 1991; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Carless, 1998; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen, 2003; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Vinkenburg, van Engen, Eagly; & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2011; Rowley, Houssain, & Barry; 2010). Others say that both genders can be equally transformational (Yoder, 2001; Bass, Avolio, & Atwater, 1996; Epstein, 1991).

Some researchers have investigated possible gender differences in the practice of servant leadership. Several of the studies yielded results indicating that no gender differences exist (Barbuto & Gifford, 2008; Laub, 1999; Goodwin, 2011; Jacobs, 2011; Braye, 2000), while others indicated that the possibility that gender differences exists (Washington, Sutton & Feilds, 2006; Beck, 2011, and Fridell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009).

When placing attributes of servant leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership found in the literature alongside feminine and masculine attributes found in the literature (see Appendix, Table A5), the relationship between servant leadership, transformational leadership, and female attributes appears to be greater than the relationship between the same leadership approaches and male attributes. The varying results found among gendered studies of servant leadership and the comparison of attributes found in the literature (see Appendix, Table A6) appears to indicate that further investigation of the existence of gender differences in the implementation of servant leadership is warranted.

Conceptual Framework

The stated purpose of this research is to examine whether differences exist between males and females in self-reported servant leadership behaviors. The independent variable gender formed the major basis for this study of servant leadership behaviors (dependent variable). The conceptual framework presented in Figure 1 illustrates that effective servant leadership behaviors

are also moderated by individual and organizational effects as well as the education the servant leadership practitioner receives concerning this leadership approach.

An overarching theme in the literature reviewed for this research is convergence: the convergence beginning in the twentieth century and extending into the twenty-first century of the changing views of leadership with the changing status of women in the workforce. Research concerning a gendered view of servant leadership builds on historical and cultural perspectives of leadership approaches and the historical and cultural perspectives of the status of women in the workplace.

Through changes in perspectives of leadership during the 1900's, relationally-oriented approaches to leadership emerged. Servant leadership is an example of such an approach. In that same time period, women evolved in workplace status. Societal views depicted women as possessing relationally-oriented characteristics, such as affection, helpfulness, and kindness (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). As relationally-oriented approaches to leadership emerged, such as servant leadership, women found increasing acceptance as workplace leaders. Multiple researchers found that the emergence of the servant leadership approach may benefit women in that characteristics society classifies as feminine or relationally-oriented are congruent with characteristics society aligns with such an approach to leadership (Sharpe, 2000; Wachs, 2000; Rosser, 2003; Rosener, 1990; Bass, 1991; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Carless, 1998).

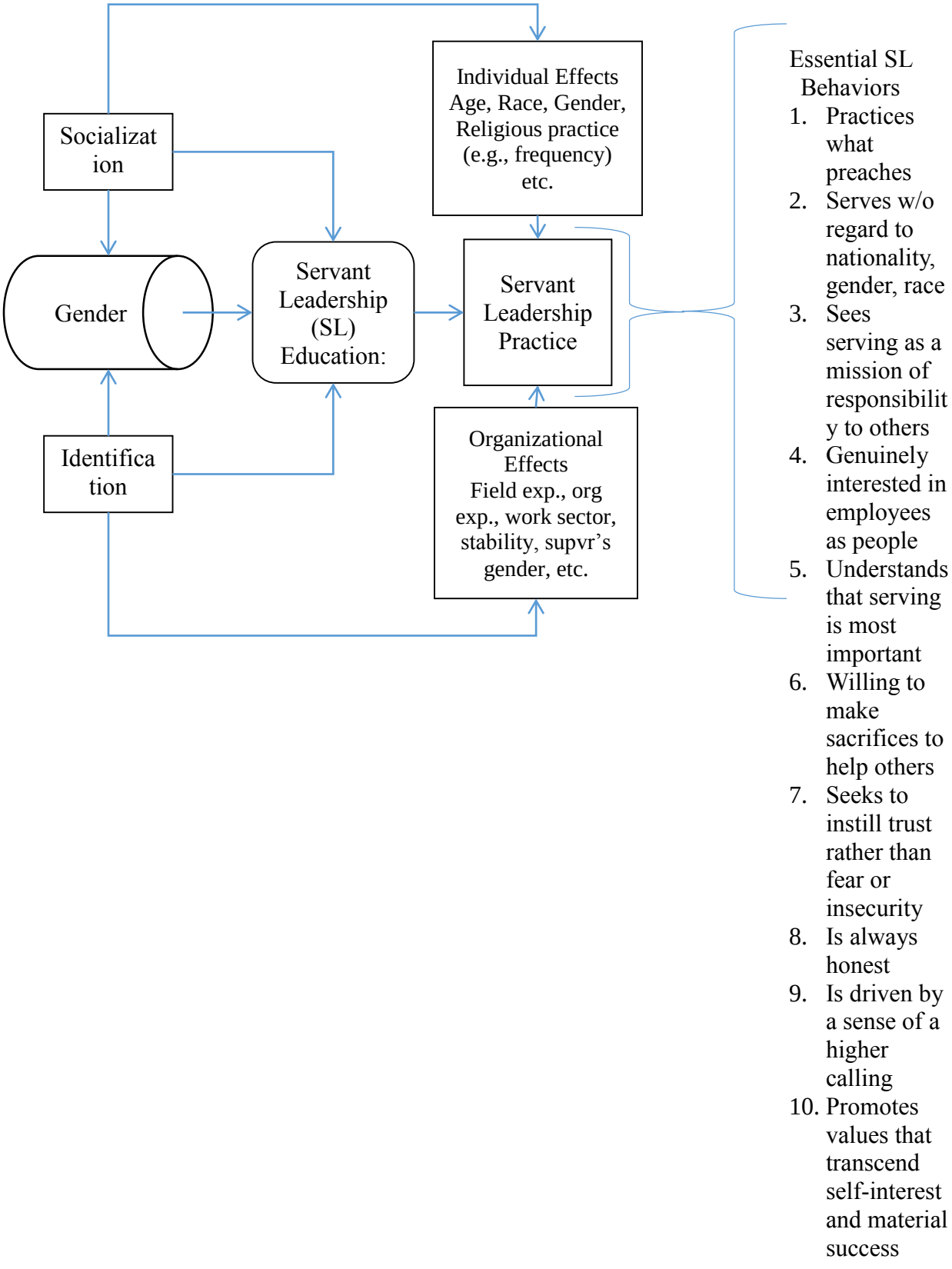

Figure 1. Conceptual framework.

While considering gender as a variable in the practice of servant leadership, other individual characteristics, such as age, race, and religious practice, may impact servant leadership implementation (as seen on Figure 1). This study considered age as an individual effect on servant leadership. Organizational factors may also impact servant leadership implementation. Such factors may include organizational stability, the number of years of managerial experience, and the workplace sector in which servant leadership is practiced; all of which were considered in this research (see Figure1).

The servant leader's understanding of what this approach entails may also have a bearing on how the practitioner implements this leadership style. No unilateral definition or theoretical framework of servant leadership currently exists (van Dierendonck, 2011). For purposes of conducting this research, participants were graduates of a Master of Science in Organizational Leadership program through a Christian college in southwestern Pennsylvania who received a specific understanding of servant leadership. In this study, the consistent foundation found in the MSOL program is one of the factors in the implementation of servant leadership (see Figure 1).

From the standpoint of a servant leader, this conceptual framework shows the relationships between multiple factors (gender, education, and individual and organizational effects) on the practice of servant leadership as expressed through Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors. By considering the impact of gender on each of the Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors, I am adding to existing literature that evaluates gendered differences in servant leadership behaviors.

Chapter Summary

The stated purpose of this study is to examine whether differences exist in the self-reported behaviors of male and female servant leaders. This chapter provides a literature review

of the history of leadership theory in general and servant leadership and transformational leadership in particular. This chapter also provides a literature review of a historical overview of women's struggles for equal rights and the changes in the status of women in the workplace. Overall, the literature provided a focus on the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-first century.

A review of literature may lead one to believe that relationally-oriented approaches to leadership, such as transformational leadership and servant leadership, are more congruent with feminine attributes than with masculine attributes. Several studies comparing gender differences in servant leadership yielded results that showed no differences (Barbuto & Gifford, 2008; Laub, 1999; Goodwin, 2011; Jacobs, 2011; and Braye, 2000) and others perceived statistically significant differences (Washington, Sutton & Field, 2008; Beck, 2010; and Fridell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009). Because multiple researchers found differing results in their studies, the evidence is inconclusive as to whether there is congruence between servant leadership and feminine attributes.

When placing a comparison of leadership styles alongside a comparison of gendered attributes (as seen in Appendix, Table A5), the relationship of servant leadership and transformational leadership with feminine attributes is greater than is a relationship of masculine attributes with those same approaches to leadership.

In light of this review, this study used the Winston & Fields (2012) Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors instrument to assist in the examination of whether gendered differences exist in servant leadership behaviors.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Chapter Introduction

This chapter provides information about the methodology for this research. Included in this section is the purpose for the research, the research question and hypotheses, the research design, data analysis, study limitations, and ethical considerations.

Purpose of Research

The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional research was to examine whether differences exist between males and females in their self-reported servant leadership behaviors. Additionally, the study examined whether age, years of leadership experience, workplace sector, and organizational stability are predictors of the perceived levels of servant leadership.

The literature proposes that leadership styles and the presence of women in the workforce have undergone an evolutionary process throughout the twentieth century, which converged toward the end of the century and continued into the twenty-first century. A belief that relationally-oriented leadership, such as servant leadership, may have a positive impact on organizational effectiveness emerged during that time (Autry, 2001).

Concurrently, women increased in numbers in the workplace during that period (Powell & Graves, 2003) and they found increasing acceptance in positions of leadership (Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2001). Women nevertheless continue to be underrepresented in upper levels of leadership (Carli & Eagly, 2011).

Literature addressing gender and servant leadership is minimal and inconclusive with some research finding no gender differences (Barbuto & Gifford, 2008; Laub, 1999; Goodwin, 2011; Jacobs, 2011; Braye, 2000) and other research finding gender differences (Washington,

Sutton & Feilds, 2006; Beck, 2011, and Fridell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009). When examining the attributes of servant leadership, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership in conjunction with literature describing feminine and masculine attributes (see Appendix, Table A5), feminine attributes appear to correlate more strongly with servant leadership than do masculine attributes. Additionally, the combination of servant leadership and transformational leadership attributes also seems to correlate with feminine attributes. The inconclusiveness found in the research suggests that further investigation into the question of whether gender differences exist in servant leadership behaviors is warranted.

Research Question and Hypotheses

In order to determine if differences exist between males and females in their servant leadership behaviors irrespective of age, number of years in leadership, workplace sector, and organizational stability, I used the following research question and hypotheses to conduct this research. The scale used for this research (Winston & Fields, 2012) measured servant leadership behaviors across ten behaviors. I used factor analysis to formulate an index measuring a one-dimensional measure of servant leadership.

Research Question.

Do differences exist between males and females in their self-reported servant leadership behaviors?

Hypotheses.

The research question presented above led to the formulation of five specific hypotheses as noted below:

H1: Statistically significant differences exist between females and males who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership.

H2: Statistically significant differences exist among persons who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership with respect to age.

H3: Statistically significant differences exist among persons who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership with respect to their number of years in leadership positions.

H4: Statistically significant differences exist among persons who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership with respect to their workplace sector.

H5: Statistically significant differences exist among persons who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership with respect to their perceived organizational stability.

I tested each of the above hypotheses in their null form using an Ordinary Least Squares multiple regression model.

Research Design

The chosen design of this research followed a post-positivist paradigm. Post-positivism builds on and modifies positivism, which purports the existence of an objective reality, uses a methodology of inductive verification, and holds that researchers remain independent of the object of the research and can approach the research impartially and without bias (Willis, 2007). While post-positivists also believe in the existence of an objective reality and pursue their

research in the most objective manner possible, they also recognize that researchers may be influenced by their own background or experiences. Post-positivism builds on Karl Popper's Theory of Falsification (Popper, 1959). According to Popper, it is impossible for research to "prove" a hypothesis; it is only possible to definitively disprove the hypothesis. A research design conducted in an effective manner will either prove the hypothesis is false or it will add evidence to the possibility that the hypothesis is true.

In conducting this study, I used statistical analysis and controls to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists between males and females in their servant leadership behaviors. By accepting or rejecting the null hypotheses, the results of this study contributes to the body of knowledge addressing the impact of gender on servant leadership.

