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Servant Leadership and Non Servant Leadership Organization Triple Bottom Line Reporting Outcomes

Lydia M. Daniels
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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Lydia Daniels

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Walden University
2016

Abstract

Servant Leadership and Nonservant Leadership Organization

Triple Bottom Line Reporting Outcomes

by

Lydia M. Daniels

MS, Golden Gate University, 1993

BA, Golden Gate University, 1992

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Management

Walden University

November 2016

Abstract

The competitive environment of the 21st century, failure of U.S. companies, and the financial crisis of 2008 have moved leadership expectations to the forefront of research. However, there is a lack of empirical research about organizational reporting outcomes of self-identified servant leadership (SL) organizations compared to self-identified nonservant (non-SL) organizations. Guided by Greenleaf's SL theory, the purpose of this study was to compare information on organizational data for triple bottom line (TBL) reporting outcomes in SL organizations and non-SL organizations. Using causal comparative research design and global reporting initiative data with a sample of 12 organization reports, reporting outcomes were compared from 6 SL and 6 non-SL organizations. The independent variables were SL and non-SL organizations. The dependent variables were TBL outcomes (social, financial, and environmental) with 55 intervening variables such as economic impact, greenhouse gas emissions, and human rights. Data analysis included descriptive statistics such as comparative analysis of the total and average of reporting outcomes and inferential statistics such as *t* tests. Findings of the study showed no statistically significant differences existed between TBL reporting outcomes of SL and non-SL organizations. Implications for positive social change lie in the focus on humanism in leadership in which organizational reports provide reliable outcome data for future community building and influence on social good.

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Dedication

I want to dedicate this work to the people who made it possible for me to complete this amazing educational journey. First, I want to thank my lifelong partner and friend, Efrain Correal, who contributed love, encouragement, and support from beginning to end. Second, thanks to my family for their understanding and encouragement: sons, Dan, Bruce, and Anthony; daughters-in-law, Renee and Alicia; grandchildren, Kendra, Michelle, Briya, and Jaliya; and great-grandchildren, Krizia, Aurianna, Simone, Tia, Ty, and Tatum. Finally, I want to recognize extended family members, Correal, Senegal, Starks, Williams, friends, and close colleagues for their unwavering support throughout the entire journey in completing this dissertation work. I am thankful to each of you and hope that this journey serves as a beacon of inspiration for continued lifelong learning for the younger family members.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

With increased globalization and the competitive environment of the 21st century corporations, leadership expectations have expanded in importance in small and large organizations (McCann & Sweet, 2013; Taneja, Pryor, Sewell, & Recuero, 2014). In addition, the failure of U.S. companies, such as Lehman, Bear Stearns, and others, and the U.S. financial crisis of 2008, have moved analysis of organizational leadership failure to the forefront of research, calling for a new approach to leadership and its focus on the economy, environment, and social change (Jones, 2012a) as opposed to focus on only a financial outcome. The importance of leadership and leadership failure in large corporations has contributed to the focus on leadership theories and styles.

Although there are many leadership theories and styles such as authentic, charismatic, transactional, and transformational, I focused on organizations using servant leadership (SL) as compared to nonservant (non-SL) leadership organizations. Servant leadership, as a theory, is aligned with many characteristics of recognized leadership styles, but this style of leadership has not yet been validated as acceptable because of the lack of empirical research on its relationship to organizational outcomes. Many studies have been generated to identify and test the characteristics of servant leadership within an organizational leadership context and to determine the impact of those characteristics on individuals within organizations (van Dierendonick & Nuijten, 2011). However, researchers have not identified a relationship between servant leadership and organizational outcomes (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Using quantitative causal comparative research, a comparative analysis was used to examine the level of reporting outcomes of

servant-led organizations and non-SL organizations. Data were obtained on organizational outcomes of economy, environment, and social change for six SL organizations and six non-SL organizations using the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) (2014), an annual standardized public sustainability reporting document.

The potential positive social change for this study was at the organizational and community level. Some theorists believe that if the tenets of servant leadership are practiced, organizations could be transformed into servant institutions and this would influence individuals within the organization, the community, and the world in positive ways for the common good (Keith, 2012). The results of this study may be used to provide information on the opportunity for awareness and application of the outcomes in the areas of organizational economy, environment, and social change for the individual, organization, community, and the greater social good and to provide a foundation for further research and study. Chapter 1 contains the background of the study with an overview of leadership theories and servant leadership, the problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions and hypotheses, theoretical framework for the study, nature of the study, definition of terms, assumptions, scope, and delimitations, and significance of the study.

Background of the Study

Leadership is an important phenomenon in organizations. Despite more than 80 years of research, the leadership literature does not contain a rationale for the effectiveness of leadership styles in different situations (Jost, 2013). There are many definitions of leadership according to Barling (2014). A brief look at the evolution of

organizational leadership theories was necessary to establish a context and rationale for a study on the comparison of reporting outcomes of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

Modern organizational leadership began with World War II. Theories of leadership included traits such as height, physical appearance, and socioeconomic status (Barling, 2014). Leadership theories of the 1950s included initiation and structure. The focus of the 1960s was on leadership behaviors. In the 1970s, the focus shifted to emphasis on the formal power granted to managers by the organization. The 1980s brought an era of new genre leadership theories, which included an emphasis on relational, inspirational, and the ethical nature of leadership (Barling, 2014). Judge and Bono (2000) showed that there was more scientific study on transformational and charismatic leadership theories between 1990 and 2000 than all other leadership theories combined. Barling revealed that transformational leadership was the most frequently researched leadership theory, with well over 100 published studies in 2012. Academic focus on leadership in organizational contexts has been on transformational leadership, authentic leadership, ethical leadership, and servant leadership as new paradigm shifts to humanism in business (Pirson & Lawrence, 2010). Servant leadership emphasizes the importance of follower outcomes in terms of incorporating characteristics of servant leadership for personal growth of followers without being related to organizational outcomes (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Servant leadership has not yet been validated as an acceptable style because of the lack of empirical study on its relationship to organizational outcomes.

Three events contributed to a critical review and analysis of leadership behaviors. One such event was the failure of U.S. companies (Lehman, Bear Stearns, and others); the U.S. financial crisis of 2008; and the leadership failure crisis in the U.S. Veterans Administration, requiring wholesale, systemic reform of the entire department's 1,457 facilities (U.S. Department of Veterans, 2014). These events served as the catalyst to move the focus of organizational leadership failure to the forefront of research, calling for a new approach to leadership (Barling, 2014), elements referred to as triple bottom line (TBL) or sustainability reporting. This awareness has led to increased interest and need for empirical research on how leaders make a difference in organizations and how organizations make a difference in social change (Doraiswamy, 2012).

With the new genre of leadership, researchers are attempting to determine which leadership theory or style is needed for change in the leadership of organizations. There is a degree of overlap between leadership theories, providing opportunities for synthesis (Latham, 2014). For example, many aspects of transformational, servant, and spiritual leadership theories are consistent with the components of the framework for leading the transformation to performance excellence, including the individual leader characteristics, leadership behaviors and activities, and organizational culture (Latham, 2013a, 2013b). Zimmerer (2013) indicated that servant leadership is an effective leadership style in organizations today, thus relieving leaders of the need to adjust their style for each generation of followers. Generation Y, the newest cohort of the population, consisting of approximately 80 million people born between 1981 and 2000, possess servant leader

traits and exhibit better teamwork, and greater unacceptability of ethical violations (VanMeter, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2013).

The focus on leadership has changed to a broader context, including followers, peers, supervisors, work setting, and culture (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009). SL places an emphasis on the personal growth of followers and it models a style that improves the quality of the organization by involving everyone in the decision-making process and organizational community building (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Ebener and O'Connell (2010) recommended the linkage of SL and organizational citizenship to grow the effectiveness of their leaders in their organizations. Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, and Colwell (2011) provided a summary of ethical leadership comparisons between four models of leadership (transformational, authentic, spiritual, and servant leadership) and recommended testing whether the SL paradigm is sufficient as a model for managing complex organizations without reference to organizational outcomes. VanMeter, Grisaffe, Chonko, and Roberts (2013) found that Generation Y employees exhibit servant leadership characteristics and that organizations can expect practical benefits, such as better teamwork and higher levels of ethical compliance. There needs to be a new approach to leadership in the areas of economic ends, profits enabling organizations to continue to serve the good of society (Kurzynski, 2012), environmental and social ends, conducting business for the good of all, and the global community (Voegtlin, Patzer & Scherer, 2012). In this study, I compared servant leadership and non-SL organization reporting outcomes as a foundation for assessment of corporate social

responsibility, organizational sustainability, and viability in the areas of the community and society.

Problem Statement

Leadership crises demonstrated by the financial failure of many U.S. companies (e.g., Bear Stearns, Arthur Anderson, and Enron) in 2008 contributed to an economic recession. Researchers turned attention to the irresponsible leadership in organizations and searched for a new or improved leadership paradigm (Kriger & Zhovtobryukh, 2013; Spangenberg, 2014). Servant leadership is one of the new genre theories under exploration, but studies have been limited to the identification and measurement of characteristics of servant leadership; this is the general problem. The specific problem was the lack of empirical research on servant leadership and its relationship to organizational TBL reporting outcomes of the economy, environment, and social change. A comprehensive summary of empirical studies exploring servant leadership theory in organizational settings does not exist (Parris & Peachey, 2013). I selected a quantitative, causal comparative research approach to study the reporting outcomes of servant and non-SL organizations for comparative analysis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, causal comparative research study was to compare data in servant-led organizations and nonservant-led organizations related to TBL reporting outcomes. TBL outcomes include economy, environment, and social change in each organization, as a foundation for assessment of corporate social responsibility, organizational sustainability, and viability in the areas of the community

and society. Using the results of this study, I attempted to provide a foundation for determining the future exploration and study of SL as a leadership theory for organizational leadership. I summarized data from the GRI (2014), which provided annual results of the TBL reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and social change for both organization types for comparative purposes. Twelve organizations were selected for all data analyses: six SL organizations with an approximate total of 4 million employees and six non-SL organizations, with an approximate comparable total number of employees.

The independent variables were all categorical between-group variables: the organization types with two levels, SL and non-SL. The dependent variables were economy, environment, and social change (including labor practice, human rights) to measure the composite TBL reporting outcomes. All dependent variables were measured according to the level of reporting of outcomes, a 1-4 rating scale (See Appendix C: GRI Data Summary Report). The dependent variable of composite TBL reporting outcomes was used to determine the mean of the total and average differences between the independent variables of organization types, SL and non-SL.

Research Question(s) and Hypotheses

The goal of this quantitative, causal comparative research was to describe organizational reporting outcomes, using the GRI Report, on a 4-point Likert scale (Allen & Seaman, 2007). Quantitative approaches were used for the questions, research methods, data collection, analysis, and inference techniques for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007).

The first goal of this research was to examine whether there were mean differences in reporting outcome variables between SL and non-SL organizations. The second goal was to determine the difference in the amount of reporting from the SL and non-SL organizations.

Research Question 1: What is the difference between the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

H_01 : In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

H_11 : In the population, the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Research Question 2: What is the difference between the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

H_02 : In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

H_12 : In the population, the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Research Question 3: What is the difference between the means of the total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

H_03 : In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL and non-SL organizations.

H_13 : In the population, the means of the total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Research Question 4: What is the difference between the means of the total and average TBL outcome reporting score of SL and non-SL organizations?

H_04 : In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average TBL outcome reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

H_14 : In the population, the means of the total and average TBL outcome reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

The independent variables were all categorical between-group variables, the organization type with two levels, SL and non-SL. The dependent variables were TBL, economy, environment, and society (community) impact. The variables were measured from ratings on a 4-point Likert scale assessment of GRI-rated outcome data reported from each organization. The data rating choices were 1 = *brief detail*; 2 = *detail*; 3 = *extensive detail*; 4 = *full coverage*, and N/A *not applicable* (not included in ratings). Please see Appendix C: GRI Data Summary Report for description of categories and elements.

Theoretical Foundation

The causal process form of theory was used to determine the probabilistic relations between SL and non-SL organization TBL reporting outcomes. The causal process form makes it easier to describe new paradigms, allows for more efficient focused research, and includes a more concise and interrelated organization of scientific knowledge (Reynolds, 2007). There are three characteristics of the causal process form of theory, which satisfy the purposes of scientific knowledge (Reynolds, 2007) and were applied to this research. One characteristic is the ability to provide a typology of SL

reporting outcomes from the organization perspective. A second characteristic is the ability to explore and derive a logical explanation and prediction of reporting outcomes from the data gained through the study, and a third characteristic is a sense of understanding which may be useful for describing or explicating a new idea or paradigm. In addition to the described reporting outcomes, according to Reynolds (2007), the causal process form of theory also allows for hypothetical or immeasurable concepts and can provide for more efficient research, as it is possible to test interrelated sets of data. Chapter 2 contains additional detailed explanation of the theoretical framework.

Positive and negative discussions remain on SL as a defined leadership theory. The philosophical assumption used in this quantitative causal comparative study was the postpositivist approach to determine the probable effects of SL on organizational reporting outcomes by employing statistical data and measurements as the strategy of inquiry. After identification of the variables as related to the hypotheses of the study, information was measured numerically, and statistical procedures were employed through electronic software.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative, causal comparative research was conducted to collect data. According to Babbie (2013), “Although often regarded as a qualitative method, comparative and historical research can make use of quantitative techniques” (p. 356). Because this study was based on reporting outcomes in the organizations, it was necessary to determine the measure of these outcomes in both types of organizations, SL and non-SL, for comparative purposes. The comparative research method provided the

opportunity to obtain data from each particular organization type. The data included the reporting outcomes of GRI data, allowing a larger picture to emerge. The comparative research approach was appropriate for study of this research problem because of the identifiable boundaries of servant-led organizations and nonservant-led organizations and the focus on organizational reporting outcomes within a sample of organizations.

Using a causal comparative research design, GRI data were used to obtain reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and social change. The independent variables were the organization types, SL and non-SL organizations. The dependent variables were the three categories of outcomes: economy, environment, and social change, with 55 intervening variables distributed over the three categories. Data analysis included manipulation through software for means of sums and averages of categories, levels of measurement, and descriptive statistics.

Other methods of research design were considered such as a qualitative case study and a quantitative survey questionnaire, but they were not selected. While a qualitative case study design might provide in-depth information on a specific organization or organizations, it would not provide information on reporting outcomes as compared to a non-SL organization on a broader perspective. With the time constriction on this research study, and the broad categories of reporting outcomes that included economy, environment, and social change, a global view of these issues through available data could be appropriately accessed through the structured and standardized data of the GRI.

Definitions

The following definitions are key terms that were used throughout the study:

Corporate social responsibility: A concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis (Dahlsrud, 2008).

Global reporting initiative (GRI): Guidelines developed through a global multistakeholder process involving representatives from business, labor, civil society, and financial markets, auditors, and regulators for standardized disclosure of environmental, economic, and social performance and impacts of organizations (GRI, 2014).

Large organization: As defined in the GRI guidelines, organizations with more than 250 employees are large organization, but they are not multinational enterprises (GRI).

Multinational enterprises (MNE): As defined in the GRI guidelines, organizations with more than 250 employees and are multinational enterprises are multinational enterprises.

Nonservant-led organization: An organization based on the pyramidal hierarchical model of all decisions made at the top of the pyramid and cascaded downward to various levels of subordinates within the organization, usually achieved through the creation of fixed division of tasks, hierarchical supervision, and detailed rules and regulations (Morgan, 1998).

Servant leadership: Leadership theory first proposed by Greenleaf in 1977 espousing the leader as a servant (Greenleaf, 2002; Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, 2012). Leaders are servants of their followers and organization.

Servant-led organization: An organization that intentionally and effectively serves everyone touched by it. It strives to make decisions that will, simultaneously, help both the people they serve and the organization's bottom line (Glashagel, 2009).

Sustainability: "Sustainability is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Sustainable practices support ecological, human, and economic health and vitality. Sustainability presumes that resources are finite, and should be used conservatively and wisely with a view to long-term priorities and consequences of the ways in which resources are used" (What is Sustainability?, 2016, p. 1).

Triple bottom line (TBL): An accounting framework that incorporates three dimensions of performance, which are social, environmental, and financial. This differs from traditional reporting frameworks as it includes ecological or environmental and social measures that can be difficult to assign appropriate means of measurement (Slaper & Hall, 2011).

Assumptions

Assumptions are those things that are considered to be true and represent things not tested. Assumptions are things that are somewhat out of the researcher's control, but if they disappear, the study would become irrelevant (Simon, 2011). One primary assumption was that the identified SL organizations obtained from a list of SL

organizations are in fact SL organizations. This list was the only list available, and the organizations chosen for the study comprised a random sample of those with GRI reports. A second assumption was that the sample of the non-SL organizations on the GRI were representative of that population. A third assumption was that the GRI reports from the organizations would provide substantive, accurate, and comparable data. Additional assumptions were that the chosen methodology was the most appropriate for this study and the collected data would provide the information needed to answer the research questions.

Scope and Delimitations

In this study, I addressed the lack of knowledge and lack of empirical research on servant leadership and its relationship to organizational TBL outcomes of economy, environment, and social change. I gathered data for this study from the GRI on organizational reporting outcomes for the period 2012 – 2014 for large and multinational organizations based in the United States. The organizations chosen for this study were identified on a list of servant-led organizations, all of which had met an identified list of criteria for inclusion and had also participated in submission of the annual GRI report. The second group of organizations chosen were a sample of nonservant-led organizations based in the United States on the GRI list. With the narrow focus of this comparative study on SL and non-SL organizations, no other leadership theories were explored such as transformational, authentic, or transactional. A causal comparative analysis was applied to the analysis of the data. Records were the primary means of data collection with inter-rater analysis. There was potential generalizability of the results to larger

populations of SL and non-SL organizations, excluding organizations not participating in the GRI reporting that had been already excluded from this study.

Limitations

Known limitations at the outset of the study that may limit the interpretation of the data were the use of the two groups of organization types, SL and non-SL, from a variety of industries, and use of one data source, the GRI. The one list of SL organizations had been newly generated with broad criteria for inclusion (Lichtenwalner, 2010). Future studies may have information available from designated SL organizations with stronger criteria, but the Lichtenwalner list of 111 organizations was the only such list available at this point in time. Likewise, the GRI report was the only structured and standardized report on organizational TBL reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and social change (GRI, 2014). The results of this study are applicable to generalization or transferability and will serve as a foundation for future studies of larger populations in a variety of industries, or to one industry, to further assess SL relationships in organizations as a leadership theory.

Significance of the Study

While scholars have focused on comparing SL with the characteristics with other leadership theories, as well as the demonstration of the characteristics on an individual and manager level, I focused on organizational SL reporting outcomes in an organizational context. Included in the focus on organizational reporting outcomes, in this study, there was equal attention to the new era TBL outcomes, with social change

assessment and environmental contribution assessment placed on a level of importance with economic outcomes within an organizational context.

Significance to Theory

This study provides information on the relationship of SL, as a leadership theory, to organization TBL reporting outcomes. According to Barling (2014), adherents to SL point to several outcomes. First, in the practice of SL, emphasis is placed on the development of employees for their own personal growth, not just in the service of the organization. Second, emphasis is placed on going beyond advancing the needs of employees, teams, and the organization, and placing equal emphasis on the health of communities. Data gained from the TBL organizational reporting outcomes provided a comparative analysis of reporting outcomes between SL and non-SL types of organizations.

Significance to Practice

With leadership failure and financial crises in the forefront, others can use data from this study. Researchers can explore SL characteristics as a tool for change. A second use will be to provide a foundation for assessment of corporate social responsibility and organizational sustainability and viability, as scholars explore the avenues of a paradigm shift in organizational leadership in facilitating outcomes for the social good. This study will be relevant to organizations seeking a paradigm shift, individual leaders throughout the global universe, and schools of business training future leaders for contribution to the greater social good.

Significance to Social Change

There is a call for corporate social responsibility (CSR) to expand to meet the challenge of shaping an inclusive and sustainable global society (Williams, 2014). Businesses have a broader purpose with a threefold challenge: economic, social, and environmental, also known as the TBL. A United Nations Global Compact (UNGC, 2013) was launched in 2000 with a mission to gain consensus on the shared values and moral norms that would guide the global economy. The UNGC reported that 70% of the respondents have projects advancing broader UN goals in the areas of education, poverty eradication, climate change, and growth and employment. As of December 2013, over 7,000 businesses in 135 countries have become signatories of the UNGC (Williams, 2014). Most companies will be involved in CSR only when it makes business sense, and the way to increase the number of companies involved with CSR is to demonstrate a relationship between leadership with TBL outcomes. To date, there is a need for measurable outcomes of SL. Businesses have broader roles in society of meeting the needs of the community and linking a company's outcomes with societal improvement.

Walden University defines the eight aspects of social change as scholarship, collaboration, systems thinking, advocacy, reflection, political/civic engagement, practice, and humane ethics (Rodrigues-Fisher, Carson, & Yob, n.d.). This quantitative causal comparative research study on the relationship of SL to the TBL primarily fell into three aspects: scholarship, advocacy, and reflection. The scholarship social change aspect of this study was developed through informing social change activity with leadership theory and research. The results of the study provided data on aspects of advocacy in

persuading others towards research action for the social good. Reflection was defined as critically thinking about the successes and weaknesses of a social change activity for and with others with a view to doing better in the future. Through the reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and social change, the results of the study may be used to identify a path for the improvement and development of future empirical research for the reporting of organizational social good and social change.

Summary and Transition

The expanded view of the importance of leadership and the events of leadership failure in large corporations has contributed to the focus on leadership theories and styles. The first goal of this research was to examine whether there are mean differences in reporting outcome variables between SL and non-SL organizations. The second goal of this study was to determine the difference in the amount of reporting from the SL and non-SL organizations. This introductory chapter to the study contained an overview of the study, a historical overview of leadership theories including the background of servant leadership, and a background of the problem and the problem statement for this study. Chapter 1 included the purpose, the research questions and hypotheses, the framework, nature of the study with definitions of terms, assumptions, scope, and significance of the study. Chapter 2 contains an in-depth literature review of historical research on leadership and SL, including literature reviews on the background, elements identifying need for change, current leadership theories, and the positive and negative proponents of SL. Chapter 3 includes the research method; Chapter 4 includes the

methodology; and Chapter 5 concludes the study with findings, discussion, implications, and recommendations for future studies.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In the literature review, the two constructs related to the research questions of the study (SL and TBL outcomes) are described. The description begins with historical research on leadership and SL, the current leadership crises, and the need for change in leadership paradigms. Description of internal organizational elements leading to leadership change such as teamwork, knowledge workers, corporate social change, and economism versus humanism are also reviewed. I covered research studies on organizational outcomes related to SL and reviewed research methods.