This study used a survey to conduct quantitative, cross-sectional research. The primary goal was to investigate the gendered differences in servant leadership behaviors. All participants of this research were graduates of a Master of Science in Organizational Leadership program through a Christian liberal arts college in southwestern Pennsylvania. Although this approach may make the results of the study less generalizable to populations outside this educational background, this delimitation is offset by the strength of the participants' educational experiences, which includes a strong and consistent servant leadership curriculum and therefore a consistent foundation and understanding of servant leadership across all participants. This level of consistency aided in determining whether differences in gender (the primary independent variable) existed in self-reported behaviors of servant leadership behaviors (the dependent variable). To ensure these dimensions operate across this population, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis and used Cronbach's alpha to arrive at internally consistent indices. The dependent variables consisted of the defined factors, each based on an additive index and

representative of the measured servant leadership behaviors. I regressed the independent variables on each of the identified dimensions of servant leadership.

The following demographic variables served as possible predictor variables that contributed to variations in the levels of servant leadership as relevant to this particular study. These control variables include:

- Age of participant
    - 20 to 29
    - 30 to 39
    - 40 to 49
    - 50 to 59
    - 60 to 69
    - 70 or above
- Total number of years in leadership positions
    - Less than five years
    - Six to ten years
    - Eleven to fifteen years
    - Over fifteen years
- The sector in which the participant currently works (as delineated by Winston & Fields, 2012)
    - Commercial/business
    - Government/Military
    - Education
    - Religious

    - Non-profit
    - Healthcare
    - Other
- Organizational Stability
    - Period of organizational stability
    - Period of organizational change/crisis

Research Instrument

This research employed, by permission (see Appendix B), the use of the Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors instrument (Winston & Fields, 2012). Winston & Fields conducted research to develop this instrument to offer a list of behaviors that appropriately identify with the establishment of servant leadership.

Winston & Fields (2012) began their research by asking 23 specialists in Servant Leadership to rate 116 items drawn from constructs found on existing servant leadership models in regards to the construct's usefulness in describing servant leadership. The specialists gave 22 of the 116 items ratings of 3.5 and above on a scale in which 1 equals "not useful in describing servant leaders" and 4 equals "contributes greatly to describing servant leaders" (p. 14). The authors retained the highest rated items for further analysis. They established reliability by providing the 22 items in a questionnaire to 456 students and faculty at a mid-Atlantic university, university alumni, and colleagues (Fields & Winston, n.d.). The study yielded 443 usable responses. After obtaining the results from the responses, they conducted exploratory factor analysis on the twenty-two servant leadership items rated most highly by the specialists. Factor analysis resulted in a list of Winston & Fields' Essential Servant Leadership Characteristics as follows:

1. Practices what he/she preaches
2. Serves people without regard to their nationality, gender, or race
3. Sees serving as a mission of responsibility to others
4. Genuinely interested in employees as people
5. Understands that serving others is most important
6. Willing to make sacrifices to help others
7. Seeks to instill trust rather than fear or insecurity
8. Is always honest
9. Is driven by a sense of higher calling
10. Promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success. (Winston & Fields, 2012, p. 35)

Winston & Fields (2012) established validity by examining the relationships of the essential servant leadership behaviors with the seven-dimension servant leadership model developed by Liden, et al. (2008) and by conducting confirmatory factor analysis of the essential servant leadership behaviors, transformational leadership (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, and inspirational motivation) and transactional leadership.

Data Source

This study used a nonprobability, purposive sampling method (Babbie, 2008). The participants were not randomly selected, and they are a subset of a larger population. Specifically, the participants are alumni of a Master's of Science in Organizational Leadership program at a Christian liberal arts college in southwestern Pennsylvania. I included the years from the program's inception in 1995 to the most current graduates for whom the college

maintains email contact information. I had approximately 500 email addresses available to me from the college's contact records for use in this research.

All participants have a Master's Degree or beyond. This group of participants is familiar with servant leadership as a leadership approach. Information about the MSOL program curriculum is available in Appendix C.

Data Collection and Analysis

A designated college official sent a cover letter and online survey through email to each study participant for the purpose of data collection. The use of random numbers rather than participant names concealed the identities of the respondents. I recorded the results of the data collection in a spreadsheet and downloaded the data into Stata statistical software for statistical analysis.

In order to explore whether statistically significant differences exist between males and females who are educated in and practitioners of Servant Leadership, I used multiple regression to conduct my statistical analysis. Male and female will make up a dummy variable and will be inserted into an ordinary least squares regression model along with the other variables (age, number of years in leadership positions, workplace sector, and organizational stability). I conducted multivariate analyses using ordinary least squares regression, and I critiqued the models using regression criticism techniques. The standard 95% confidence level determined the existence of significant differences (Weinbach & Grinnell, 2007).

Ethical Considerations

In conducting this research, I ensured the protection of human subjects through adherence to the policies and procedures of the Institution Review Board (IRB) of Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

At the time of the request for participation, I informed all participants of their rights as participants. I advised each individual of the purpose of the study and the manner in which I will use the results. I also informed the participants that participation is voluntary and that they have the option of not participating or withdrawing at any time with no consequences. The method of data collection (completing a survey) posed no threat of harm to participants. When collecting data from the research participants, I protected the privacy of each individual through the substitution of names with random numbers. In that way, no association exists between the name of the participant and the responses given on that participants' individual survey.

As stated in my positionality statement, I approached this research as an advocate and practitioner of servant leadership and as a female with a personal interest in the advancement of women in the workplace. I am aware of personal biases that may arise from this standpoint. Conducting quantitative research assisted in reducing the possibility of subjectivity in statistical analysis of the data. At the same time, the fact that I have life experience as a female manager who has studied and practiced servant leadership affords me greater knowledge and insight in which to conduct research pertaining to gendered differences in servant leadership.

Conclusion

The purpose of this doctoral research is to determine whether differences exist between males and females in their self-reported servant leadership behaviors. This research used online survey tools to conduct a quantitative, cross-sectional design. Winston & Fields (2012) developed the Essential Servant Leadership Characteristics survey that I used in this study. The results of this study contributes to existing literature concerning the relationship between gender and servant leadership.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Chapter Overview

This chapter analyzes data obtained through a survey of graduates of the Master of Science in Organizational Leadership (MSOL) program at a Christian liberal arts college in western Pennsylvania. Details about the participants in this study are provided in Table 1. I used Survey Monkey software to distribute the online survey on December 10, 2013. Follow-up surveys were emailed to participants on December 18, 2013, January 8, 2014, and January 27, 2014. I used Stata software, version 13, to analyze the collected data.

Demographics and Missing Values

Overall, 502 MSOL graduates were contacted, 157 surveys were fully completed, and three surveys were partially completed for a response rate of 32% for all responses and 31% for completed responses. Although 160 participants responded to the survey, three of the participants did not complete the entire survey. One respondent skipped all servant leadership behavior questions, but answered the rest of the survey. One respondent answered all questions except the organizational change/stability question. One respondent answered the gender question only. The 158 participants who answered the essential servant leadership behaviors questions responded to all ten questions.

Variable Generation

Independent variables.

Gender was the primary focus of this research. This study also considered age, years of supervision, work sector, and whether the organization was in a period of change or stability.

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages of Participants' Characteristics

Participant Characteristics (IV)	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	63	39.4
Female	97	60.6
Age		
20 to 29	2	1.3
30 to 39	28	17.6
40 to 49	47	29.6
50 to 59	58	36.5
60 to 69	24	15.1
70+	0	0.0
Years as Supervisor		
One year or less	12	7.6
Two to five years	22	13.8
Six to ten years	35	22.0
Eleven to fifteen years	31	19.5
Over fifteen years	59	37.1
Work Sector		
Commercial/Business	56	35.2
Government/Military	18	11.3
Education	27	17.0
Religious	7	4.4
Nonprofit	23	14.5
Healthcare	20	12.6
Other	8	5.0
Organizational Change/Stability		
Period of organizational stability	77	48.7
Period of organizational change	81	51.3

Table 1 shows the frequency and percentage of responses of the individual participant characteristics. Thirty-nine percent of the respondents were male, and sixty-one percent were female. Because only two of the participants were in the 20-29 age group, I combined this group

with the 30-39 age group to become a group named “20 to 39.” The response rate for both the religious sector and other sector was low, so I combined the two groups into a Religious/Other group for the purposes of this research paper.

Dependent Variable.

The behaviors on the Essential Servant Leadership scale served as the dependent variables in this study. I conducted factor analysis to discern whether the Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale measures could be aggregated. The analysis confirmed that the Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale measured one dimension. As shown in 87, the eigenvalue of factor 1 was 3.43. As noted in the scree plot (Figure 2), this was the only eigenvalue greater than one and the proportion of variability showed that this factor accounted for 94%. Table 2 highlights the factor loadings. The high loadings suggest aggregating all ten of these survey responses into a single multi-item servant leadership scale for use as the dependent variable.

Table 2

Factor Analysis With Eigenvalues

Factor	Eigenvalue	Difference	Proportion	Cumulative
1	3.43214	2.94347	0.9444	0.9444
2	0.48867	0.27648	0.1345	1.0788
3	0.21219	0.06994	0.0584	1.1372
4	0.14225	0.08615	0.0391	1.1764
5	0.05610	0.03765	0.0154	1.1918
6	0.01846	0.11230	0.0051	1.1969
7	-0.09384	0.04305	-0.0258	1.1710
8	-0.13689	0.07554	-0.0377	1.1334
9	-0.21243	0.05988	-0.0585	1.0749
10	-0.27232		-0.0749	1.0000

The screeplot (Figure 2) confirms the strong first factor:

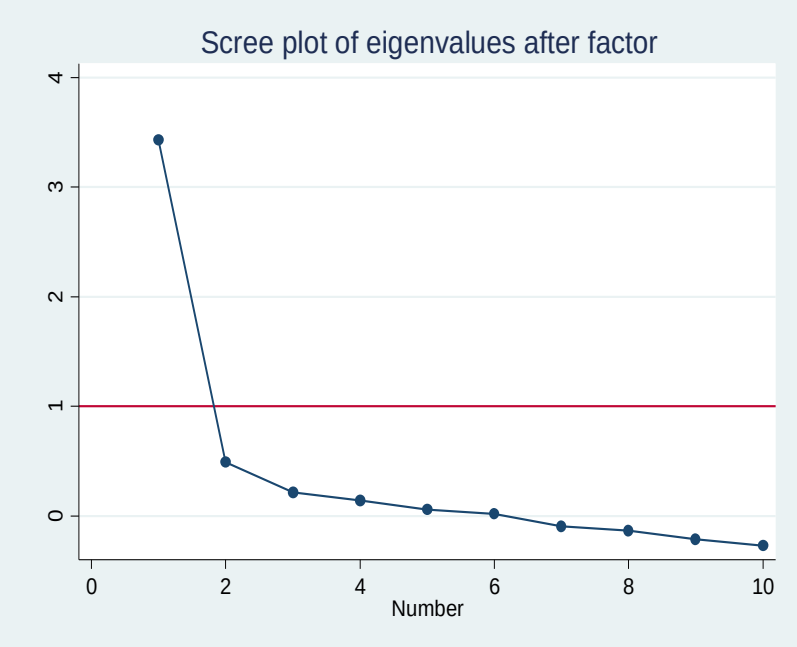

Figure 2. Screeplot showing strong first factor.

Internal consistency.

Next, I used Cronbach's Alpha to check for internal consistency on the Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale. The results reside in Table 3. The alpha coefficient for the ten survey items of self-reported behaviors is .82, which provides evidence for a relatively high level of internal consistency for exploratory research (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). While some of the item-test and item-rest correlations were low, no compelling theoretical reason exists for dropping the items and only one value slightly increases the alpha. I therefore chose to keep all ten items in the multi-item scale as suggested within the literature (Winston & Fields, 2012). However, whereas Winston & Fields (2012) suggested ten dimensions of servant leadership existed, for this population and sample, only one factor emerged. The sample used for this study was comparatively homogeneous, which may explain the difference in the dimensions.

Table 3

Cronbach's Alpha

Item	Average Interitem Covariance	Alpha
Practices what he/she preaches	.1275666	0.8035
Serves people without regard to nationality, gender, or race	.1376426	0.8182
Sees serving as a mission of responsibility to others	.1247268	0.8124
Genuinely interested in employees as people	.1248903	0.7984
Understands that serving others is most important	.1146127	0.7874
Willing to make sacrifices to help others	.1261803	0.8012
Seeks to instill trust rather than fear or insecurity	.1338576	0.8093
Is always honest	.1225163	0.8003
Is driven by a sense of higher calling	.1161939	0.7953
Promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success	.1304601	0.8300
Test Scale	.1258647	0.8219

Note. Test scale = mean (unstandardized items).
Note. Items based on Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale (Winston & Fields, 2012, p. 35).

Because factor analysis confirmed that the ten behaviors on the Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale represent one dimension, I summed the ten behaviors into one dependent variable (slv).

Regression Analysis

The results of regression analysis are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Regression of Categorical Predictor Variables on the Unidimensional Servant Leadership Variable

Variable	Coef.	Std. Err. Error	t	*p*	95% Confidence Interval
Gender	-0.444	0.681	-0.65	0.515	[-1.79, 0.91]
Age					
40 to 49	2.170	0.964	2.25	*0.026	[0.26, 4.08]
50 to 59	3.339	0.942	3.54	*0.001	[1.48, 5.20]
60 to 69	3.102	1.159	2.68	*0.008	[0.81, 5.39]
Years of Supervision					
Two to five years	0.614	1.459	0.42	0.675	[-2.27, 3.50]
Six to ten years	1.172	1.377	0.85	0.396	[-1.55, 3.89]
Eleven to fifteen years	1.482	1.439	1.03	0.305	[-1.36, 4.33]
Over fifteen years	1.255	1.382	0.91	0.365	[-1.48, 3.99]
Work Sector					
Government/Military	0.698	1.043	0.67	0.504	[-1.36, 2.76]
Education	0.906	0.919	0.99	0.326	[-0.91, 2.72]
Religious/Other	3.323	1.119	2.97	*0.004	[1.11, 5.54]
Nonprofit	1.255	0.994	1.26	0.209	[-0.71, 3.22]
Healthcare	2.321	1.024	2.27	*0.025	[0.30, 4.34]
Organizational Change/Stability					
Pd. Org. Change/crisis	0.146	0.602	0.24	0.809	[-1.05, 1.34]
Constant	40.986	1.444	28.38	0.000	[38.13, 43.84]
R-squared .19					
Prob > F .00					
Root MSE 3.70					

Note. * indicates significant at the $p < .05$ level.

The regression analysis indicated that age and occupation groups exhibited modest but statistically significant differences in Servant Leadership Values. All of the older age groups had a higher affirmation of servant leadership values than the youngest age 20-39 group. The

Religious/Other and Healthcare sectors were statistically significantly higher indicating a tendency to affirm servant leadership values more than respondents employed in other sectors. In the sample collected, there was no evidence of differences in the overall affirmation of servant leadership values between males and females after controlling for differences across age and work-sector. Similarly, there were no statistically significant differences based on the years of supervisory experience, and the perceptions of organizational stability.

Next, I examined the data set to test for the validity of the assumptions used to analyze the data.

In Figure 3, a residuals versus fitted values plot showed evidence of heterskedasticity. Figure 3 also shows evidence of the existence of an outlier.

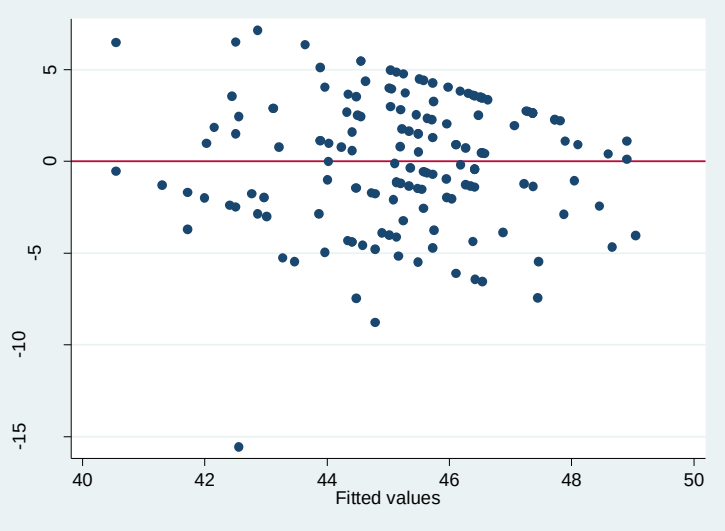

Figure 3. Residuals versus fitted value plot showing heteroskedasticity.

In Figure 4, the leverage, or influence of the observations on the regression results, were plotted against the normalized residuals. It showed that the outlier, while a poor fit, was not exerting a high degree of leverage.

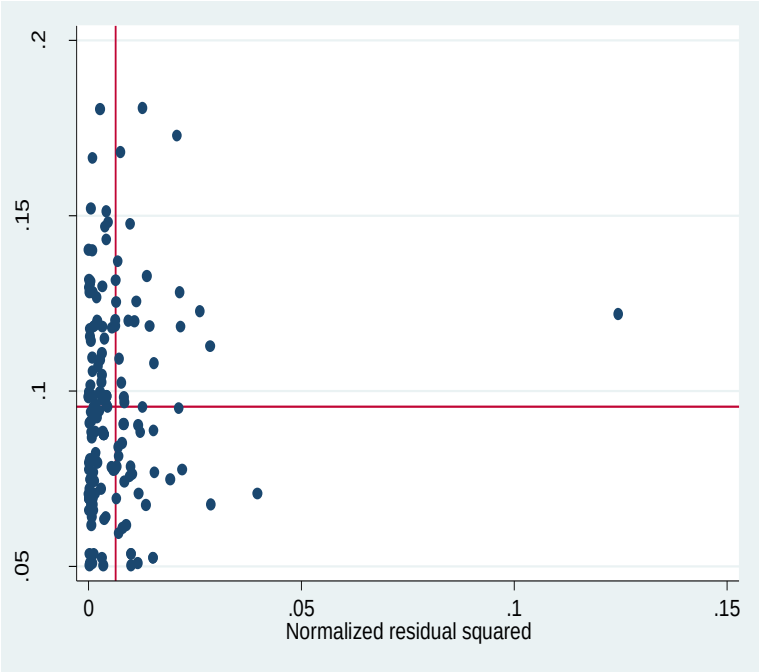

Figure 4. Leverage versus fitted values plot showing outlier.

The low leveraging effect of the outlier was confirmed through the regression analysis reported in Table 5, which resulted in similar results after dropping the outlying case. The R-squared did not change much. It was 0.192 with the outlier and .194 without the outlier. The adjusted r-squared was 0.112 with the outlier and 0.114 without the outlier. The p values did not change. Age and work sector remained significant in both regressions.

Table 5

Regression of Categorical Predictor Variables on the Unidemensional Servant Leadership Variable Without Outlier

Variable	Coef.	Std. Err. Error	t	*p*	95% Confidence Interval
Gender	-0.226	0.634	-0.36	0.722	[-1.48, 1.03]
Age					
40 to 49	1.499	0.907	1.65	0.101	[-0.29, 3.29]
50 to 59	2.708	0.866	3.06	*0.003	[0.96, 4.46]
60 to 69	2.528	1.084	2.33	*0.021	[0.38, 4.67]
Years of Supervision					
Two to five years	0.613	1.357	0.45	0.652	[-2.07, 3.29]
Six to ten years	1.915	1.289	1.49	0.139	[-0.63, 4.46]
Eleven to fifteen years	1.639	1.339	1.22	0.223	[-1.01, 4.29]
Over fifteen years	1.612	1.286	1.25	0.212	[-0.93, 4.16]
Work Sector					
Government/Military	1.724	0.993	1.74	0.085	[-0.24, 3.69]
Education	0.848	0.855	0.99	0.323	[-0.84, 2.54]
Religious/Other	3.416	1.041	3.28	*0.001	[1.36, 5.47]
Nonprofit	1.104	0.925	1.19	0.235	[-0.72, 2.93]
Healthcare	2.320	0.952	2.44	*0.016	[0.44, 4.20]
Organizational Change/Stability					
Pd. Org. Change/crisis	0.360	0.562	0.64	0.523	[-0.75, 1.47]
Constant	40.949	1.342	30.50	0.000	[38.29, 43.60]
R-squared	.19				
Prob > F	.00				
Root MSE	3.43				

Note. * indicates significant at the $p < .05$ level.

A residuals versus fitted values plot (Figure 5) shows that when I drop the outlier and run the regression, I still have evidence of heteroskedasticity.

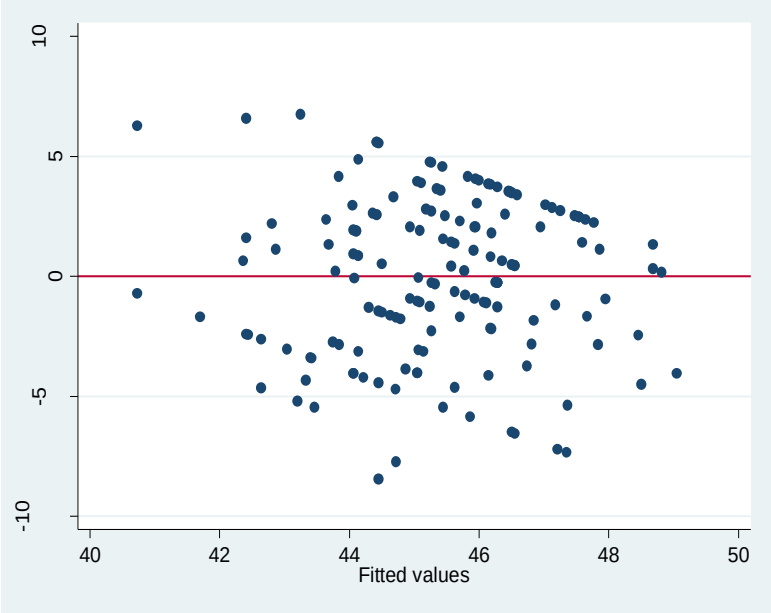

Figure 5. Residuals versus fitted values plot showing heteroskedasticity without the outlier.

The histogram in Figure 6 shows a non-normal distribution. The likely cause of the non-normality is that more than 20% of the participants responded with a definitely yes to all or most of the ten servant leadership behaviors.

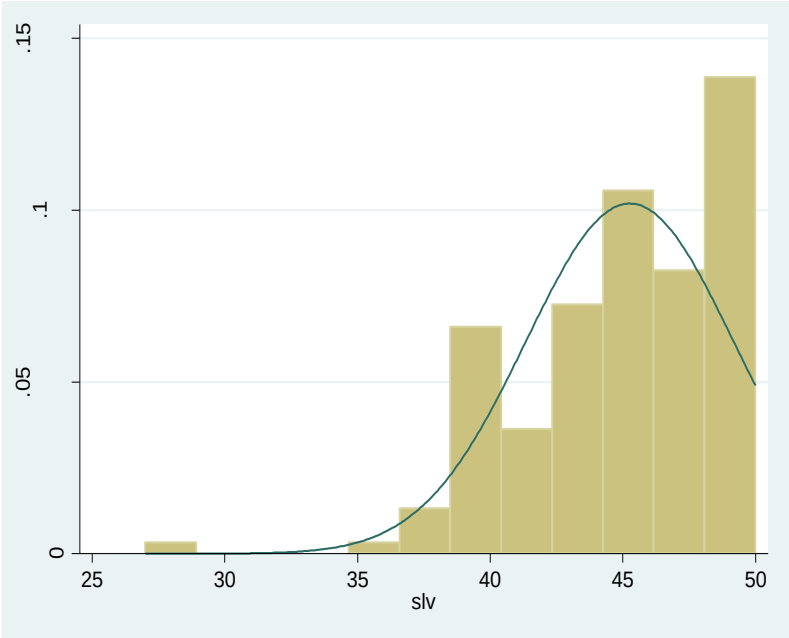

Figure 6. Histogram showing non-normal distribution.

I conducted tests to see if a transformation of the dependent variable by taking various powers would result in a more normal distribution. Likely due to the high percent found at the highest possible value, the power transformations were also not normal. The result that was closest to normal was a transformation to the power of 6, a transformation which arguably loses intuitive meaning, but, as shown in Figure 7, the histogram of the transformed variable, while more symmetrical, continued to show a non-normal distribution.