The problem was the lack of knowledge and lack of empirical research on servant leadership (SL) and its relationship to organizational TBL reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and social change to establish credibility as a viable leadership theory. In the literature search to date, across more than 10 databases, and more than a thousand peer-reviewed articles, plus books and dissertations, I had not found sources that addressed SL beyond the effectiveness of characteristics on individuals and the relationship of leadership characteristics to foster followership. Therefore, the purpose of this quantitative causal comparative research study was to compare data in SL organizations and non-SL organizations related to TBL reporting outcomes of the economy, environment, and social change in each type of organization, as a foundation for assessment of the level of corporate social responsibility, organizational sustainability and viability in the areas of economy, environment, and social change in the community and society. Using the results of this study, I provided a foundation for determining future study of SL as a viable leadership theory for the elusive paradigm shift to constructive

organizational leadership. As a foundation for the literature review section, the literature search strategy, including the library databases and search engines used, the origin and source of the theoretical foundation of the study and how the theory has been applied previously in ways similar to the current study were described. A comprehensive literature review related to key variables to produce a description and explanation of what is known about the variables, what is controversial and what remains to be studied were documented. The summary and conclusion contains a description of how the present study fills at least one of the gaps in the literature and provides transitional material to connect the gap in the literature to the methods described in Chapter 3.

Literature Search Strategy

SL is a link in an evolutionary chain of studies and articles on leadership theories and styles covering a span of more than 80 years. Searches were conducted regularly between June of 2011 and June 2016, covering more than a thousand articles, journals, dissertations, and books authored from the 1970s to date. Databases searched included Business Source Complete, ABI/INFORM Complete, Emerald Management, SAGE Premier, ProQuest, ERIC, EBSCO, ERICC, Academic Search Complete, and ScienceDirect. A variety of research topics were used resulting in research documents, peer-reviewed journal articles, dissertations, conference reports, and books, which were used to identify additional journals and articles on this subject. The three major themes of searches were (a) leadership and leadership change, (b) SL, and (c) TBL reporting and the GRI.

Topics researched on the theme of leadership and leadership change included, but were not limited to, historical overview, synthesis of leadership theories, leadership in crisis, operational elements leading to leadership change, and leadership paradigm shift. I examined the theme of SL through topics such as derivation and definition of SL, empirical comparison of SL to other leadership theories such as charismatic, transformational, transactional, and authentic, and various SL surveys defining the characteristics of SL. Topics on the positive and negative proponents of SL as a viable leadership theory in today's organizations were also reviewed. The focus of the third theme of inquiry, TBL reporting, consisted of a review of, but not limited to, literature related to identification of the most current and comprehensive data on organizational TBL reporting. This review culminated in the identification of the GRI as the recognized database with standardized reporting in the areas of economy, environment, and social change (Steffen, 2011). Based on the identification of the GRI as a recognized database for standardized reporting, literature on the validity and reliability of the GRI reports was reviewed. In-depth literature reviews on the three themes are documented in the literature review section of this chapter.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical construct for this study was SL, which was first coined by Greenleaf (2002). Greenleaf emphasized the importance of caring for persons, organizations, and society in general. SL is positioned as an approach to leadership that is beneficial for the organization by awakening, engaging, and developing employees as well as emphasizing the importance of listening to, appreciating, valuing, and

empowering people (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In the last decade, this people-centered leadership theory has gained momentum within academia and organizations through an emphasis on the behaviors of leaders identified as characteristics (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). Another rise in momentum for the SL theory occurred after the leadership failures that generated organizational failures and the U.S. financial crisis of 2008 (Doraiswamy, 2012; Jones, 2012a).

SL theory provided a prototype to achieve a synthesis of leadership theories with behavioral characteristics and organizational outcomes. The SL framework included an explanation of human behavior in terms of a continuous interaction between SL characteristics and TBL determinants (Glashagel, 2009). SL works (Glashagel, 2009). The key practices identified within SL theory that lead to effective leadership practices are self-awareness, listening, changing the pyramid, developing colleagues, coaching instead of controlling, unleashing the energy and intelligence of others, and the use of foresight (Glashagel, 2009; Laub, 1999; Patterson, 2003; Russell & Stone, 2002; Spears, 1995). The SL theory has been applied to certain institutions. According to Glashage (2009), institutions will never look exactly alike, but they share making decisions making processes that will, simultaneously, help both the people they serve and the organization's bottom line.

The most current identification of U.S. servant-led organizations was found from two sources online. One online list was posted by Lichtenwalner (2015), containing 111 companies. Three qualifications for inclusion on this list were all types of organizations (for-profit/nonprofit/government); exclusion of primarily religious organizations; and the

criteria of at least one, publicly documented reference from the organization on its view of, support for, or belief in servant leader principles (Lichtenwalner, 2015). The second online source contained a list of 18 companies designated as SL companies contained within Fortune's 100 best companies to work for (Lichtenwalner, 2014a).

There was recognition of SL theory in the literature, more recently as a leadership form or style, and there were organizations designated as servant-led, all without empirical research to establish the relevancy or viability of SL as a recognized leadership theory. The goal was to move the discussion on SL from mere identification of characteristics to comparison of important elements of organizational outcomes. Figure 1 depicts the theoretical framework of the study. Characteristics within SL are different from characteristics within the non-SL paradigm. However, both SL organizations and non-SL organizations had TBL outcomes of economy, environment, and social change. The bottom line outcomes for each organization type were depicted in Figure 1 as EC = economy, EV = environment, and social change.

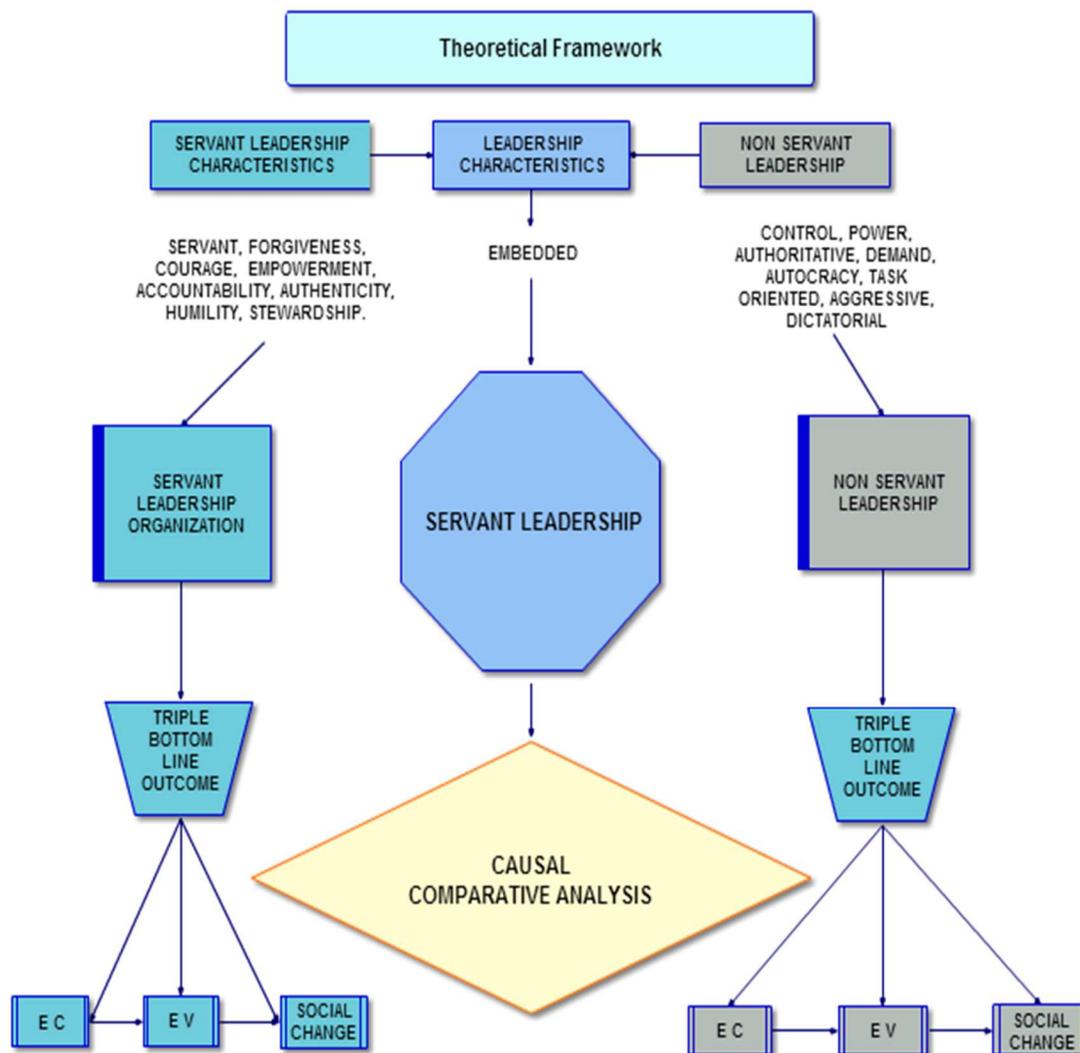


Figure 1. Theoretical framework

Principal schools of thought addressing leadership in the academic literature have shifted from the classical hierarchical focus to an emphasis on the integration and well-being of the workers, with an emphasis on leadership styles such as participative and transformational leadership (Pryor, Humphreys, Taneja, & Toombs, 2011). SL is an evolutionary concept of leadership theory, falling into the category of new genre

leadership theory, along with transformational and charismatic leadership, due to its emphasis on ethical behaviors and the leader-follower relationship (Barling, 2014).

Literature Review

Leadership and Leadership Change

An overview of the evolutionary stages of leadership spanned more than 80 years of research (Jost, 2013). A broad view of these stages provided the context in which SL theory resides. According to Barling (2014), the practitioner focus was on traits such as height, physical appearance, and socioeconomic status. Subsequently, the evolutionary leadership process moved through emphasis and focus in the following stages: 1950s, initiation and structure; 1960s, leadership behaviors; 1970s, formal power (by position); and 1980s, relational, inspirational, and ethical nature (Barling, 2014). In the 1990s and 2000s, there was an increased emphasis on scientific study and on transformational and charismatic leadership, more than all other leadership theories between 1970 and 2012 (Barling, 2014; Judge & Bono, 2000). In addition to the descriptive evolutionary process, two additional elements had an impact on organizational leadership. One impact was a challenge to conventional leadership beginning in 1993. Abrams (2008), Collins (2001), Elkington (1999), Hawken (2007), Korten (1999, 2001, 2006), Semler (1993), and Wright (2010) focused on the role of corporations and their corollary connection to capitalism as environmentally destructive, perpetuating an imperialist society. A second major influence for change in conventional leadership was realized through the advent of turbulence in financial markets, failures in corporate governance, as well as crises of credibility in the leadership of business corporations (Kriger & Zhovtobryukh, 2013).

Leadership Crises

Failure of U.S. companies such as Lehman, Bear Stearns, Arthur Anderson, Enron, Siemens, led to the U.S. financial crisis of 2008 and moved the analysis of organizational leadership failure to the forefront of research and caused a surge in corporate social responsibility initiatives (Kincaid, 2012). With this view of the importance of leadership and the events of leadership failure in large corporations, attention was turned to a focus on modern day leadership theories, styles, and behaviors. Because regulations, codes of conduct, and audits had failed to curb the wrongdoing of contemporary leaders, researchers turned their attention to leader virtues (Hackett & Wang, 2012).

Scholars have examined leadership ethics, virtues, trust, and morality. These attributes had not been readily in research studies, but were examined in academic papers. According to Hackett and Wang (2012), the leadership literature on virtues had been treated as disposition/character traits, personal emotions, personality, capabilities/competencies/skills, or personal values. Many of these characteristics are emphasized in the definition of SL. According to van Dierendonck (2011), the demand for more ethical, people-centered leadership inspired by ideas from SL theory may be what organizations need. McMahon (2012) emphasized that a productive free market system requires trust and that investors will not be inclined to invest without trust. Customers may not trust products, and employees may not give their all to the work of the business.