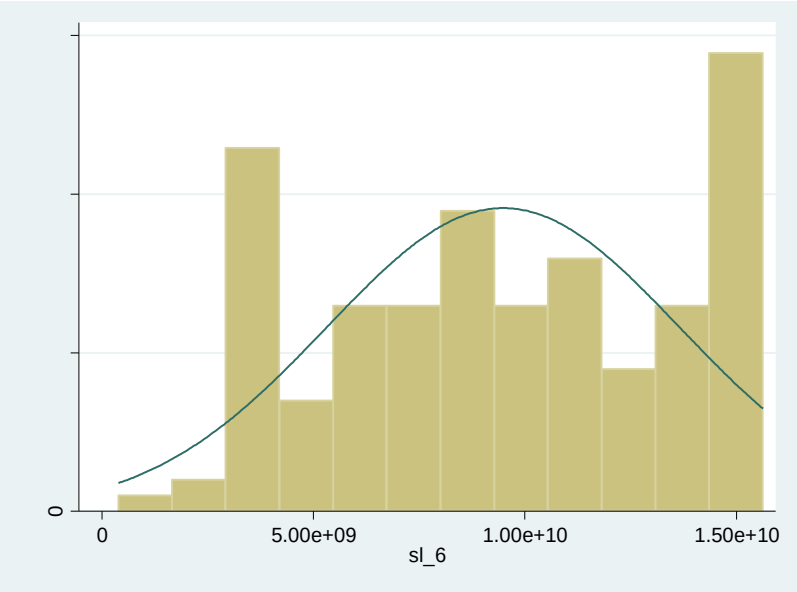

Figure 7. Histogram showing non-normal distribution after transformation to the power of 6.

Additionally, I ran a regression analysis, using as the dependent variable the sixth power of original dependent variable. Its results are reported in Table 6. Using the transformed variable did not vary much from the previous results. The r-squared without the transformation was 0.192 and 0.190 in the regression with a transformed variable.

Table 6

Regression of Transformed Dependent Variable on Independent Variables

Variable	Coef.	Std. Err. Error	t	*p*	95% Confidence Interval
Gender	-2.51e+08	7.26e+08	-0.35	0.730	[-1.69e+.09, 1.18e+09]
Age					
40 to 49	2.04e+09	1.03e+09	1.98	*0.050	[4290165, 4.07e+09]
50 to 59	3.10e+09	1.01e+09	3.08	*0.002	[1.11e+09, 5.09e+09]
60 to 69	3.00e+09	1.24e+09	2.43	*0.017	[5.55e+08, 5.45e+09]
Years of Supervision					
Two to five years	6.48e+08	1.56e+09	0.42	0.678	[-2.43e+09, 3.73e+09]
Six to ten years	1.64e+09	1.47e+09	1.12	0.266	[-1.26e+09, 4.54e+09]
Eleven to fifteen years	1.82e+09	1.54e+09	1.19	0.237	[-1.21e+09, 4.86e+09]
Over fifteen years	1.64e+09	1.47e+09	1.11	0.267	-[1.27e+09, 4.56e+09]
Work Sector					
Government/Military	1.43e+09	1.11e+09	1.28	0.201	[-7.71e+08, 3.63e+09]
Education	7.24e+08	9.81e+08	0.74	0.462	[-1.22e+09, 2.66e+09]
Religious/Other	3.86e+09	1.19e+09	3.23	*0.002	[1.50e+09, 6.22e+09]
Nonprofit	1.37e+09	1.06e+09	1.29	0.199	[-7.27e+09, 3.47e+09]
Healthcare	2.76e+09	1.09e+09	2.52	*0.013	[5.97e+08, 4.91e+09]
Organizational Change/Stability					
Pd. Org. Change/crisis	4.14e+08	6.43e+08	0.64	0.521	[-8.58e+08, 1.69e+09]
Constant	4.61e+09	1.54e+09	2.99	0.003	[1.56e+09, 7.65e+09]
R-squared .19					
Prob > F .01					
Root MSE 3.9e+09					

Note. * indicates significant at the p < .05 level.

Furthermore, a residuals versus fitted values plot shown in Figure 8 confirmed that the transformed variable did not change the pattern depicted in the residuals plot, indicating the need for another solution.

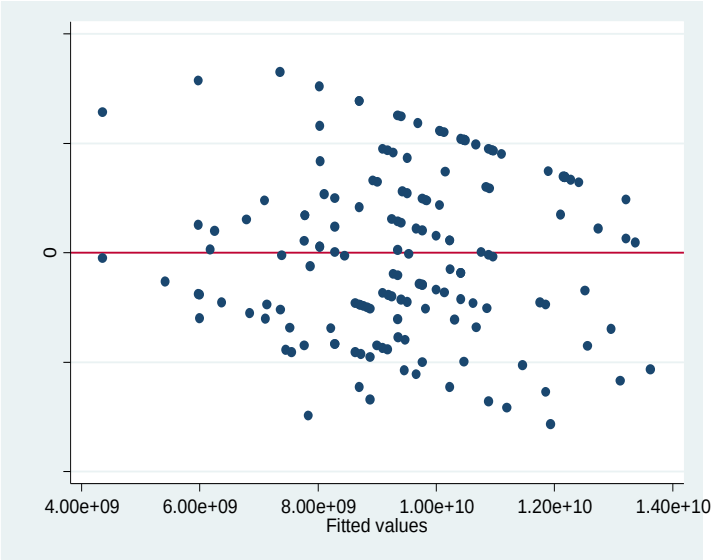

Figure 8. Residuals versus fitted values plot showing effect of transformed variable.

Because of the non-normality in the errors, I used a regression with robust standard errors employing the Huber-White Sandwich Estimator (Hamilton, 1992). The results from this model reside in Table 7. I saw little change from the previous results. The 40-49 year-old age group was no longer statistically significantly different from 20-39 year-old age group at the five percent level for a two-sided hypothesis.

Table 7

Regression With Standard Errors Using the Huber White Sandwich Estimator

Variable	Coef.	Std. Err. Error	t	*p*	95% Confidence Interval
Gender	-0.4439	0.6570	-0.68	0.500	[-1.74, 0.85]
Age					
40 to 49	2.1702	1.1334	1.91	*0.058	[-0.07, 4.41]
50 to 59	3.3393	1.0271	3.25	*0.001	[1.31, 5.37]
60 to 69	3.1020	1.2865	2.41	*0.017	[0.56, 5.65]
Years of Supervision					
Two to five years	0.6136	1.4834	0.41	0.680	[-2.32, 3.55]
Six to ten years	1.1722	1.5724	0.75	0.457	[-1.94, 4.28]
Eleven to fifteen years	1.4822	1.5841	0.94	0.351	[-1.65, 4.61]
Over fifteen years	1.2545	1.4801	0.85	0.398	[-1.67, 4.18]
Work Sector					
Government/Military	0.6984	1.4262	0.49	0.625	[-2.12, 3.52]
Education	0.9058	0.8172	1.11	0.270	[-0.71, 2.52]
Religious/Other	3.3230	0.9660	3.44	*0.001	[1.41, 5.23]
Nonprofit	1.2549	0.9739	1.29	0.200	[-0.67, 3.18]
Healthcare	2.3214	0.9490	2.45	*0.016	[0.45, 4.20]
Organizational Change/Stability					
Pd. Org. Change/crisis	0.1460	0.5860	0.25	0.804	[-1.01, 1.30]
Constant	40.9858	1.5058	27.22	0.000	[38.01, 43.96]
R-squared	.19				
Prob > F	.00				
Root MSE	3.70				

Note. * indicates significant at the $p < .05$ level.

In the next step, the variance inflation factors (VIFs) for the independent variables were calculated to test for the presence of near multi-collinearity or a loss of power due to strong similarities across independent variables or groups of independent variable. To do this I ran a regression in which I treated the categorical variables as continuous variables. Keeping them as categorical variables would most likely show multicolinearity simply due to the relatedness

across variable categories. The VIFs from the robust regression analysis run in this manner are reflected in Table 8.

Table 8

Variance Inflation Factors

Variable	VIF	1/VIF
Gender	1.22	0.82
Age	1.26	0.80
Years of Supervision	1.33	0.75
Work Sector		
Government/Military	1.19	0.84
Education	1.29	0.78
Religious	1.16	0.86
Nonprofit	1.34	0.75
Healthcare	1.24	0.80
Period of Stability/Change	1.03	0.97
Mean VIF	1.23	

Figure 8 indicated deviation from the normal i.i.d. error assumption. Table 8 showed reasonable variance inflation factors. In the final model, I chose to use a multiple regression model that used robust standard errors by employing the Huber-White sandwich estimator (Hamilton, 1992), as seen in Table 7.

Due to the inclusion of categorical variables in the model, I used Fisher's Protected Least Significant Difference (LSD) to further explore significant differences within these variables. The results shown in Table 9 affirmed that it was highly unlikely that the true levels of affirmation of servant leadership values among the age groups and work-sector groups were the same. Statistically significant differences existed among age and work-sector groups.

Table 9

Contrasts of Marginal Linear Predictions

Variable	Degrees of Freedom	F	P > F
Gender	1	0.46	0.5004
Age	3	3.97	0.0094
Years of Supervision	4	0.31	0.8721
Work Sector	5	2.79	0.0196
Organizational Change/Stability	1	0.06	0.8036
Denominator	142		

Next, a margins (Table 10) and a marginsplot (Figure 9) both show the predicted values of all of the age groups compared to each other. All of the three older age groups were significantly higher in their affirmation of servant leadership values than the youngest age group, but they were not that different when compared with one another. Although the .058 p-value was just slightly above the cutoff for significance at the 95% confidence level, given the somewhat inflated standard error for the 20-39 age group suggests that acting as though this relationship was significant is reasonable.

Table 10

Margins Table Showing Predicted Values of Ages Compared With One Another

	Delta Method		Unadjusted		Unadjusted
Age	Contrast	Std. Err.	t	p>|t|	[95% Conf. Interval]
40 to 49 vs. 20 to 39	2.1702	1.3343	1.91	**0.058	[-0.07, 4.41]
50 to 59 vs. 20 to 39	3.3393	1.0271	3.25	*0.001	[1.31, 5.37]
60 to 69 vs. 20 to 39	3.1020	1.2865	2.41	*0.017	[0.56, 5.65]
50 to 59 vs. 40 to 49	1.1691	0.6983	1.67	0.096	[-0.21, 2.55]
60 to 69 vs. 40 to 49	0.9319	0.9635	0.97	0.335	[-0.97, 2.84]
60 to 69 vs. 50 to 59	-0.2373	0.8767	-0.27	0.787	[-1.97, 1.50]

Note. *, ** indicates significant at the p < .05 and p < .01 level, respectively.
Conf. Interval I = Confidence Interval.

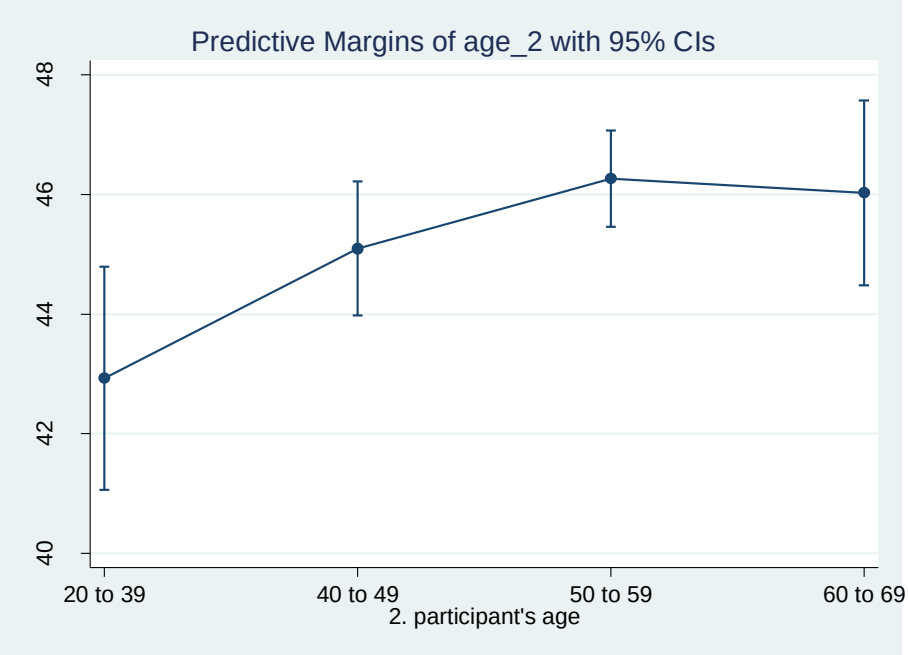

Figure 9. Marginsplot showing predicted values of age group comparisons with confidence intervals.

I conducted a similar margins analysis for the work-sector groups. The results are shown in Table 11. The respondents in the Religious/Other sector and the Healthcare sector did have the highest tendency to affirm servant leadership values. The lowest tendency were those employed in the Commercial/Business sector, but the other sectors, including Government/Military, Education and Nonprofit, were not that far above the Commercial/Business sectors.

Table 11

Margins Table Showing Predicted Values of Work Sectors Compared With One Another

	Delta Method		Unadjusted		Unadjusted
Work Sector	Contrast	Std. Err.	t	p>|t|	[95% Conf. Interval]
Govt./Mil. vs. Comm./Bs.	0.6984	1.4262	0.49	0.625	[-2.12, 3.52]
Educ. vs. Comm./Bs.	0.9058	0.8172	1.11	0.270	[-0.71, 2.52]
Rel./Other vs. Comm./Bs.	3.3230	0.9660	3.44	0.001	[1.41, 5.23]
Nonprofit vs. Comm./Bs.	1.2549	0.9739	1.29	0.200	[-0.67, 3.18]
Healthcare vs. Comm./Bs.	2.3214	0.9490	2.45	0.016	[0.45, 4.20]
Educ. vs. Govt./Mil.	0.2074	1.4918	0.14	0.890	[-2.74, 3.16]
Rel./Other vs. Govt./Mil.	2.6246	1.5069	1.74	0.084	[-0.35, 5.60]
Nonprofit vs. Govt./Mil.	0.5565	1.6279	0.34	0.733	[-2.66, 3.77]
Healthcare vs. Govt./Mil.	1.6231	1.5624	1.04	0.301	[-1.47, 4.71]
Rel./Other vs. Educ.	2.4172	1.0698	2.26	0.025	[0.30, 4.53]
Nonprofit vs. Educ.	0.3491	0.9799	0.36	0.722	[-1.59, 2.29]
Healthcare vs. Educ.	1.4156	1.0556	1.34	0.182	[-0.67, 3.50]
Nonprofit vs. Rel./Other	-2.0681	1.1863	-1.74	0.083	[-4.41, 0.28]
Healthcare vs. Rel./Other	-1.0015	1.0912	-0.92	0.360	[-3.16, 1.16]
Healthcare vs. Nonprofit	1.0666	1.1668	0.91	0.362	[-1.24, 3.37]

Both Religious/Other and Healthcare are significantly higher in the affirmation of Servant Leadership values when compared with Commercial/Business. However, only Religious/Other is significantly different from Education and neither are significantly different from Non-profit, which had the third highest predicted level of affirmation of Servant Leadership values. This suggests that those employed in the Non-profit sector, being in-between the business sector and the Religious/Other or Healthcare sectors, were not different enough from either set of groups for the differences to be clear-cut, or statistically significant at the five-percent level, with the sample size used in this study. Sectors Religious/Other and Healthcare appear to be significant in the marginsplot (Figure 10).

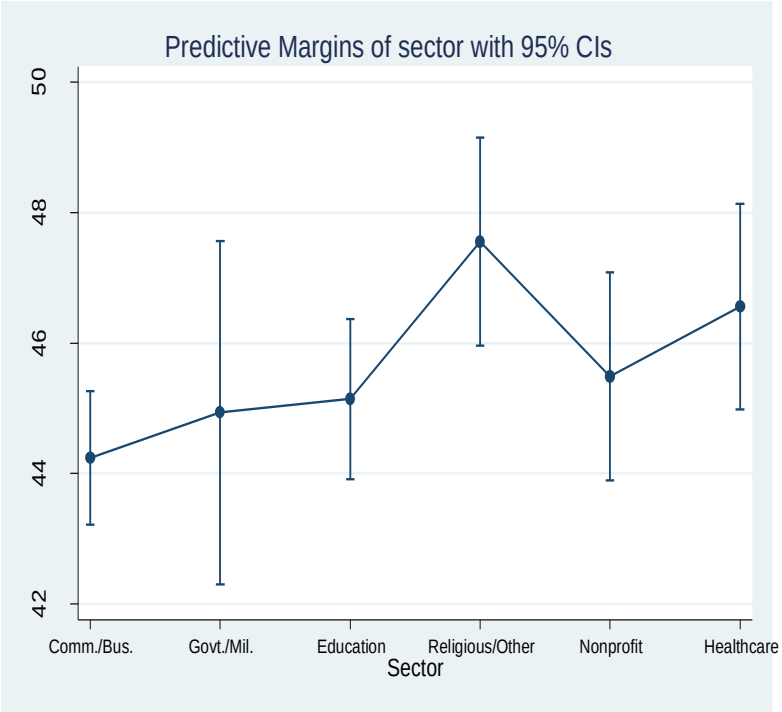

Figure 10. Marginsplot showing predicted values of work sector group comparisons with confidence intervals.

Chapter Summary

Overall, the graduates from the school's MSOL program who responded to the survey tended to have rather similar affirmations of servant leadership values. Their differences were

modest and found primarily between older and youngest age groups and based on the sector of employment rather than gender or years of experience or whether their area of employment was in a time of relative transition or stability. These findings suggest that the program uniformly produces graduates with similarly high views of servant leadership values and that the male and female graduates from the program do not differ in this regard. Those differences that I found seemed to be due to maturational or differences found in different work sectors.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Chapter Overview

In this final chapter I offer an overview of the study, present findings and interpretations of the research question and hypotheses, discuss implications of the research, make recommendations for future research, and draw conclusions from the study.

The purpose of this study is to examine whether differences exist between males and females in their self-reported servant leadership behaviors. As noted in my postionality statement, I approached this study as one who has a passionate interest in the topic. I learned about servant leadership as a student in the Master's of Science in Organizational Leadership (MSOL) program at a Christian liberal arts college in southwestern Pennsylvania. As a nonprofit manager in two different nonprofit programs, I had the opportunity to successfully apply this leadership approach. My staff members provided feedback to me that they enjoyed their work environment. I became an advocate for servant leadership as an approach to leadership.

Throughout my adult life, I have witnessed cultural changes towards women in leadership. Several decades ago, women received limited acceptance as leaders due to stereotypes that depicted women as "too emotional" or "not aggressive enough" to be organizational leaders. The progression has been gradual, but women are gaining increasing acceptance as leaders.

As a female servant leader, I did not personally witness gender differences in the leadership approaches of other leaders in the workplace. I saw both male and female autocratic leaders, and I also saw both male and female servant leaders. Gender appeared to have no correlation to a leader's effectiveness.

The education I received concerning servant leadership was gender neutral. My literature review of servant leadership and gender has yielded inconclusive results about whether gender differences exist. I chose to conduct research that contributes to the literature concerning whether gender differences exist in servant leadership behaviors.

Summary of the Study

Robert K. Greenleaf first introduced servant leadership as a leadership approach in 1970 in his essay, *The Servant as Leader.* He wrote that servant leadership "begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve *first* ((1970, p. 15). In order to evaluate whether one is truly a servant leader, Greenleaf instructs that person to ask themselves, "do those served persons grow; do they while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants?" (1970, p. 15). Servant leadership is gaining in acceptance as an approach to leadership because it places an emphasis on relationships between leaders and followers (van Dierendonck, 2011).

During the same era when servant leadership emerged, women were experiencing cultural changes that impacted their lives (Powell & Graves, 2003). Their numbers in higher education increased. Also, the "Pill" became available in 1960, which gave women greater control over childbearing decisions and had more options available to pursue careers. They benefited from such legislative decisions as The Equal Pay Act in 1963, which granted women equal pay for equal work; and from Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibited discrimination on the basis of sex, color, race, religion, or national origin. Women have made advancements in the workplace and have increasingly moved into positions of leadership (Powell & Graves, 2003). They still, however, have an underrepresentation in upper levels of management (Carli & Eagly, 2011).

Some researchers attribute the increasing success of women in leadership positions to the emergence of relationship-oriented approaches to leadership. They posit that feminine characteristics may be more congruent with a relationally-oriented approach, such as transformational leadership (Sharp, 2000; Wachs, 2000; Rosser, 2003; Bass, 1991; Eagly-Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Carless, 1998). Other researchers determined that a relationally-oriented approach, such as transformational leadership, does not provide an advantage for either gender (Yoder, 2001; Epstein, 1991). Research concerning gender and servant leadership shows a similar dichotomy, with some research indicating gender neutrality (Laub, 1999; Braye, 2000; Barbuto & Gifford, 2008; Jacobs, 2011; Goodwin, 2011) and some research (Washington, Sutton & Field, 2006; Beck, 2010; and Fridell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009) indicating a feminine advantage. Table A5 in Appendix A compares leadership styles and gendered attributes. This comparison appears to indicate that the relationship of servant leadership and transformational leadership with feminine attributes appears greater than the relationship with masculine attributes. This literature review appeared to indicate a decreased likelihood of finding a masculine advantage in the results of this study. The likelihood of either a feminine advantage or gender neutrality appeared to be greater.

The culture is shifting towards a greater acceptance of women in leadership positions. Relationally-oriented approaches to leadership, such as servant leadership, are gaining recognition. An examination of gendered differences in servant leadership appears to be warranted.

Although Robert K. Greenleaf is credited with coining the term, “servant leadership” and writing extensively about what a servant leader does, he did not actually define the term. As researchers acquired an interest in conducting studies concerning servant leadership, they offered

their interpretations of servant leadership attributes based on Greenleaf's writings. Table A2 in Appendix A offers a list of researchers' proposed attributes. Spears (1998) studied Greenleaf's essays and offered his list of ten characteristics of servant leadership, including listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. Spears saw these characteristics as those that Greenleaf mentioned most often in his writings. He stated, however, that this list of ten characteristics is "not a definitive list" (Dittmar, 2006, p. 113).

Multiple researchers studied Greenleaf's writings, and in the absence of a formal definition, developed their own. A list of specific definitions that researchers have proposed is offered in Appendix A., Table A1. Based on my own review of the literature, I used the following definition of servant leadership for purposes of conducting this research. Servant leadership is an approach to leadership in which serving others with integrity is the leaders' first priority. Servant leaders put their followers' well-being before their own self-interest and success, demonstrate concern for the followers' personal development, and share power and decision-making with their followers. Servant leaders always build a sense of community and develop a culture of trust within their organizations.

Because no single, consensual definition exists for servant leadership, I chose the alumni of the MSOL program at a Christian liberal arts college in western Pennsylvania as the participants in this research. Students in this program are similarly educated in servant leadership and have a common understanding of what this leadership approach entails. A description of the MSOL program is located in Appendix C.

Methodology and Findings

I conducted this quantitative, cross-sectional research using the ten Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale developed by Winston & Fields (2012). Through factor analysis, I formulated a one-dimensional measure of the ten servant leadership behaviors, which served as the dependent variable:

1. Practices what he/she preaches
2. Serves people without regard to their nationality, gender, or race
3. Sees serving as a mission of responsibility to others
4. Genuinely interested in employees as people
5. Understands that serving others is most important
6. Willing to make sacrifices to help others
7. Seeks to instill trust rather than fear or insecurity
8. Is always honest
9. Is driven by a sense of higher calling
10. Promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success. (Winston & Fields, 2012, p. 35)

Along with gender, I also considered age, years of supervision, work sector, and whether the organization was in a period of change or stability as the independent variables.

The college had acquired contact information for 502 graduates from the MSOL program. On December 10, 2013, the college initiated an email through Survey Monkey to the alumni with a link to the survey. I wrote a note to the alumni, which was attached to the email, stating the purpose of the research, the fact that the identity of the participants would remain confidential, and that participation is voluntary. Also, the director of the MSOL program added a

notation that encouraged the alumni to assist in this research. He also stated his belief in the importance of the topic at hand. (See Appendix D).

The college initiated follow-up emails on December 18, 2013, January 8, 2014, and January 27, 2014. The emails solicited a total of 160 responses and 157 surveys were fully completed and useable. The response rate for useable surveys was 31%. The participants included 61% females and 39% males. Below I discuss the results of the data analysis in terms of the research question and five hypotheses presented in chapter 1.

Summary of Research Question and Hypotheses

Research Question: Do differences exist between males and females in their self-reported servant leadership behaviors?

Hypothesis 1: Statistically significant differences exist between females and males who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership.

Using a multiple regression analysis, I found no statistically significant differences between females and males who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership. I therefore accepted the null hypothesis that no relationship existed. These findings are in alignment with the literature that indicates no gender differences in the practices of servant leadership (Laub, 1999; Braye, 2000; Barbuto & Gifford, 2008; Jacobs, 2011; Goodwin, 2011) and contradict the literature that found a feminine advantage (Washington, Sutton & Field, 2006; Beck, 2010; and Fridell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009).

This study is unique in that the participants were similarly educated about the practice of servant leadership. The MSOL program presents servant leadership in a gender-neutral fashion.

The statistical results showing no gender differences may be a reflection of the common understanding about servant leadership that male and female MSOL alumni hold.