The practice of SL might provide a basis for developing more ethical behavior in the business environment and serve as a character ethics paradigm (McMahon, 2012). Parris and Peachey (2012) defined SL as a leadership theory linked to ethics, virtues, and morality, as a contrast to traditional leader-first paradigms, based on the Darwinism, individualistic, and capitalist approach to life. In a critical review of theories and measures of ethics-related leadership, researchers in management and other related fields are becoming increasingly interested in the ethics of leadership (Zhu, Zheng, Riggio, & Zhang, 2015). Zhu, et al. stated that several researchers have developed scales to measure SL, which include some of the personal traits of SL such as honesty, integrity, and creditability, also included in scales measuring various ethics-related leadership.

Leadership Paradigm Shift

A major shift in focus on leadership was chronicled by authors rather than through scholarly research (Abrams, 2008; Collins, 2001; Elkington, 1999; Greenleaf, 2002; Hawken, 2007; Korten, 1999, 2001, 2006; Semler, 1993; Wright, 2010). There are unconventional models of leadership such as authentic (George, 2003), new genre (Hannah, Sumanth, Lester, & Cavarretta, 2014), SL (Greenleaf, 2002), cross-cultural (Mittal, 2015), and E-leadership (Cowan, 2014). Collins (2001) described the highest level of leadership as a Level 5 leader, who is a servant leader. Greenleaf (2002) first coined the term SL in 1970:

The Servant-Leader is servant first . . . It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. .

. . The best test, and difficult to administer is this: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society? Will they benefit, or at least not further be harmed? (p. 7)

Some authors saw the need for a paradigm shift from the accelerating changes faced by organizations, such as intensifying competition, rapid commoditization, and the shift in bargaining power from producer to consumer (Hamel, 2015). Ali (2012) stated that whenever an analysis of a system changes the perception about the function (referring to leadership), then a paradigm shift occurs. According to Ali, the recent organizational revolution has led to a rejection of the traditional bureaucratic approach. Enlightened and flexible leadership techniques have been embraced, leading to shared leadership so that employees can engage in the planning and decision-making process.

In addition to these approaches to a paradigm shift in leadership, the advent and emergence of emphasis on sustainability leadership have also contributed to the paradigm shift. Tidernan, Arts, and Zandee (2013) stated that the emphasis on sustainability occurred due to the shifts in economic and organizational theory caused by new insights from fields such as social neuroscience, and mega-trends in the macro-economic and business context, particularly the mega-trend of sustainability. Pirson and Lawrence (2010) introduced the concept of social entrepreneurship, which allows for all blended value propositions, from profit making plus social value creation to social value models where capital requirements are funded through nonearned income strategies. Some

embedded social enterprise examples are Grameen Bank, Google, and Medtronic, and, as blended value models, are indicative of a paradigm shift in business (Pirson & Lawrence, 2010). While servant leadership, in a contextual view, can be seen as part of the natural evolutionary process of leadership change, and has been given impetus by events of organizational leadership crises resulting in paradigm shifts in leadership, there are also operational elements within today's organizations prompting leadership change.

Operational Elements Prompting Leadership Change

According to Spangenburg (2014), radical change was major and was occurring in every organization and every industry. The bottom line was that organizational change had become the new normal for companies in nearly every industry (Holloway, 2012). Although many external events had contributed to a search for a change in organizational leadership, concurrently, there were operational elements within the organizations which demanded leadership change. A view of some of the most prominent elements was: teamwork, information technology (IT) strategy and knowledge management, corporate social responsibility (CSR), economism versus humanism, and corporate entrepreneurship.

Teamwork. The current demand on organizational innovation and collective attention to innovation and productivity for competitive advantage had moved the organization away from the single actor hero to leadership networks where leadership acts as an integrative mechanism (Kriger & Zhovtobryukh, 2013). In this sense, leadership must value teamwork, know how to share power and knowledge with subordinates (Tebeian, 2012). SL was viewed as a strong leadership theory for the

building of strong teams because of its emphasis on listening and empowering, creating more effective and innovative teams and greater profit ability (Schmidt, 2013).

IT strategy and knowledge management. The rapid advances in technology and its use in organizations have perpetuated the increase of knowledge workers within the organizations who require a different kind of leader, one who can remain flexible, adaptable, and innovative, gaining a lasting advantage over their competitors (Hashim, 2013; Hsu, 2014). Chew (2013) stated that the ideal (for organizations) was to be able to attain a high degree of organizational fluidity allowing all members of the organization to experience self-organization in line with the changing environments. Organizations must foster knowledge giving as well as knowledge seeking through sharing of information for continual growth for all within any given organization or social setting (Akindele & Afolabi, 2013). One of the organizational challenges of today is the motivating and empowering of knowledge workers to reach their potential and feel engaged in a greater cause that benefits a wide range of stakeholders (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012). In his article on *The Future of Leadership in Learning Organizations*, Bass (2000) recognized that followers should be empowered to share in decision-making or make their own leader-free decisions. In concert with this view, Murari and Gupta (2012) stated that employee empowerment would lead to improving productivity, performance, and job satisfaction, enabling them to make quick decisions and respond quickly to any changes in the environment. One of the strong tenets of servant leadership characteristics is empowerment of others.

Corporate social responsibility. The growth in demand of attention to organizational CSR came with the understanding that it is in the interest of shareholders to be focused on the needs of all groups of stakeholders (Briggs & Stratton, 2013). Hawken, Lovins, and Lovins (1999) noted that in today's interconnected and rapidly changing global economy, that there is considerable need for elevated levels of CSR where executives are constantly looking for new ways to cut costs and increase profits. However, according to Heath and Heath (2010), in their view of the shift to CSR, for anything to change, someone has to start acting differently. For example, by living out the principles of social responsibility, change and meaning must be tied together, and real change requires that we change the underlying patterns of thought and emotion that created the old structures in the first place. This is where the characteristics of servant leadership surface. Molnar and Dolinsky (2014) and Moss (2011) stated that the progress in CSR policy improvements should be similar to the Japanese Kaizen concept, continual improvement with many small steps, and improvements producing, over time, continual advancement, and adaptive evolution of the organization.

Economism vs. humanism. Many organizations have not been able to move from the hierarchical leadership philosophies and continue to remain in an economic mold, which was built to maximize wealth and profit (Kincaid, 2012; Pirson & Lawrence, 2010). Organizations which remain in this mold brush aside new initiatives with humanitarian backbones that prioritize the public good because it goes against traditional management thinking and the school of pure capitalism (Kincaid, 2012). According to Pirson and Lawrence (2010), the humanistic view of organizations, in contrast, view

organizations as a social phenomenon essential for the relational nature of human beings, and that humanistic organizations embrace a balance of qualitatively desirable outcomes. In addition, humanistic structures reduce authority levels in the organization and decision rights are spread throughout the entire organization in a way that utilizes the expertise of all employees and provides them with the opportunity to fulfill their drive to comprehend at work (Pirson & Lawrence, 2010). Authors such as Bambale, Shamsudin, and Subramaniam (2013) and van Dierendonck and Patterson (2015) viewed SL as offering an approach that speaks beyond the moment and speaks to the humanity within us all. Bambale et al. also stated that SL could be seen as one of the humane ways of leadership in organizations with important positive emotional, psychological, and behavioral consequences for organizations. However, studies about its validity across contexts and settings remain highly neglected (Bambale et al.). Pirson and Lawrence stated that the blended value models (described above under paradigm shift) show how the economic system can be reconnected to its humanistic roots, but a lot of groundwork is needed to restructure economic institutions.

Corporate entrepreneurship. According to Morrisette and Oberman (2013), because of the major shifts in the competitive environment such as globalization, growth in technology, and the upheaval in the finance/banking industries, new strategic imperatives have emerged, increasing recognition that organizations may have to adopt a more entrepreneurial culture. Entrepreneurial orientation is defined by Morrisette and Oberman as made up of five factors: autonomy, innovativeness, pro-activeness, competitive aggressiveness, and risk-taking, all of which must be supported by an

organization's leaders, culture, and structure. Entrepreneurial leaders want independent followers who can think for themselves (Morrisette & Oberman, 2013), which falls within the characteristics of servant leadership employee empowerment.

In summary, review of literature provided a comprehensive big picture of the progression through the natural evolutionary process of leadership and leadership change to satisfy the changing needs of our organizations and society. In addition, the natural evolutionary process was affected by crises (Kincaid, 2012), leading to an even greater paradigm shift in leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011), and changes in operational elements within organizations. Changes in primary operational elements included teamwork (Tebeian, 2012), knowledge management ((Hsu, 2014), corporate social responsibility (Molnar & Dolinsky, 2014), humanism in organizations (Kincaid, 2012), and corporate entrepreneurship (Morrisette & Oberman, 2013). In the search for a new leadership paradigm, all of these elements at various times and in various combinations have led to a review of a synthesis of leadership theories.

Synthesis of Leadership Theories

In a more recent article, Latham (2014) stated that after years of practicing and researching leadership, there is still no reasonable amount of strongly convincing and comprehensible theories for leaders to follow that will predict success. According to Latham, competing leadership theories and research have been proposed by academics, while they continue to research only their favorite theory, without integrating the findings of different theories. Typically, theories eventually go through a convergent phase where the models, constructs, and relationships are tested, eliminated, refined in a process of

narrowing down the number of theories (Latham), but once created, leadership theories are seldom discarded. In another article, Latham (2013a) stated that instead of a decrease in the number of leadership theories, there has actually been an increase over the last 50 years, indicating little consensus among practitioners and academics on what constitutes effective leadership theory. In addition, most leadership research over the past 60 years has focused on lower-level supervisors and managers (Latham, 2013a). According to Kriger and Zhovtobryukh (2013), there have been tens of thousands of research papers and books written on leadership since the middle of the twentieth century, with often conflicting results, but understanding the phenomenon of effective leadership is still an unfinished task. In their view, one of the reasons is the overemphasis given by most leadership theorists to the single-actor or hero leader, to which Kriger and Zhovtobryukh suggested moving away from *stars* to leadership networks with horizontal distribution of strategic leadership functions. Parris and Peachey (2013) suggested that SL could fill this role, but the limitation is that much of the SL literature is anecdotal in nature instead of empirical. It seems that a brief empirical comparison of SL to other more current leadership theories might be useful. As noted in the historical overview and evolution of leadership theories and styles, there exists a large number of leadership theories, but this study is limited to a brief comparison of four of the theories included in the *new genre of leadership* such as authoritative, charismatic, transactional, and transformational.

Authoritative leadership. Akindele and Afolabi (2013) defined authoritative leadership as the right to direct and command others to obedience without dissent, and that this type of leadership is associated with respect generated from influence as well as

ability to secure voluntary compliance. Authoritative leadership continues to be in place as one of the effective styles, while the concept of SL is more acceptable than authoritative and SL is seen as more effective because it reflects a better use of leaders' power (Zhang & Lin, 2012).

Charismatic leadership. Akindele and Afolabi (2012) defined charismatic leadership as the acceptance or recognition of a person's right to rule due to exceptionally strong, dynamic, likeable personality and character, and relates to the personal qualities and abilities of a particular leader to shape the nature of the environment through charismatic mobilization of the people. Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) noted that servant leaders and charismatic leaders are similar in that they have clear goals followers, communicate high expectations, exhibit confidence in followers' abilities, but saw charismatic leaders as the ones who may also include dominant and manipulative behavior, showing no regard for the benefits of others.