Hypothesis 2: Statistically significant differences exist between persons who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership with respect to with respect to age. Through multiple regression analysis, I found statistically significant differences with respect to age, and I therefore rejected the null hypothesis. I found ages 50 to 59 and 60 to 69 to be significant. The p-value for ages 40 to 49 (.058) was slightly above significance for the 95% confidence level, so it is reasonable to suggest that this age group is significant as well.

These results suggest that participants in age groups of 40 and above tend to be more affirming of servant leadership behaviors than do those who are under 40 years of age. This difference across the ages may be a reflection of generational differences in approaches to leadership; particularly with adults under the age of forty as compared to adults over forty.

Hypothesis 3: Statistically significant differences exist between persons who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership with respect to their number of years in leadership positions.

I found no statistically significant differences with respect to years of supervision, and I accepted the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4: Statistically significant differences exist between persons who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership with respect to their workplace sector.

I found statistically significant differences with respect to work sectors, and I rejected the null hypothesis. Analysis of the work sector variable indicated results that the participant's work

sector impacted their level of affirmation of servant leadership. Participants in the Healthcare and Religious/Other sectors indicated the highest tendencies to affirm servant leadership. The lowest affirmations tended to be in the Commercial/Business sector. It is possible that workplace sectors that are service-oriented in nature, such as healthcare and religious vocations, may be more amenable to developing an organizational culture that fosters a leadership approach such as servant leadership.

Hypothesis 5: Statistically significant differences exist between persons who are educated in and practitioners of servant leadership as measured across the one unique dimension of servant leadership with respect to their perceived organizational stability.

I found no statistically significant differences with respect to perceived organizational stability, and I accepted the null hypothesis.

Implications of This Research

Prior to the twentieth century, both men and women accepted the view that women belonged at home fulfilling their roles as wives and mothers (Donovan, 1985). During the 1900's, the number of women in the workplace steadily increased, although their acceptance into managerial positions progressed slowly (Powell & Graves, 2003). Leadership was often defined in terms of male characteristics, which benefited men (Fuller & Batchelder, 1953; Orth & Jacobs, 1971; Boyle, 1973; Rand, 1968; Broverman et al., 1972; Schein, 1973 & 1975; Dubno, 1985; Sutton & Moore, 1985; Brenner, et al., 1989; Heilman, et al., 1989; Rudman & Killanski, 2000; Schein, 2001). These male characteristics included "aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, daring, self-confident, and competitive (Eagly & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 783). As relationally-oriented leadership approaches, such as servant leadership, emerged during the latter half of the twentieth century, definitions of leadership became more

inclusive of feminine characteristics, which allowed for greater acceptance of women as leaders (Sharpe, 2000; Wachs, 2000; Rosser, 2003; Rosener, 1990; Bass, 1991; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Carless, 1998). Female characteristics included "affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturant, and gentle" (Eagly & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 783). The increasing emergence of relationally-oriented leadership approaches coincided with the increasing acceptance of women into managerial positions (Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2001). Women are still, however, underrepresented in upper managerial levels. Women hold only 3.4% of Chief Executive Officer positions in Fortune 500 companies and 16.1% of corporate board seats (Catalyst, 2011).

As women consider their options and seek opportunities for growth and advancement, it may benefit them to consider the corporate managerial culture of the organizations where they consider gaining employment. Organizations that cultivate relationally-oriented leadership approaches, such as servant leadership, may offer greater acceptance of women in leadership positions and provide more potential opportunities for professional growth.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study makes a contribution to the literature examining gendered differences in servant leadership. It confirms the results of previous research which found no such gendered differences. No statistically significant differences emerged between the genders in this study irrespective of the included independent variables (i.e., age, sector, supervisory experience, organizational fluctuation).

Other findings, however, were notable and may merit future research. Age differences in servant leadership behaviors existed. Further research may be beneficial to determine whether generational differences exist in organizational leaders' decisions to practice servant leadership.

Work sector differences also emerged in this study. Future study in this area may shed more light on whether some work sectors offer cultures that are more amenable to servant leadership practices of their leaders.

All of the participants in this study attended the same Master's of Science in Organizational Leadership (MSOL) program at a Christian liberal arts college in southwestern Pennsylvania. This delimitation is a strength of this study in that all participants were similarly educated in and have a common understanding of servant leadership. Because a lack of consensus exists in defining servant leadership, the participants' shared perceptions of servant leadership are an asset. The results of this study may be less generalizable to the population of servant leadership practitioners, however, because of this design. Future researchers may benefit from conducting a similar study using the Winston & Fields Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale (2012) with participants who have backgrounds that are more regionally diverse.

Concluding Summary

As stated in Chapter 3, I approached this study from a post-positivist view that builds on Karl Popper's Theory of Falsification (1959). Popper suggests that proving a hypothesis is an impossibility; one can either disprove the hypothesis or contribute evidence to the possibility that the hypothesis is true. In line with this theory, this study did not "prove" that no gender differences exist in servant leadership behaviors. This study serves to add to the literature of other research that found no gender differences.

In chapter 2, my literature review of gender and servant leadership generally found results aligned in one of two directions. In some literature, men and women were equally proficient in their practice of servant leadership (Laub, 1999; Braye, 2000; Barbuto & Gifford, 2008; Jacobs, 2011; Goodwin, 2011). In other research, women demonstrated an advantage in

their practice of servant leadership (Washington, Sutton & Field, 2006; Beck, 2010; and Fridell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009). As a result of my review of the literature, I posited that finding a masculine advantage in servant leadership would be unlikely. The results of analysis in this study confirmed that standpoint in that it gave neither gender an advantage in servant leadership practice.

As women continue to strive for workplace parity with men and as servant leadership continues to evolve as a leadership approach, a gendered view of servant leadership persists as a relevant topic for research.

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Appendix A
Leadership and Gender Comparison Tables

Table 12: Researcher's Definitions of Servant Leadership

Definition
"To honor the personal dignity and worth of all who are led and to evoke as much as possible their own innate creative power for leadership" (Sims, 1997, p. 10-11).
"Servant Leadership is an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader. Servant Leadership promotes the valuing and development of people, the building of community, the practice of authenticity, the providing of leadership for the good of those led, and the sharing of power and status for the common good of each individual, the total organization, and those served by the organization" (Laub, 1999, p. 81).
"A Servant Leader may be defined as a leader whose primary purpose for leading is to serve others by investing in their development and well-being for the benefit of accomplishing tasks and goals for the common good. . . At the very heart of servant-leadership is the genuine desire to serve others for the common good. In servant-leadership, self-interest gives way to collective human development" (Page & Wong, 2000, p. 2).
"Those who lead an organization by focusing on their followers, such that followers are the primary concern and the organizational concerns are peripheral" (Patterson, 2003, p. 5).
"Leadership that puts the needs of others and the organization first, is characterized by openness, vision, and stewardship, and results in building community within organizations" (Reinke, 2004, p. 43).
"The Servant Leader is a person who has an innate desire to lead by serving, serves to align with own beliefs, and strives to meet the highest priorities of others. Servant Leadership is thus the act in which a leader engages with a follower through the desire and process of serving, in such a way that the leader and follower raise one another to a higher level of morality and motivation" (Boyum, 2006, p. SP-8).
"Servant leaders, by definition, place the needs of their subordinates before their own needs and center their efforts on helping subordinates grow to reach their maximum potential and achieve optimal organizational and career success" (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008, p. 163).

Table 13: Servant Leadership Attributes According to Literature Review With Spears' Ten Attributes in Bold

Attribute	Servant Leadership
Acceptance of People for Who They Are	van Dierendonck (2011)
Accountability	Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008)
Agapao Love	Patterson (2003); Whetstone (2002); Dennis & Borcanea (2006)
Altruism	Patterson (2003); Whetstone (2002); Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008); Barbuto & Gifford (2008)
Appreciating and Valuing People	Russell (2000); Russell & Stone (2002); Patterson (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005)
Authenticity	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); van Dierendonck, 2011)
Awareness/ Perception	**Spears (1998)**; Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)
Building Community	**Spears (1998)**; Laub (1999); Page & Wong (2000); Whetstone (2002); Joseph & Winston (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Reinke (2004); Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)
Calling	Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)
Coach/Teach/Mentor	Patterson (2003)
Commitment to the Growth of People/ Develops Followers	**Spears (1998)**; Reiser (1995); Laub (1999); Whetstone (2002); Wong & Page (2003); Joseph & Winston (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Reinke (2004); Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Blanchard & Miller (2007); van Dierendonck (2011)
Competence	Washington, Sutton & I (2006)
Conceptualization	**Spears (1998)**; Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)
Concern for Emotional Well-being	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005)
Credibility	Farling, Stone & Winston (1999);
Delegation	Patterson (2003); Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008); Washington (2007);
Egalitarianism	Washington (2007)
Empathy/ Caring for Others	**Spears (1998)**; Reiser (1995); Page & Wong (2000); Reinke (2002); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Covey (2006); Washington, Sutton & I (2008)

Attribute	Servant Leadership
Empower Followers	Page & Wong (2000); Russell (2000); Russell & Stone (2002); Wong & Page (2003); Patterson (2003); Dennis & Borcanea (2006); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008); van Dierendonck (2011)
Encouragement	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)
Ethics	Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)
Focus on Followers	Patterson (2003)
Healing	**Spears (1998)**; Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008); Barbuto & Gifford (2008)
Honesty	Russell & Stone (2002; Wong & Page (2003);
Humility	Patterson (2003); Wong & Page (2003); Reinke (2004); Covey (2006); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Dennis & Borcanea (2006); van Dierendonck (2011)
Idealized Influence	Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)
Initiative	Joseph & Winston (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)
Integrity	Patterson (2003; Covey (2006); Washington, Sutton & Field (2006); Washington (2007); Blanchard & Miller (2007)
Intellectually Stimulating	Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)
Listening	**Spears (1998)**; Reiser (1995); Whetstone (2002); Russell & Stone (2002); Patterson (2003); Joseph & Winston (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Reinke (2004); Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006);
Modeling; Lead by Example	Page & Wong (2000); Russell (2000); Wong & Page (2003); Whetstone (2002); Patterson (2003)
Morality	Covey (2006); Boyun (2006)
Optimism	
Participative Decision-making/Collaborative/ Team-oriented	Page & Wong (2000); Wong & Page (2003); Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008);
Persuasion/ Influence	**Spears (1998)**; Covey (1998); Farling, Stone & Winston (1999); Whetstone (2002); Patterson (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Washington (2007); Barbuto & Gifford (2008)
Provide Direction	van Dierendonck (2011)
Relationship-oriented/ Engagement	Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson (2008)
Respect	Washington (2007)

Attribute	Servant Leadership
Service	Farling, Stone & Winston (1999); Page & Wong (2000); Russell (2000); Russell & Stone (2002); Whetstone (2002); Wong & Page (2002); Joseph & Winston); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005); Washington (2007); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)
Setting Goals	Wong & Page (2003);
Stewardship	**Spears (1998)**; Sendjaya & Sarros (2002); Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Barbuto & Gifford (2008); van Dierendonck (2011)
Supportive	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Washington (2007)
Trust	Farling, Stone & Winston (1999); Russell (2000); Patterson (2003); Joseph & Winston (2003); Humphreys (2005); Whetstone (2002); Dennis & Borcanea (2006); Washington (2007)
Understanding	Joseph & Winston (2003)
Vision/ Foresight	**Spears (1998)**; Farling, Stone & Winston (1999); Page & Wong (2000); Russell (2000); Russell & Stone (2002); Whetstone (2002); Sendjaya & Sarros (2002); Patterson (2003); Wong & Page (2003); Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Dennis & Borcanea (2006); Washington (2007); Blanchard & Miller (2007)
Willingness to Learn from Others	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)
Wisdom	Covey (2006); Barbuto & Gifford (2008)

Table 14: Comparisons of Servant Leadership, Transformational, and Transactional Leadership According to Literature Review (Spears' Ten Attributes in Bold)

Attribute	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
Acceptance of People for Who They Are	van Dierendonck (2011)		
Accountability	Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008)		
Agapao Love	Patterson (2003); Whetstone (2002); Dennis & Borcanea (2006)		
Altruism	Patterson (2003); Whetstone (2002); Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008); Barbuto & Gifford (2008)		
Appreciating and Valuing People	Russell (2000); Russell & Stone (2002); Patterson (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005)	Patterson (2003)	
Authenticity	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); van Dierendonck (2011)		
Awareness/ Perception	**Spears (1998)**; Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)		
Building Community	**Spears (1998)**; Laub (1999); Page & Wong (2000); Whetstone (2002); Joseph & Winston (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Reinke (2004); Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Liden,		