Transactional and transformational leadership. Unlike servant leadership theory, transactional leadership and transformational leadership have been investigated in numerous empirical studies (Washington, Sutton, & Sauser, Jr., 2014) since Burns (1978) first introduced the concepts. Bass (1985) viewed leadership as a continuum with transformational leadership on one end and transactional leadership on the other end. According to Mandinezhad, Suandi, Silong, and Omar (2013), transactional and transformational leadership are not regarded as contrasting styles of leadership, and leaders might be both transactional and transformational. There is some evidence supporting the assumption that transformational leadership is higher than or goes above

and beyond transactional leadership (Mandinezhad, Suandi, Silong, & Omar, 2013; Graham, Ziegert, & Capitano, 2015). According to Shelton (2012), research has also shown that more than 88% of leaders use the transactional type of leadership, but that only less than 12% of them are truly transformational.

As viewed by Purvee and Enkhtuvshin (2015), transactional leaders motivate followers based on the leaders' respective wants. These wants are described as rewarding followers based on their performance—contingent rewards; paying attention when things go wrong or standards are not met—management by exception; and having the absence of leadership—laissez faire leadership. According to Washington, Sutton, and Sauser, Jr. (2014), transactional leaders serve their personal interests such as material benefits, status, and power by requiring followers to demonstrate behaviors compliant with the leaders' expectations, and the control strategies used do not permit follower empowerment, autonomy, and development as afforded by SL. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, considered as one of the high order evolutions in leadership (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2003), forms a distinctly separate theoretical framework of leadership from transactional leadership because of the focus on the leader and the concern for getting followers to engage in and support organizational objectives (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2003; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011).

While transformational leadership and SL both focus on followers, the overriding focus of SL is on service to followers, giving this primary distinction influence over other characteristics and outcomes, also giving rise to secondary differences between the two concepts. According to Peterson, Galvin, and Lange (2012), there is growing empirical

evidence that confirms the conceptual distinctions of SL from related leadership theories. There is an affected variance in organizational commitment, supervisory satisfaction, and procedural justice in SL beyond the variance caused by transformational leadership and leader-member exchange in a study by Ehrhart (2004). Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) in their study found that SL explained variance in organizational citizenship behaviors and in-role performance beyond that explained by transformational leadership and leadership member exchange. Tebeian (2012) stated that from theoretical studies, SL transcends the boundaries of transformational leadership by simply aligning the motives that drive the leaders with those that drive their disciples, using the core concept of leadership within the team of the *first among equals* (“*primus inter pares*”).

These studies suggested that SL is a distinct form of leadership that is relevant to important work outcomes. Choudhary, Akhtar, and Zaheer (2013) stated that while transformational leadership and SL have a few similarities, there are also some major differences, which need to be checked. In addition, they viewed that among the various concepts of leadership styles, SL is the one that sets out various behavioral and emotional aspects such as taking leadership as an opportunity for valuable service to employees and customers. Morrisette and Oberman’s (2013) stated view is that organizations must eventually progress to the level of stewardship and servant as leadership ideals. Latham (2014) stated that while transformational leadership has been widely successful, in his view, it is incomplete for the challenges facing current leaders and does not prevent abuses of power and allows for the ends to justify the means. Latham saw SL emerging as an alternative, with much of the work to synthesize SL concepts and validate this

theory with competing concepts, accomplished over the past decade by van Dierendonck (2011) and van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). Latham (2013b) in his study on leading the transformation to performance excellence (LTPE) stated that evidence suggests that spiritual leadership supports several areas not addressed by other leadership theories, in particular, the causal model of spiritual leadership includes aspects of a high-performance culture and productivity. It is SL characteristics which contain the spiritual element. According to Humphreys (2005), transformational leadership and SL behaviors emerged from the heritage of charismatic leadership theory, but only recently has the concept begun to emerge as an accepted paradigm in the leadership literature (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002).

As shown in this review of literature, there was an overlap among these theories (and others), indicating that what is needed is a *consilience* of knowledge in the leadership field that combines multiple sources of evidence into a more comprehensive and deeper understanding of the leadership phenomenon (Latham, 2014). It was in the context of the overall view of leadership and leadership change, the evolutionary stages of leadership, the paradigm shift of organizational leadership needs, and the ultimate synthesis of leadership theories, that we moved to an in depth literature review of servant leadership (SL) as a basis for this study.

Servant Leadership

SL theory has both similarities and differences with other leadership theories. Although there was overlap, none of the unconventional theories defined above incorporated all of the key characteristics of Greenleaf's (2002) SL theory. This placed

SL in a unique position. Additionally, SL theory was defined as an identified combination of motivation of a need to serve based on a foundation of characteristics and a motivation to become a leader, emphasizing the importance of follower outcomes in terms of personal growth without necessarily being related to organizational outcomes (van Dierendonck, 2011). The unique definition of SL and its identification as a member of the *unconventional* group of theories due to lack of empirical research set it apart from other leadership theories. The lack of research on its relationship to organizational outcomes of economy, environment, and social change, provided a well-structured framework for a research study on the relationship to organizational outcomes.

Based on Greenleaf's (2002) definition of SL, it is leadership that focuses on serving the employee, the customer, and the community, with serving them as priority number one (Wheatley, 2013). As stated by Greenleaf, servant leaders aspire to serve first, and then they make a conscious choice to lead. There is still no consensus on a definition and theoretical framework of SL (van Dierendonck, 2011). Humphreys, Williams, Jr., Haden, Hayek, Pryor, and Randolph-Seng (2014) defined SL as a paradoxical notion of servant-leader largely based on the belief that service towards others is an essential element of human nature. Akindele and Afolabi's (2013) summary of Greenleaf's credo stated "the servant leader serves others, rather than others serving them; serving others comes by helping them to achieve and improve their conditions" (p. 62). In an effort to define SL, numerous authors of academic papers and a few empirical studies in the form of surveys and measurements have addressed the characteristics of SL.

Characteristics of Servant Leadership

Servant leadership as a leadership theory is based on the characteristics as first defined by Greenleaf (2002) in his essays on servant leadership first published in the 1970's. These basic characteristics are: love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment (of others), service, ability, acceptance, compassion, concern for others, courage, dependability, discipline, empathy, honesty, integrity, justice, prudence, self-sacrifice, spirit, tough-mindedness, trustworthiness, and wisdom (Greenleaf, 2002). Additional authors have emphasized certain characteristics in various ways with varying emphases. Spears (1998) and Murari and Gupta (2012) developed key principles after a tedious and comprehensive review of all of Greenleaf's original writings: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, growth of others, and community building. Kincaid (2012) emphasized four key characteristics: listening, persuasion, stewardship, and community building, which he designated as characteristics needed to help organizations foster meaning in the workplace and necessary for creating effective change in organizations. According to Kincaid, Barret, president of Southwest Airlines, is an example of the use of SL characteristics to motivate 32,000 employees and kept 96.4 million customers happy. She was described by Kincaid as growing, inspiring, and supporting others to lead with a *Servant's Heart* (p. 162).

Hackett and Wang (2012) identified seven leadership concepts: moral, ethical, spiritual, servant, charismatic, transformational, and visionary, within which 61 virtues were identified (e.g., ability, acceptance, compassion, dedication, and forgiveness). In a

matrix view of the concepts with the virtues, Hackett and Wang uncovered 32 traits/virtues that have been associated with SL and 32 associated with visionary, as compared to other relationships ranging from 17 (moral) and 25 (transformational). Boone and Makhani (2012) explored the characteristics of SL in terms of five leader attitudes necessary to implement the SL style. The five attitudes were stated as: (a) believing that visioning isn't everything, but it's the beginning of everything; (b) listening is hard work requiring a major investment of personal time and effort—and worth every ounce of energy expended; (c) the job involves being a talent scout and committing to the staff's success; (d) it is good to give away power; and (e) you are a community builder (Boone and Makhani, 2012). In an effort to explore, define, and if possible, substantiate the characteristics of SL, research surveys and measurements were developed around servant leadership.

Servant Leadership Surveys and Measurements

According to Parris and Peachey (2012) and van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), there is currently not an agreed upon measurement instrument of the theoretical construct and of what SL is in terms of leader behavior. Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) stated that there is a need for studies comparing different measures to enhance insight into what the core of SL is. An instrument of SL ideally would (a) encourage empirical research to understand the real value of SL; (b) help to understand which dimensions are critical for employee well-being and performance, and (c) help to determine how SL differs from other leadership styles, such as transformational and ethical leadership (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Although there have been other surveys and

measurements, the focus here is limited to three recent measures by Bambale, Shamsudin, and Subramaniam (2013); Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, and Colwell (2011); and van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, and Colwell (2011) introduced a new scale to measure executive SL within the context of ethical leadership and its effect on followers, organizations, and the greater society. Reed et al. created a 55-item questionnaire from instruments created by Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008), Barbuto and Wheeler (2006), Page and Wong (2000), and Ehrhart (2004). The identified items measured key dimensions of SL, modifying items to target top executive behavior specifically. The list was reviewed for construct validity (Babbie, 2013), then formulated into a 4-point Likert-type questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered online to 1,522 adult learners and alumni in a private college in Florida, using a web-based survey. There were 344 participants with 218 usable questionnaires representing 14.3% of recruited participants. Previously, 13 instruments were reviewed by Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, and Colwell, but there was a lack of emphasis on measuring SL among top executives, focusing instead on measuring the behavior of immediate supervisors.

Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) developed and validated a multidimensional instrument to measure SL titled the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS). The instrument originally began with 99 items. Initially the study used eight samples totaling 1,571 persons from the Netherlands and the UK with diverse occupational backgrounds, and a combined exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis approach was used. This was followed by an analysis of the criterion-related validity. The result was 30 items in an

8-dimensional measure (categories): standing back, forgiveness, courage, empowerment, accountability, authenticity, humility, and stewardship. According to van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), results showed that the SLS has convergent validity with other leadership measures, and adds unique elements to the leadership field. Evidence for criterion-related validity came from studies relating the eight dimensions to well-being and performance. The SLS is the first measure where the underlying factor structure was developed and confirmed across several field studies in two countries, and can be used to test the underlying premises of SL theory.

Bambale, Shamsudin, and Subramaniam (2013) developed a research study to attempt to extol the importance of construct validity of the Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) SL measurement scale in contexts other than the United States and developed economies of the West. As background, Bambale et al. stated that Liden, et al. reviewed the previous taxonomies of servant leadership and developed an instrument using nine dimensions, creating value for the community, emotional healing, conceptual skills, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, empowering, behaving ethically and servant-hood. In this study, self-administered questionnaires were distributed to lower and middle level employees of three public Nigerian public utility organizations. Five hundred seventy questionnaires were distributed and 360 were returned. However, only 325 were retained as usable for data analysis. To measure servant leadership, 28 items adopted from Liden et al.'s (2008) measurement scale were used on a 7-point Likert scale. The seven servant leadership dimensions from the Liden et al. (2008) questionnaire were used as follows: (a) behaving ethically, (b) putting

subordinates first, (c) helping subordinates grow and succeed, (d) empowering, (e) conceptual skill, (f) creating value for the community, and (g) emotional healing. The study used partial least squares (PLS) structural equation modeling (SEM) to estimate its theoretical model using the software application SmartPLS.

Each of these measurements contributed to defining the characteristics of servant leadership and serving as a foundation for further study of servant leadership as a viable leadership theory. As noted throughout this literature review, there has been an extensive historical review of leadership and leadership theories, and in the evolutionary view of leadership, the attention to servant leadership as a possible paradigm shift, and attempts at practical definitions of servant leadership through identification of characteristics and measurements. However, the literature also contained views on the positive and negative proponents of servant leadership as a viable leadership theory.

Positive and Negative Proponents of Servant Leadership

The review of academic literature revealed primary attention to positive aspects of servant leadership through comparison of similarities and differences with other leadership theories, and anecdotal information and focus on the characteristics, all of which produced a limited number of empirical studies. The information found on the negative proponents were nonacademic and opinion-focused, but were included in this review for the recognition of opposing opinions.

Negative proponents of servant leadership. Negative proponents were described from two angles. One important negative view was the actual terminology *servant leadership*, and the second view was failure to see servant leadership as a viable

leadership theory in today's organizations. One online article, *An Alternative to Servant Leadership* (2015), stated that many find the term SL objectionable and suggested that there is another more acceptable alternative term such as the post-heroic manager, who, in their definition, serves as catalyst, facilitator, coach, and leads by example. McLeod (2013) acknowledged that servant leadership is the current trend, but stated that he/she loathes the term and envisions a long-suffering manager wearily going about their job with no spark or power. Another online article, *Common Objections and Misconceptions of Servant Leadership* (2014), stated objection to the term because the term servant implies slavery and ownership by others, as well as the religious concept of service while servant leadership alone, is secular in nature.

A negative proponent of servant leadership as a theory was stated by Eicher-Catt (2005) who criticized the SL model as a myth that fails to live up to what it claims. He argued that the words servant leadership fails to create a gender-neutral concept and that SL could become a means to seek submission on the part of others, especially the feminine. Kokemuller (2013) identified four areas of dissatisfaction with the ideals of servant leadership: (a) false premise—does not align with basic business structure, goes against inherent business structure; (b) lack of authority—when catering to employees, may have limited power to push employees to better performance when needed; (c) demotivating—encourages parent-child relationship; and (d) limited vision—leader needs to have some level of detachment from employees to explore new opportunities, brainstorm ideas. McCrimmon (2010) described the SL bandwagon as on track, but stated that it needs to be derailed for several reasons: (a) interesting but false, because in

business, leaders must serve owners if they want to keep their jobs; (b) true but trivial, because current theory doesn't show how SL is preferable to other 21st century concepts of leadership; (c) paternalistic, because it is a switch from critical parent to nurturing parent; (d) employee engagement, because it is not the leader's job to serve employees; (e) selflessness, because many professionals have the same motivation such as servant doctors, nurses or teachers; (f) A Model Servant Leader, because of the possible religious motivation, but stated that businesses are very different types of groups; and (g) the bottom line, because the concept is too hard to maintain in leaner times when discipline and firing may be needed, actions which invite cynicism and distrust. In an online article, No Servant Leaders (2012), servant leadership is described as merely a preference for a particular set of values and goals, and is not viewed as a distinct model of leadership itself, any more than is green leadership. Based on the lack of empirical research and construct identification supporting steward and servant leadership, Morrisette and Oberman (2013) stated that steward and servant leadership may be a leadership ideal, but is not relevant for widespread corporate entrepreneurial adoption yet.

positive proponents of servant leadership. Positive proponents of SL were found throughout the literature review in discussions on leadership change, paradigm shifts in leadership, identification of characteristics needed for the 21st century leadership, and research studies on measurement of SL characteristics. Four additional views on positive proponents of SL are included here which have been added to the literature in the previous four years. Parris and Peachey (2012) completed a study to identify empirical

studies that explored servant leadership theory and conducted a systematic literature review (SLR) to synthesize research in a systematic, transparent, and reproducible manner. According to Parris and Peachey, their findings synthesize empirical research on SL theory across the multidisciplinary fields of business, medicine, psychology, religion, leisure, education, economics, and law. The stated conclusion from the Parris and Peachey study was that SL is a viable leadership theory and can perhaps provide the ethical grounding and leadership framework needed to help address the challenges of the 21st century. For example, technological advancements, economic globalization, increased communications, the internet, rising terrorism, environmental degradation, war and violence, disease and starvation, threat of global warming, intensifying gap between the poor and rich worldwide, as well as many other unsolved issues.

Murari and Gupta (2012) stated their belief that SL provides organizations a way to improve what it is becoming and producing by building capacity through creating empowerment, enabling or authorizing an individual to think, behave, take action, and control work and decision making in autonomous ways. According to Murari and Gupta, by using the SL style, the leader brings more autonomy and decision making to employees so that they feel the responsibility to take the business to its height of success and in turn it brings competitiveness and the organization flourishes. Goh and Low (2014) stated that SL is a model which seeks to involve others in decision making, is strongly based in ethical and caring behavior and enhances the personal growth of workers while at the same time improving the caring and quality of organizational life, which are needed in the 21st century to sustain human resources capabilities. van

Dierendonck and Patterson (2015), in support of SL, stated that SL will promote high quality relations and a sense of community by emphasizing strong interpersonal relationships, and a strong bonding within organizations.

In summary, the literature indicated that the positive proponents for servant leadership as a viable leadership theory outweigh the negative proponents through academic study, comparison with other leadership theories, and measurement of characteristics of servant leadership. The identified need and gap fell within the area of lack of empirical research data on the organizational outcomes related to servant leadership. Prior to a review of research methodologies and recommended future studies to provide insight on the theoretical framework for this research study, a review of literature on how servant leadership, as a leadership theory, might contribute to social change was completed.

Servant Leadership and Social Change

I found that servant leadership does not reside in isolation from the social change process and may well be part of the evolutionary process of social change as a postmodern alternative to traditional and modern leadership theories (Riverstone, 2004). Social change has been recognized and defined throughout the ages by sociologists and theorists (Asch, 1952; Fleischmann, 2013; Hamilton, 2007; Kashima, Bain, Haslam, Peters, Laham, Whelan, & Fernando, 2009; Yzerbyt, Judd, & Corneille, 2004), to name a few. Walden University defined positive social change as “a deliberate process of creating and applying ideas, strategies, and actions to promote the worth, dignity, and development of individuals, communities, and societies. Positive social change results in

the improvement of human and social conditions” (Rodrigues-Fisher, Carson, & Yob, n.d., p. 6.) It was of interest to note that the leadership focus is now in what has been labeled as a “change maker mindset” (Fleishman, 2013, p. 1). With economic and social problems becoming increasingly complex and part of larger systems, there was an intertwined connection between people, communities, and cultures informed in ways that were unimaginable 10 years ago (Fleishmann, 2013). This has provided the foundation for integrating collaborative practice in higher education programs and formulating new programs, making some commonly known factors that inhibited multidisciplinary or interdisciplinary collaboration obsolete (Anderson, 2012). Through the review of literature, I have documented five distinct categories of social change, which can be correlated to the phenomenon of SL. They are organizational citizenship behavior, corporate social responsibility, social entrepreneurship, social leadership, and a newly identified concept of servant financial leadership.

Organizational citizenship behavior. According to Zehir, Akyuz, Eren, and Turhan (2013), there are many leadership paradigms, but only a few of them have been researched for the purpose of establishing the relationship of servant leadership with both the variables of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational justice. SL comes to the surface as one of the most essential concepts to play a significant role in guiding behavior and formulating organizational values that support organizational justice, organizational citizenship, and performance (Zehir et al., 2013). Through the use of comparative data on SL organizational reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and

social change, I attempted to determine the relationship of these variables to organizational citizenship behavior.

Corporate social responsibility. In the new paradigm (as described earlier), there is a call for businesses to have a broader purpose with a threefold challenge of positive contributions in the areas of economy, social change, and environment, also known as the triple bottom line (Williams, 2014). It was my view that most companies will be involved with CSR to the degree that CSR effectively demonstrates the business case with triple bottom line outcomes. There was a need for measurable outcomes of the relationship or nonrelationship of servant leadership to CSR. It was my intent that this study would provide a view of the business reporting outcomes, which would return the organizational view to the notion that it had broader roles in society, meeting important needs of the community, and linking a company's outcomes with societal improvement because current sustainability challenges presented a challenge to traditional business concepts and thinking (Tidernan, Arts, & Zandee, 2013).

Social entrepreneurship. Although not new, social entrepreneurship has gained momentum in recent years perpetuated by the growing complexity of economic and social problems (Jegatheeswaran, 2013). According to Fleischmann (2013), social entrepreneurs are creative, practical, use resources wisely and seek opportunities, but are the creation team along with social entrepreneurs and social designers. This requires all who are involved to develop empathy, to share and to accept equal partnership in the creation process, requiring a particular mindset and the development of participatory

thinking or characteristics of servant leadership. Through this study, activities and reporting results in the area of social entrepreneurship were identified.

Social leadership. The era of social media is a major element of social change, and has brought attention to the need for social leadership, identifying the key principles that successful leaders must follow such as listening, action-oriented, integrity, connecting, being open, and to serve (Lichtenwalner, 2014b). Because service is the cornerstone of all of these principles, Lichtenwalner also stated that the concept of servant leadership is important for contemporary leaders. According to Chew (2013) and Yoo, Roland, Lyytinen, and Majchrzak (2012), organizations are being pervasively permeated with digital technology, particularly social media, and it is radically changing the nature and form of organizing. The organization of the future (OOTF) leadership is socially constructed and distributed throughout the organization in a dynamic and fluid leading-following adaptive process interchanging leader-follower identities and relationships contingent on the value creation contexts (Chew, 2013). Chew also stated that the ideal is to be able to attain a high degree of organizational fluidity allowing all members of the organization to experience self-organization in line with the changing environments. The reporting outcomes of social leadership and the relationship to organizational outcomes through the results of this study were identified.

Servant financial leadership. Zehetner and Steinkellner (2014) developed a new concept termed servant financial leadership by identifying, which core elements of financial leadership focused on creating social value and social improvement, and using new and practical ideas to create innovative services or goods that address social need.

One of the tenets of social entrepreneurship is co-creation and a participatory mindset (Fleishmann, 2013). The end-user or people for whom the product or service is created who receive expert status in servant leadership can be made effective in the financial sector. Their premise was based on the strong emphasis on stewardship in the existing concept of financial leadership, dating back to 2007, and combining the concept of servant leadership characteristics with the concept of financial leadership characteristics (Zehetner & Steinkellner, 2014). The findings of this study showed the relationship of servant leadership to organizational economic reporting outcomes.

The potential positive social change for this study was at the organizational and community level. Some theorists believe that if the tenets of servant leadership are practiced, organizations can be transformed into servant institutions and this will influence individuals within the organization, the community, and the world in positive ways for the common good (Keith, 2012). A literature review of research methodologies for servant leadership and recommended future studies follows.

Research Methodologies for Servant Leadership and Recommended Future Studies

Research methodologies. In the systematic literature review (SLR) of servant leadership theory in organizational contexts by Parris and Peachey (2013), they found 11 qualitative studies, 27 quantitative studies, and one mixed mode study, all empirically assessing servant leadership theory, with studies being conducted in 11 countries.

According to Parris and Peachey, all of the 27 quantitative studies used surveys as the data collection methods, with 14 different measures used. Similarly, the 11 qualitative studies used a variety of servant leadership frameworks to inform their analyses, while

authors of three studies did not provide any information on frameworks (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Several recommendations were made for future studies on servant leadership by Parris and Peachey. They were: explore how to implement (operationalize) SL in an established organization, develop critical appraisal tools for quantitative research used in the field of management to conduct SL research, and create the possibility for combining the results of multiple studies (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Several additional research methodologies for servant leadership studies were reviewed such as the Parris and Peachey summary of empirical studies and a variety of additional studies.

According to Parris and Peachey (2013), a comprehensive summary of empirical studies exploring SL theory in organizational settings does not exist, leaving a gap in the extant literature. Review of 12 studies revealed that 11 used self-developed measures, some from combining and modifying items from other questionnaires, and one study used the van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) servant leadership survey (SLS). The SLS is the first measure where the underlying factor structure was developed and confirmed across several field studies in two countries and can be used to test the underlying premises of the SL theory (van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011). Results showed that the SLS had convergent validity with other leadership measures, and also added unique elements to the leadership field, providing evidence for criterion-related validity of studies relating 30 items to the 8 dimensions: standing back, forgiveness, courage, empowerment, accountability, authenticity, humility, and stewardship. Using the SLS, Kashyap and Rangnekar (2014) completed a research study investigating the interrelationships among Employer Brand Perception, Servant Leadership, and Perceived

Employee Retention, using data from 169 employees working in Indian public and private sector organizations. A brief overview of the remaining eleven methodologies follows.