Attribute	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
	Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)		
Calling	Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)		
Clarifies Performance Expectations			Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)
Coach/Teach/Mentor	Patterson (2003)	Bass (1985); Patterson (2003); Eagly & Johanneson-Schmidt (2001) Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen (2003) Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005)	
Commitment to the Growth of People/ Develops Followers	**Spears (1998)**; Reiser (1995); Laub (1999); (2001); Whetstone (2002); Wong & Page (2003); Joseph & Winston (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Reinke (2004); Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Blanchard & Miller (2007); van Dierendonck (2011)	Bass (1985); Bass (1990); Carless (1998); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)	
Competence	Washington, Sutton & I (2006)		
Conceptualization	**Spears (1998)**; Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)		
Concern for Emotional Well-being	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005)		

Attribute	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
Concern for Followers' Higher Order Needs		Whetstone (2002); Boyum (2006)	
Confidence		Bass (1985); Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer & Jolson (1997)	
Contingent Reward			Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen (2003); Washington (2007); Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin & Marx (2007)
Creativity		Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)	
Credibility	Farling, Stone & Winston (1999);		
Delegation	Patterson (2003); Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008); Washington (2007);	Bass (1985); Bass (1990); Patterson (2003); Washington (2007)	
Directive			Washington (2007)
Discipline			Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996) Washington (2007)
Egalitarianism	Washington (2007)		
Empathy/ Caring for Others	**Spears (1998)**; Reiser (1995); Page & Wong (2000); Reinke (2002); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Covey (2006); Washington, Sutton & I (2008)		
Empower Followers	Page & Wong (2000); Russell (2000); Russell & Stone (2002); Wong	Carless (1998); Patterson (2003); Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen (2003)	

Attribute	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
	& Page (2003); Patterson (2003); Dennis & Borcanea (2006); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008); van Dierendonck (2011)		
Encouragement	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)	Carli (2007)	
Ethics	Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)	Burns (1978)	
Exchange Relationship			Burns (1978); Bass (1990); Rosener (1990); Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer & Jolson (1997); Patterson (2003); Washington (2007)
Focus on Followers	Patterson (2003); van Dierendonck (2011)		
Focus on Organizational Goals		Patterson (2003)	
Formal/Bureaucratic Authority			Patterson (2003); Washington (2007)
Healing	**Spears (1998)**; Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008); Barbuto & Gifford (2008)		
Honesty	Russell & Stone (2002; Wong & Page (2003);		
Humility	Patterson (2003); Wong & Page (2003); Reinke (2004); Covey (2006); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Dennis & Borcanea		

Attribute	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
	(2006); van Dierendonck (2011)		
Idealized Influence	Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)	Bass (1985); Bass (1990); Patterson (2003) Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004; Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Washington (2007); Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin & Marx (2007); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)	
Individualized Consideration	van Dierendonck (2011)	Bass (1985); Bass (1990); Patterson (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Washington (2007); Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin & Marx (2007); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)	
Initiative	Joseph & Winston (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)	
Innovation		Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004);	
Inspirational Motivation		Bass (1985); Bass (1990); Patterson (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Boyun	

Attribute	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
		(2006); Washington (2007); Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin & Marx (2007); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)	
Integrity	Patterson (2003; Covey (2006); Washington, Sutton & Field (2006); Washington (2007); Blanchard & Miller (2007)	Patterson (2003); Washington (2007)	
Intellectually Stimulating	Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008); van Dierendonck (2011)	Bass (1985); Bass (1990); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Washington (2007); Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin & Marx (2007); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008)	
Listening	**Spears (1998)**; Reiser (1995); Whetstone (2002); Russell & Stone (2002); Patterson (2003); Joseph & Winston (2003); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Reinke (2004); Humphreys (2005); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006);		
Management by Exception			Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Patterson (2002); Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen (2003);

Attribute	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
			Washington (2007); Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin & Marx (2007)
Modeling; Lead by Example	Page & Wong (2000); Russell (2000); Wong & Page (2003); Whetstone (2002); Patterson (2003)	Patterson (2003); Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen (2003)	
Monitors Followers' Performance			Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996) Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)
Morality	Covey (2006); Boyun (2006)	Burns (1978); Whetstone (2002); Washington (2007)	
Optimism		Bass (1985)	
Participative Decision-making/Collaborative/ Team-oriented	Page & Wong (2000); Wong & Page (2003); Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008);	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)	
Persuasion/ Influence	**Spears (1998)**; Covey (1998); Farling, Stone & Winston (1999); Whetstone (2002); Patterson (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Washington (2007); Barbuto & Gifford (2008)	Patterson (2003)	
Problem-Solving		Humphreys (2005)	
Providing Direction	van Dierendonck (2011)		
Relationship-oriented/ Engagement	Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson (2008)	Burns (1978); Carless (1998)	

Attribute	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
Respect	Washington (2007)		
Risk-taking		Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)	
Service	Farling, Stone & Winston (1999); Page & Wong (2000); Russell (2000); Russell & Stone (2002); Whetstone (2002); Wong & Page (2002); Joseph & Winston); Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Humphreys (2005); Washington (2007); Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson (2008); van Dierendonck (2011)		
Setting Goals	Wong & Page (2003);	Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen (2003); Humphreys (2005)	
Stewardship	**Spears (1998)**; Sendjaya & Sarros (2002); Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Barbuto & Gifford (2008); van Dierendonck (2011)		
Supportive	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004); Washington (2007); van Dierendonck (2011)		
Takes Corrective Action			
Task-oriented			Patterson (2002);

Attribute	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
Trust	Farling, Stone & Winston (1999); Russell (2000); Patterson (2003); Joseph & Winston (2003); Humphreys (2005); Whetstone (2002); Dennis & Borcanea (2006); Washington (2007); van Dierendonck (2011)	Bass (1985); Patterson (2003); Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen (2003) Humphreys (2005); Washington (2007)	
Understanding	Joseph & Winston (2003)		
Vision/ Foresight	**Spears (1998)**; Farling, Stone & Winston (1999); Page & Wong (2000); Russell (2000); Russell & Stone (2002); Whetstone (2002); Sendjaya & Sarros (2002); Patterson (2003); Wong & Page (2003); Joseph & Winston (2003); Reinke (2004); Barbuto & Wheeler (2006); Dennis & Borcanea (2006); Washington (2007); Blanchard & Miller (2007)	Bass (1985); Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer & Jolson (1997); Patterson (2003); Humphreys (2005); Washington (2007)	
Willingness to Learn from Others	Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko (2004)		
Wisdom	Covey (2006); Barbuto & Gifford (2008)		

Table 15: Female and Male Attributes According to Literature Review

Attributes	Female	Male
Achievement-oriented		Rand (1968); Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs & Tamkins (2004); Heilman (2007)
Affectionate	Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Eagly & Carli (2007)	
Agentic		Yoder (2001); Heilman (2001); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Heilman, Wachs, Fuchs & Tamkins (2004); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006); Heilman & Okimoto (2007); Eagly & Carli (2007); Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie & Reichard (2008); Rosette & Tost (2010)
Aggressive		Schein (1973, 1975); Schwartz (1979); Sutton (1985); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006) Eagly & Carli (2007); Heilman (2007
Ambitious		Schein (1975); Heilman (1989); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006) Eagly & Carli (2007)
Assertive		Heilman, Block, Martell & Simon (1989); Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Wachs (2000); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs & Tamkins (2004); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006); Powell, Butterfield & Parent (2007) Eagly & Carli (2007); Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie & Reichard (2008)
Autocratic		Eagly & Johnson (1990); Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky(1992); Eagly, Karau & Makhijani (1995); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001)

Attributes	Female	Male
Coach/Teach/Mentor	Wachs (2000); Sharpe (2000); Powell, Butterfield, & Parent (2002)	
Communication Skills	Powell, Butterfield, & Parent (2002)	
Compassionate	Powell, Butterfield, & Parent (2002); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006) Eagly & Carli (2007)	
Competitive		Schein (1975); Sutton (1985); Rosener (1990); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Heilman (2007); Powell, Butterfield & Parent (2007)
Confident		Schein (1975); Heilman (1989); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006) Eagly & Carli (2007); Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie & Reichard (2008)
Consideration/ Concern for the Welfare of Others	Bartol (1976); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Heilman (2001); Eagly (2007); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006)	
Contingent Reward	Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996)	Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Eagly (2007); Vinkenburg, Engen, Eagly, & Johannesen-Schmidt (2011)
Coordinating	Wachs (2000)	
Decisive		Sutton (1985); Rosener (1990); Heilman (2001)
Democratic	Eagly & Johnson (1990); Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky (1992); Eagly, Karau & Makhijani (1995); Wachs (2000); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001)	
Development of Subordinates	Eagly & Johanneson-Schmidt (2001)	
Directive		Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky(1992)
Dominant/ Controlling/		Rand (1968); Schein (1975); Heilman (1989); Bass, Avolio &

Attributes	Female	Male
Forceful		Atwater (1996); Rosener (2000); Eagly & Johannesen Schmidt (2001); Heilman (2001); Yoder (2001); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006) Eagly & Carli (2007); Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie & Reichard (2008)
Egalitarian	Rudman & Killanski (2000)	
Emotionally Stable		Schein (1975); Heilman (1989)
Emotionally Vulnerable	Rosener (1990)	
Empathetic/Caring/ Sensitive to Others' Needs	Rand (1968); Schein (1973, 1975); Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Wachs (2000); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Heilman (2001); Powell, Butterfield, & Parent (2002) Eagly & Carli (2007); Heilman (2007)	
Exchange		Rosener (1990)
Expressive	Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996)	
Facilitating	Wachs (2000)	
Flexible	Powell, Butterfield, & Parent (2002)	
Formal Authority/ Hierarchical		Wachs (2007); Yoder (2001)
Friendly	Wachs (2000)	
Generous	Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006)	
Gentle	Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001)	
Independent/ Self-Reliant Individualistic		Rand (1968); Schein (1973); Dubno (1985); Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Heilman (2001); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006); Powell, Butterfield & Parent (2007) Eagly & Carli (2007)
Influential		Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001)
Initiative		Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001)

Attributes	Female	Male
Intuitive	Schein (1973, 1975); Schwartz (1989); Powell, Butterfield, & Parent (2002)	
Kind	Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Heilman (2001); Duehr, & Bono (2006); Eagly (2007); Eagly & Carli (2007); Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie & Reichard (2008)	
Logical/Analytical		Schein (1975); Dubno (1988); Heilman (1989
Management by Exception		Rosener (1990); Bass (1991); Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Vinkenburg, Engen, Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2011); Ely & Rhode (2011)
Moral/ Ethical	Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996)	
Nurturing	Rand (1968); Schwartz (1989); Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Wachs (2000); Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Heilman (2001); Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie & Reichard (2008)	
Objective		Schein (1985); Heilman (1989); Dubno (1988)
Participative/ Cooperative/ Collaborative	Rosener (1990); Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky(1992; Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Carless (1998)	
Relationship-oriented	Carless (1998); Powell & Graves (2003)	
Risk-taker		Schwartz (1989); Powell, Butterfield & Parent (2007)
Sentimental	Duehr & Bono (2006)	
Service-oriented/ Helpful	Rand (1968); Schein (1973, 1979); Rosener (1990); Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Heilman (2001); Eagly &	

Attributes	Female	Male
	Johannesen-Schmidt (2001); Duehr, E. & Bono, J. (2006) Eagly & Carli (2007); Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie & Reichard (2008); Hogan (2010); Bass (2010); Clausen (2010)	
Soft-spoken	Eagly & Carli (2007)	
Steady/ Consistent		Schein (1975); Heilman (1989)
Supportive	Schwartz (1989); Rosener (1989); Wachs (2000)	
Task-oriented/ Goal-oriented	Sharpe (2000)	Yoder (2001); Powell & Graves (2007); Powell, Butterfield & Parent (2007)
Tough		Rosener (1990); Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs & Tamkins (2004)
Understanding	Rand (1968); Schein (1973); Rosener (1990); Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996); Heilman (2007)	

Table 16: Comparison of Leadership and Gender Attributes According to Literature Review

Characteristic	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Female	Male
Acceptance of People for Who They Are	✓				
Achievement-oriented					✓
Accountability	✓				
Affectionate				✓	
Agapao Love	✓				
Agentic					✓
Aggressive					✓
Altruism	✓				
Ambitious					✓
Appreciating People	✓	✓			
Assertive					✓
Authenticity	✓				
Autocratic					✓
Awareness/ Perception	✓				
Building Community	✓				
Calling	✓				
Clarifies Performance Expectations			✓		
Coach/ Teacher/Mentor	✓	✓		✓	
Commitment to the Growth of People/Develops Followers	✓	✓		✓	
Communication Skills				✓	
Compassionate				✓	