The remaining 11 research methodologies revealed a wide range of approaches and combinations of measurements in the studies. Peterson, Galvin, and Lange (2012) in their study on CEO Servant Leadership, Exploring Executive Characteristics and Firm Performance, used four separate time surveys at 3-month intervals. They tested 126 CEOs based in the Western United States from the software and hardware technology industries. Their study measured *narcissism*, using the Ames, Rose, and Anderson (2006) 16-item Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI-16); *organizational identification*, using a 9-item Organizational Identification scale from Boivie, Lange, McDonald, and Westphal (2011); *servant leadership*, using only 16 of 28 items from Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson's (2008) scale; and *firm performance*, using an accounting measure, return on assets (ROA).

Washington, Sutton, and Sauser, Jr. (2014) in their study used several different measures such as, the Liden, et al. (2008) 28-item servant leadership instrument for *servant leadership*, and the Avolio and Bass (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-Form 5X) for *transformational leadership* and *transactional leadership*. Data were gathered from 207 employees in five public and private sector organizations in the Southern United States to do empirical comparisons of servant leadership with competing theories. A multiorganizational sample was used to enhance the variation and generalizability of responses. Organizations included a daycare center, a community

foundation, a newspaper, and two municipal public works facilities (each public works facility was located in a different state). A review of additional servant leadership- related studies revealed researcher-designed questionnaires or other similar combinations of questionnaires were used by Bambale, Shamsudin, and Subramaniam (2013); Choudhary, Akhtar, and Zaheer (2013); Latham (2013a); McCann, Graves and Cox (2014); Murari and Gupta (2012); Peterson, Galvin, and Lange (2012); Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell (2011); and Zhang and Lin (2012). For this study, data from the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) was used. According to Hahn and Lulfs (2014), the GRI guidelines are regarded as the *de facto* global standard for voluntary sustainability disclosure, challenging companies to provide transparent, complete, and balanced reports on organizational governance, economy, environment, and social change.

Recommended future studies. Recommendations for future studies fell generally into the following categories:

- examine the psychological capital of servant leadership (Humphreys, Williams, Jr., Haden, Hayek, Pryor, & Randolph-Seng, 2014), and incorporate both qualitative and quantitative methodology (McCann, Graves & Cox, 2014);
- determine the relationship between leadership styles, ethical leadership, and sustainable leadership in other industries or categories of workers and application to the manufacturing sector of organizations (Choudhary, Akhtar, & Zaheer, 2013; McCann & Sweet, 2014);

- examine the influence of servant leadership and the servant-led organization on organizational outcomes (Reed, Vidaver-Cohen & Colwell, 2011);
- examine the psychological capital of servant leadership (Humphreys, Williams, Jr., Haden, Hayek, Pryor, & Randolph-Seng, 2014); examine the systematic and theoretical or empirical analysis of relationship between characteristics of servant leadership and corporate social responsibility (McCann & Holt, 2011; McCann & Sweet, 2014; Peterson, Galvin & Lange, 2012; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen & Colwell, 2011);
- determine the relationship between leadership styles, ethical leadership, and sustainable leadership in other industries or categories of workers and application to the manufacturing sector of organizations (Choudhary, Akhtar, & Zaheer, 2013; McCann & Sweet, 2014).

Only one of the authors of the current studies reviewed indicated a need for future studies on the relationship of servant leadership to organizational outcomes (Reed, Vidaver-Cohen & Colwell, 2011), although there are a limited number of studies which relate leadership generally to organizational outcomes as stated by Peterson, Galvin, and Lange (2012). The gap was the lack of comparing servant leadership to organizational outcomes, using a standardized, structured, and comparable set of data.

Triple Bottom Line Reporting and the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI)

Definition history evolution. The history of triple bottom line reporting dates back to the early 1900s, when corporations were first held accountable by different stakeholders (Morf, Flesher, Hayek, Pane, & Hayek, 2013). According to Morf et al., the focus of corporate accountability shifted over time as the level of power and influence changed among stakeholders who became the primary audience holding the firm responsible for its actions. This change is now what we know as corporate social responsibility (CSR), which is distinctly different from corporate accountability (Morf et al., 2013). Corporate accountability, as stated by Morf et al., recognized organizations as embedded in society where relations are bound not only by legal contracts, but also by social contracts and the source of stakeholder power lies in the general assumptions that companies must acknowledge that the interests of stakeholders are of intrinsic value and should behave accordingly. According to Carroll (1999), the contemporary concept of social responsibility is generally attributed to Bowen (1953), who articulated the concept in his seminal work, and is considered the Father of CSR. The major distinction between CSR and the original corporate accountability perspective is that in order to consider a firm socially responsible, the behaviors must be voluntary, while the assumption of corporate accountability is that stakeholders retain the power to influence organizations (Morf et al., 2013).

Morf, Flesher, Hayek, Pane, and Hayek (2013) completed a study in which the annual reports of 14 prominent U.S. corporations were studied from the 1900s through 2010. The annual reports revealed that during the early 1900s organizations, primarily focused on employee wellbeing and the importance of employees, changed emphasis in subsequent years to external stakeholders, shareholders, customer relations, and government (Morf, et al., 2013). By 1970 corporate social responsibility became the buzzword, addressing a host of social and ethical issues, reflected by a supplemental annual report titled, *Social Reporting* or *Corporate Social Responsibility Report* (Morf et al., 2013). The phrase triple bottom line reporting (TBL) was first coined by Elkington in 1997 and encapsulated three dimensions of business performance: economic, environment, and social (Elkington, 1999). According to Sridhar (2012), it was the TBL reporting that helped create a shift in corporate thinking, from a focus on only profits to a concern for environmental and social areas of performance. Molnar and Dolinsky (2014) stated that traditional management systems were not designed for a balanced view of financial, environmental, and social metrics. Advanced entrepreneurial subjects are dedicating more and more activities towards accepting the triple bottom line approach oriented toward environmentally friendly approaches within the entire company (Molnar & Dolinsky, 2014).

According to Boerner (2012), as a response to the financial crisis and collapse represented by such companies as Enron and WorldCom, and legislation such as the Sarbanes-Oxley Act (SOX), and the Dodd-Frank Act, all indicating the need for more transparency, disclosure, and reporting, the preferred global framework that has emerged

for this voluntary approach over the past decade is the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) (2014). The GRI is a framework for developing and implementing sustainability and responsibility strategies and actions and then disclosing and reporting organizational outcomes. As a global organization founded in 1997, the GRI was developed by two U.S.-based not-for-profit organizations (Doupnik & Perera, 2012; James, 2013). As described by GRI, it is an organizational report providing information on economic, environmental, social, and governance performance and it is currently in its fourth generation of guidelines, referred to as G4 (GRI, 2014).

Global reporting initiative. As described by Boerner (2012), the GRI has partnerships with ISO (the global standards setter), the UN Global Compact, OECD, and the UN Environmental Programme. The GRI guidelines are synergistic with the International Finance Corporation, Earth Charter, and the UN Conference on Trade and Development, and its purpose is to enable greater organizational transparency (Boerner, 2012). According to Hahn and Lulfs (2014), the GRI guidelines are regarded as the *de facto* global standard for voluntary sustainability disclosure, challenging companies to provide transparent, complete, and balanced reports. The GRI challenges companies to provide positive and negative corporate contributions to sustainability to enable a reasoned assessment of overall performance (Hahn & Lulfs, 2014). Leszcynska (2012) stated that the GRI guidelines are the most widely recognized and acknowledged by many corporations, and they serve as the first framework for providing guidance about the disclosure of sustainability performance. More than 75% of the Global Fortune 250 companies follow the guideline, and the guidelines offer a core content for reporting that

is relevant to all organizations with definitions, scope, and compilation methods to help organizations to ensure a meaningful and comparable reporting on indicators (Leszcynska, 2012).

The current iteration of the GRI G4 is viewed as a significant step forward from the familiar mandated financial reporting of U.S. companies (Boerner, 2013). The structure of the G4 framework has four major sections (GRI, 2014). The four sections are: (a) general standard disclosures—strategy and analysis, organization profile, governance, ethics, integrity, disclosure for specific sectors; (b) aspects of company's significant economic, environmental, and social influence; (c) comparability for company-to-company, sector-to-sector comparisons, accuracy, timeliness, clarity, reliability; and (d) disclosures on management approach (Boerner, 2013). Tschopp and Nastanski (2014) completed a study on *The Harmonization and Convergence of Corporate Social Responsibility Reporting Standards* in which the GRI was one of the four studied. The remaining three globally recognized reporting standards studied were AccountAbility's AA1000 - Principles Standard, the United Nations (UN Global Compact's COP), and the ISO 26000 (Tschopp & Nastanski, 2014). The result of the research suggested that the GRI would be the best standard to provide decision useful information (Tschopp & Nastanski, 2014). The GRI G4 was used in this study as a reliable, recognized, and standardized report for comparison of organizational profiles and reporting outcomes in the areas of governance, economic, environmental, and social change.

Servant Leadership and the GRI

According to Morf, Flesher, Pane, and Hayek (2013), from the corporate accountability perspective, the source of stakeholder power lies in the general assumptions that individuals incorporate their moral values into their economic decisions. Business organizations are increasingly seeking leadership that emphasizes ethics and a concern for society, in part as a reaction to the numerous high profile scandals involving greedy and selfish corporate management (van Dierendonck, 2011). Examination of the relationship between SL and firm performance is particularly important in light of the mixed results in prior empirical studies examining the effect of other forms of leadership, especially transformational leadership, on firm performance (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012). According to McCann, Graves, and Cox (2012), SL embraces the triple bottom line (sustaining people, profit and planet) and practices moral symmetry to balance the needs of all affected. Several studies have alluded to a direct causal relationship between leadership and customer satisfaction, employee satisfaction, and financial performance (Jones, 2012b; Khan, Hafeez, Rizvi, Hasmain, & Marian, 2012; Obiwuru, Okwu, Akpa, & Nwankere, 2011). McCann et al. (2012) also stated that servant leaders should be viewed as trustees of the human capital of an organization. Researchers have argued that CEO leadership behaviors have serious consequence to the bottom line of the firm, but empirical research linking CEO leadership behaviors to firm performance is limited (Peterson et al., 2012).

Peterson et al. stated that SL might be important for firm performance from both a practical and theoretical concept. From the practical standpoint, anecdotal evidence from the business press suggests that a focus on community relationships and service, and consideration of a broad range of stakeholders, may be a key to a firm's success in today's environment. From the theoretical standpoint, research has indicated that CEO leadership that takes into account a range of stakeholders may be particularly inspiring to followers, ultimately, resulting in higher levels of firm performance, although CEO SL has not received research attention (Peterson et al., 2012).

Critique of the GRI

Sustainability and CSR reporting have become a standard topic in management and accounting, and in 2011, 95% of the 250 largest global companies published such a report (Hahn & Lulfs, 2014). Milne and Gray (2013) critiqued the concept of the TBL and GRI as insufficient conditions for organizations contributing to the sustaining of the earth's ecology. According to Guenther, Hoppe, and Poser (2006), on average, companies report only one-third of the indicators suggested by GRI, and focus on the indicators perceived to be the most relevant to the industry or the specific business. They also stated that the quantity-quality gap is most obvious for those indicators requiring data to be especially collected, such as that for greenhouse gas emissions (Guenther et al., 2006). Milne and Gray critiqued the concept of both the TBL generally, and the GRI specifically.