Characteristic	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Female	Male
Competent	✓				✓
Competitive					✓
Conceptualization	✓				
Concern for Followers' Emotional Well-being	✓				
Concern for Followers' Higher Order Needs		✓			
Confidence		✓			✓
Consideration/ Concern for the Welfare of Others				✓	
Contingent Reward			✓	✓	✓
Coordinating				✓	
Creative		✓			
Credibility	✓				
Decisive					✓
Delegation	✓	✓			
Democratic				✓	
Directive			✓		✓
Discipline/Sanction			✓		
Dominant/ Controlling/ Forceful					✓
Egalitarianism	✓			✓	
Emotionally Stable					✓
Emotionally Vulnerable				✓	
Empathetic/Caring for Others	✓			✓	
Empowerment	✓	✓			

Characteristic	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Female	Male
Encouragement	✓	✓			
Engagement/ Relationship-oriented	✓	✓		✓	
Exchange Relationship			✓		✓
Expressive				✓	
Facilitating				✓	
Flexible				✓	
Focus on Followers	✓				
Focus on Organizational Objectives		✓			
Formal/ Bureaucratic Authority			✓		✓
Hierarchical					
Friendly				✓	
Generous				✓	
Gentle				✓	
Healing	✓				
Honesty	✓				
Humility	✓				
Idealized Influence	✓	✓			
Individualized Consideration	✓	✓			
Independent/ Self-Reliant					✓
Individualistic					
Influential					✓
Initiative	✓	✓			✓
Innovation		✓			

Characteristic	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Female	Male
Inspirational Motivation		✓			
Integrity	✓	✓			
Intellectually Stimulating	✓	✓			
Intuitive				✓	
Kind				✓	
Listening	✓				
Logical/Analytical					✓
Management by Exception			✓		✓
Modeling/ Lead by Example	✓	✓			
Monitors Followers' Performance			✓		
Moral/Ethical	✓	✓		✓	
Nurturing				✓	
Objective					✓
Optimism		✓			
Participative/ Cooperative/ Collaborative/ Team-oriented	✓	✓		✓	
Persuasion/Influence	✓	✓			
Problem-Solving		✓			
Provide Direction	✓				
Respect	✓				
Risk-taking		✓			✓
Sentimental				✓	
Service-oriented/ Helpful	✓			✓	
Setting Goals	✓	✓			
Soft-spoken				✓	

Characteristic	Servant Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Female	Male
Steady/ Consistent					✓
Stewardship	✓				
Supportive	✓			✓	
Task-oriented/ Goal-oriented			✓	✓	✓
Tough					✓
Trust	✓	✓			
Understanding	✓			✓	
Vision/Foresight	✓	✓			
Willingness to Learn from Others	✓				
Wisdom	✓				

Table 17: Comparison Table Combinations

Servant Leadership & Female	Servant Leadership & Male
Egalitarianism	Competent
Empathetic/Caring	
Service-oriented/helpful	
Supportive	
Understanding	
Transformational Leadership & Female	Transformational Leadership & Male
	Confidence
	Risk-taking
Transactional Leadership & Female	Transactional Leadership & Male
	Directive
	Exchange Relationship
	Formal/Bureaucratic/Hierarchical
	Management by Exception
Servant Leadership & Transformational Leadership	Servant Leadership, Transformational & Female
Appreciating People	Coach/Teacher/Mentor
Commitment to the Growth of People/Developing Followers	Commitment to the Growth of People/Develops Followers
Delegation	Engagement/Relationally-oriented
Empowerment	Moral/Ethical
Encouragement	Participative/Cooperative/Collaborative/Team-oriented
Idealized Influence	
Individualized Consideration	
Integrity	
Intellectually Stimulating	
Modeling/Leading by Example	
Persuasion/Influence	
Setting Goals	
Trust	
Vision/Foresight	
Servant Leadership, Transformational, & Transactional	Servant Leadership, Transformational & Male
	Initiative
	Transactional, Female & Male
	Contingent Reward
	Task-oriented/Goal-oriented

Table 18: Servant Leadership Models and Instruments

Researcher	Model / Construct	Instrument
Farling, Stone & Winston (1999)	Servant Leadership Variable Model: Vision, Credibility, Trust, and Service	
Laub (1999)		Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment (SOLA) 80 questions in 3 sections from 3 perspectives (entire organization, leadership, and personal perceptions)
Page & Wong (2000)	Four dimensions with 12 subscales: Character (integrity, humility, servanthood); People-orientation (caring for others, empowering others, developing others); Task-orientation (visioning, goal-setting, leading); and Process-orientation (modeling, team-building, and shared decision-making)	Servant Leader Profile (SLP) instrument 99-item with 12 subscales
Russell & Stone (2002)	Functional Attributes: Vision, Honesty, Integrity, Trust, Service, Modeling, Pioneering, Appreciation of others, and Empowerment Accompanying Attributes: Communication, Credibility, Competence, Stewardship, Visibility, Influence, Persuasion, Listening, Encouragement, Teaching, and Delegation	
Dennis & Winston (2003)	Conducted factor analysis which reduced Page & Wong's (2000) twelve constructs to three (Vision, Empowerment, and Service)	Through factor analysis, reduced Page & Wong's instrument from 99 items to 20.
Wong & Page (2003)	Opponent-Process Model of Servant Leadership (OP) Ten dimensions including constructs: Leading, Servanthood, Visioning, Developing Others, Team-building, Empowering Others, Shared Decision-making, Integrity, Authoritarian Hierarchy, and Egotistical Pride.	Revised Servant Leader Profile (RSLP) 10 subscales with a total of 97 items Appropriate for leaders from all walks of life

Researcher	Model / Construct	Instrument
	(Authoritarian Hierarchy and Egotistical Pride are scored in reverse reflecting Intentional Vulnerability and Voluntary Humility).	
Patterson (2003)	A model with seven constructs: agapao love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, and service.	
Reinke (2004)	Servant Leadership constructs of Openness, Stewardship, and Vision and linked to organizational success through the Intervening Variable of Trust	
Dennis & Bocarnea (2006)	Yielded five constructs from Patterson's 2003 model: Empowerment, Love, Humility, Trust, and Vision	42-item scale to measure the five constructs to be used in Servant Leadership advocating organizations
Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)	Factor analysis reduced Spears' ten characteristics to five: Altruistic Calling, Emotional Healing, Wisdom, Persuasive Mapping, and Organizational Stewardship.	23-item scale for use in all organizational settings
Liden, Wayne & Zhao (2008)	Servant Leadership is multi-dimensional consisting of seven constructs: Conceptual Skills, Empowering Others, Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed, Putting Subordinates First, Behaving Ethically, Healing of Emotions, and Creating Value for the Community	28-item scale measuring seven constructs for use by supervisors and subordinates
Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008)	Servanthood is a basis for Servant Leadership. Developed a model with six constructs and twenty subthemes: Voluntary Subordination (being a servant, acts of service), Authentic Self (humility, integrity, accountability, security, vulnerability), Covenantal Relationship (acceptance, availability, equality, collaboration), Responsible Morality (moral reasoning, moral action) Transcendental Spirituality	35-item questionnaire to be used in any industry or cultural setting

Researcher	Model / Construct	Instrument
	(religiousness, interconnectedness, sense of mission, wholeness), and Transforming Influence (vision, modeling, mentoring, trust, empowerment).	
van Dierendonck (2011)	Identified his view of six key Servant Leadership characteristics: Empowering and Developing People, Humility, Authenticity, Interpersonal Acceptance, Providing Direction, and Stewardship	
Winston & Fields (2012)		Ten Essential Servant Leadership Characteristics: Practices what he/she preaches; Serves people without regard to their nationality, gender, or race; Sees serving as a mission of responsibility to others; Genuinely interested in employees as people; Understands that serving others is most important; Willing to make sacrifices to help others; Seeks to instill trust rather than fear or insecurity; Is always honest; Is driven by a sense of higher calling; Promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success

Appendix B

Permission from Dr. Dail Fields and Dr. Bruce Winston to use the Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale

Suzanne:

You have permission to use the servant leadership scale in your dissertation provided that you provide us with access to your data for validation of the measure.

Dail Fields, PhD
Professor, Regent University

_____
From: Susanne D. Diehl [s.d.diehl@iup.edu]
Sent: Wednesday, June 20, 2012 10:49 AM
To: Dail Fields
Subject: Fwd: Servant Leadership Dissertation

[6-15-12]

Dr. Bruce Winston:

Susanne
Yes, this is fine with me.

_____
Bruce E. Winston, PhD
Dean
Regent University
School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship
1333 Regent University Drive
Virginia Beach, VA 23464
757 352 4306

School of Global Leadership & Entrepreneurship

1333 Regent University Drive

Virginia Beach, VA 23464

757 352 4306

Appendix C

MSOL Program

Beginning with the first course, servant leadership is a running theme throughout the Master of Science in Organizational Leadership (MSOL) program. The writings of prominent servant leaders, such as Robert K. Greenleaf and Larry Spears, are integrated into the curriculum and become an important aspect of class discussions. As this MSOL program is based in a Christian institution of higher learning, scriptural references to servant leadership form a foundational basis for discussions to this approach to leadership. The following is a course outline of this MSOL program.

MSOL Curriculum Outline:

Term I

MOL 505	The History & Theory of Leadership	3 credits
MOL 510	Leadership & Communication	3 credits
MOL 550	Professional Development	3 credits
MOL 515	Leadership & Ethics	3 credits
Total		12 credits

Term II

MOL 525	Leadership & Motivation	3 credits
MOL 520	Research Methods	3 credits
MOL 535	Leadership & Decision Making	3 credits
MOL 540	Principles of Organizational Finance	3 credits
Total		12 credits

Term III

MOL 530	Leadership & Organizational Change	3 credits
MOL 545	Leadership & Strategy	3 credits
MOL 555	Integrated Leadership Project (ILP)	6 credits
Total		12 credits

Total for MSOL Degree	36 Credits

Appendix D

Survey Cover Letters

D1: Cover Letter of Geneva College Program Chair

Dear MSOL Alumni,

Sue Diehl, a MSOL graduate from Cohort 23, is finishing her doctoral degree from the Indiana University of PA. She is currently working on her dissertation and is at the data collection stage. Her dissertation focuses on servant leadership and differences in perspectives/attitudes/behaviors regarding servant leadership "based on gender."

You have received this email from me to ask you to participate in her data collection process. This survey has been sent exclusively to MSOL graduates in light of the emphasis on servant leadership throughout the MSOL curriculum.

I strongly encourage you to be a part of this important research. Very little exists in the literature regarding gender-based differences in terms of servant leadership perspectives, attitudes, etc. The survey is short and will take only a few minutes of your time. Doing so will not only help Sue but her dissertation will contribute to the literature of servant leadership (and, by the way, I am a member of her dissertation committee).

Feel free to contact me if you have any questions. Thanks and have a wonderful, blessed Christmas season.

Jim Dittmar

D2: Researcher's Cover Letter

You are invited to participate in a dissertation research project conducted by a graduate of the MSOL (Master's of Science in Organizational Leadership) Program who is a doctoral candidate from the School of Graduate Studies and Research of the Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

This project is an attempt to study gendered differences in servant leadership behaviors. The survey associated with this research is brief and will only take a few moments of your time.

Alumni of the MSOL Program are invited to be the sole participants in this project. Your participation consists of anonymously answering the survey questions available. Please do not identify yourself in any of your responses to this survey.

Your participation is voluntary and you may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time. You may also refuse to answer any question. No foreseeable physical risks are associated with your participation.

The results of this study may be published in professional and/or scientific journals. It may also be used for educational purposes or for professional presentations. However, no individual participant will be identified.

The project is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. John A. Anderson, Indiana University of Pennsylvania. If you have any questions you may contact him at 724-357-2956 or jaa@iup.edu.

By completing the survey, you are giving your consent to voluntarily participate in this research project.

You can access the survey at the following link:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=PS4eTTHcLS9Rw6j15URL7A_3d_3d
Your time is appreciated and we look forward to receiving your completed survey.

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects.

John A. Anderson, Ph.D.
Professor and ALS Doctoral Coordinator
Department of Sociology
Dixon University Center, South Hall, Rm. 105
2986 North Second Street
Harrisburg, PA 17110
717.720.4064

Susanne D. Diehl
Ph.D. Candidate

Department of Sociology
Administration & Leadership Studies
McElhaney Hall Room 102G
441 North Walk
Indiana, PA 15705
724-357-2956
Thank you!

This survey link is uniquely tied to this survey and your email address. Please do not forward this message.

Thanks for your participation!