Milne and Gray (2013) argued that the TBL core and dominant idea that continues to pervade business reporting, and business engagement with sustainability,

incorporating an entity's economic, environmental, and social performance indicators into its management and reporting process, may in practice reinforce business-as-usual and greater levels of unsustainability. According to Milne and Gray, these three elements are not and cannot be mutually supportive, and, as a management goal, their equal achievement is impossible. According to Hahn and Lulfs (2014), prior studies identified an abundance of positive information in CSR reports and a lack of negative voluntary disclosure. Regulation seems to be of little help in this aspect since there is only very limited regulatory guidance on sustainability reporting (Hahn & Lulfs, 2014). Corporate sustainability reports are supposed to provide a complete and balanced picture of corporate sustainability performance, but since they are voluntary, they are prone to interpretation and even greenwashing tendencies (Hahn & Lulfs, 2014). Starting from the theoretical lenses of economics-based disclosure theories and socio-political theories of disclosure, Hahn and Lulfs completed a study to analyze the communicative legitimation strategies companies use to report *negative aspects* of ecological and social impact caused by corporate activity. In their study, they identified six legitimation strategies: marginalization, abstraction, indicating facts, rationalization, authorization, and corrective action (Hahn & Lulfs, 2014). The study contains full definitions, descriptions, and examples of each strategy and was good knowledge for application while reviewing the sustainability reports included in this study.

Although the TBL reporting and the GRI have been deemed as insufficient conditions for organizations contributing to the sustaining of the earth's ecology (Milne & Gray, 2013), they also stated that as the predominant set of guidelines, the GRI seems

the obvious candidate to emerge and be backed by any governmental policy on reporting. According to Milne and Gray, the GRI is both an independent institution, but also the world's first standardized approach to sustainability reporting. Since the GRI has entered the fabric of organizational nonfinancial reporting and become almost ubiquitous as the basis on which organizations report, and the intellectual framework through which both TBL and sustainability are articulated at the organizational level, the GRI is appropriate for covering all of the relevant issues (Leszcynska, 2012; Milne & Gray, 2013).

Summary and Conclusions

The three major constructs related to the research questions of this study were explored: leadership and leadership change, servant leadership, and triple bottom line outcomes. I have used each major theme to complete an in-depth exploration of subtopics within each theme for definitions, descriptions, analyses, and clarity of their connection to the research study. From this literature review, it was known that due to the process of the natural evolutionary change in leadership, plus failures in leadership behaviors, creating crises and a paradigm shift, that there was a current demand for more ethical, people-centered management, more closely aligned with servant leadership theory. In addition to the above change process in leadership, it was also known that there were internal organizational, operational elements directing a need for leadership change such as teamwork, IT strategy and knowledge management, corporate social responsibility, shift from economism to humanism, and successful corporate entrepreneurship. It was known that the dependent variable of organizational outcomes had been measured through the years, using various reporting modalities, and the newest, standardized,

recognized global reporting lay with the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), which was used for this study.

The major gaps identified in this literature review were the lack of empirical research and data on the relationship of servant leadership to organizational outcomes, and the lack of use of any standardized, comparable data, such as the GRI, on organizational outcomes related to servant leadership or any other leadership theory. These gaps as identified in the literature review, were addressed in the design and methodology of this study in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Research Method

There is a lack of empirical research on SL and its relationship to organizational TBL outcomes of economy, environment, and social change. The purpose of this causal comparative research study was to compare reporting outcome data in SL and non-SL organizations related to TBL reporting outcomes that included economy, environment, and social change in each organization. The quantitative, causal comparative methodology provided the framework for the comparison of reporting outcomes of SL and non-SL organizations. Major sections of this chapter include the research design and rationale, the methodology used, the procedures used for data collection, the data analysis plan, threats to validity, and a summary.

Research Design and Rationale

A quantitative, causal comparative research design was selected as the most appropriate for this study because pre-existing groups were compared. The groups consisted of SL and non-SL organizations. In this study, mean group differences of outcomes between SL and non-SL organizations were examined. Statistics were used to quantify the group differences, and results are more easily generalized to the larger population and, thereby, are more valuable to research. One advantage of using a quantitative methodology for this study was that the outcome data had already been voluntarily submitted to a recognized database without my involvement. The independent variables were all categorical between group variables, the organization types with two levels, SL and non-SL. The dependent variables were economy, environment, social change, and composite TBL outcome. The dependent variable of composite TBL

reporting outcomes was used to determine the mean differences between the independent variables of organization types, SL and non-SL.

Quantitative causal comparative research was the method of choice to collect data about the issue under study. According to Babbie (2013), “Quantification often makes our observations more explicit. It also can make it easier to aggregate, compare, and summarize data. Further, it opens up the possibility of statistical analyses, ranging from simple averages to complex formulas and mathematical models” (p. 25). The quantitative causal comparative research approach was appropriate for the study of this research problem because of the identifiable boundaries of designated SL organizations and non-SL organizations and the defined reporting outcomes within each. Two sources of data used for this study were a list of SL companies and the GRI list of companies covering 2012 – 2014, which provided this time parameter on the data obtained. The list of SL companies was the only available list as of 2015 (Lichtenwalner, 2015), with 12 out of 111 organizations on the list that participated in GRI reporting. The GRI report was the most recent primary recognized report on organizational outcomes (GRI, 2014). There were no additional time and resource constraints with the design choice. The intent of this research design was to advance knowledge in the discipline of leadership by being the first to compare levels of reporting of organizational outcomes of SL and non-SL organizations.

Methodology

Population

The population consisted of organizations from which a random sample of six of the total SL organizations, 12, that met the following criteria: (a) had been identified as SL organizations, (b) had home businesses in the United States although they may be large or MNE, and (c) had 2012 – 2014 GRI reports. The exclusion criteria consisted of SL and non-SL organizations that did not have 2012 – 2014 GRI reports, and organizations with home bases outside of the United States. Organizations within the United States with fewer than 250 employees were also excluded from this study. The population size of all SL organizations that met the inclusion criteria described above consisted of 12 organizations (Lichtenwalner, 2015). Therefore, a random sample of six SL organizations was used in the analyses. The population size of non-SL organizations that met the same criteria consisted of 395 organizations.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

A sample of non-SL organizations, were chosen from a population of 395 non-SL organizations on the GRI list. These organizations had equal sample sizes, provided greater accuracy and greater power of the statistical analyses. The geographical region of the study was U.S. home-based organizations voluntarily participating in the GRI. Null hypothesis significance testing (NHST) and its respective confidence intervals provided information about the results of the study (Tellez, Garcia, & Corral-Verdugo, 2015). Tellez et al. (2015) recommended establishing an appropriate sample size by calculating the optimum statistical power at the moment that the research was designed. A random

sample of six non-SL organizations was drawn using SPSS software that permitted me to select a sample and then to determine if it possessed qualities that captured characteristics of the entire sample.

Procedures for Use of Archival Data

Based on the focus of this study, the research procedure began with identification of sources of SL and non-SL organizations and a source for TBL reporting outcomes for these organizations. Only within the previous 2 years has a list of SL organizations been generated (Lichtenwalner, 2015). For access to organizational outcomes, the GRI, a public document, was selected. The GRI was founded in 1997 and served as the first framework for providing guidance about the disclosure of sustainability performance. A full description and evolution of the GRI was found in the Literature Review section of Chapter 2 and the Instrumentation section of this chapter.

The methodology applied in this study consisted of 10 steps. First, of the 111 organizations on the list of SL organizations, 12 were also included on the 2012 – 2014 GRI list, resulting in a random sample of six SL organizations with GRI reporting selected for the study. Second, six non-SL organizations were selected using a random sampling of the remaining 395 U.S. organizations on the 2012 – 2014 GRI list meeting the inclusion criteria for the study. Third, a printout of the complete GRI G4 Report Guideline, a public document, was obtained that contained the reporting categories, instructions, and definitions of content (Appendix A: GRI Guideline Sample Page). Fourth, from the GRI guidelines, a GRI organization profile (see Appendix B: GRI Organization Profile and Governance) and a GRI data summary report (see Appendix C:

GRI Data Summary Report) were developed using a 4-point Likert scale for use in capturing categorical data from each organization's GRI report. Fifth, GRI reports from the 12 organizations, public information on the Internet, were obtained. Sixth, each organization's GRI report content was rated according to the scale (see Appendix C: GRI Data Summary Report and Appendix D: GRI Data Summary Report Range of Scores) and the data were entered into SPSS software. Seventh, each GRI report was rated by a second rater and entered into SPSS. The ratings were compared, and inconsistencies in ratings reviewed and resolved for a final rating of the intervening variables, categories, and organization summary report for each organization in the study. Eighth, final ratings were transported to SPSS software for data analysis and statistical tests. The final steps of the procedure included Step 9, final analysis and discussion, and Step 10, summary and conclusion.

Two inter-raters were used for assignment of the GRI Report ratings, and levels of ratings were resolved to produce a finite rating of intervening and dependent variables for each organization in the study. Each rater and a statistician consultant signed a Confidentiality Agreement to guard against release of organization names used in the study. Please see Appendix F: Confidentiality Agreement. I provided the introduction to the rating system, training and guidance on rating, for consistency in the level of rating definition and assignment. One rater had a PhD in management (Walden University), and a second rater held a MBA in management (Walden University). The statistician consultant held a bachelor's in mathematics and masters in educational administration. Both of the raters and the consultant were knowledgeable and experienced in research

and report analysis. The ratings from the two raters were compared between the raters; the ratings were discussed and resolved, producing a final rating of all variables for each organization. The final ratings were used in the SPSS data analysis phase of the study.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Organizations were identified anonymously (i.e., SL organizations A 1-6 and non-SL organizations B 1 – 6). Using the GRI guidelines, an organization profile was developed for use in summarizing each profile using the anonymous identification (see Appendix B: GRI Organization Profile and Governance). The organization profile content was grouped by organization designation, SL (A) and non-SL (B), and the content was summarized in strict narrative form without scaling or rating. Using the GRI guidelines, a GRI data summary report was developed (Appendix C: GRI Data Summary Report) using a 4-point Likert scale for the rating of data. Report elements were selected for each TBL category of economy, environment, and social (impact). A 4-point Likert scale was developed for the rating of level of reporting for each element within each category (means of sums and average of each category, and means of sums and average of TBL reporting outcomes) including all three categories. The range of scores for each element, category, and sum of categories is shown in Appendix D: GRI Data Summary Report Range of Scores.

GRI data summary report. While the GRI provided the content of organizational TBL outcomes, there were various limitations. All organizations (private, public, or nonprofit) were encouraged to report against the guidelines, but the reporting could take various forms relative to content, such as the opportunity to choose reporting

against the full GRI reporting framework from the outset, while others may start with the most feasible topics first and phase in reporting on other topics over time or omit some topics. According to Sherman and DiGuilio (2010), another limitation in use of the GRI is that the reports included both direct and indirect economic, environmental, and social impacts. Therefore, some of the information may be quantitative (i.e., total workforce by employment type, employment contract, and region), while other information may be qualitative (i.e., procedures for local hiring and proportion of senior management hired from the local community). Quantitative indicators may also be expressed in various monetary and nonmonetary units of measure, and in some cases, the indicators could not be added together or subtracted from one another to create a bottom line for economic, environmental, or social performance comparisons.

In order to use the GRI in a reliable and valid way, the focus of this study was on the level of reporting rather than attempting to summarize incompatible content within the dependent intervening variables, dependent variable categories, and dependent variable composite TBL outcomes. Validity of reporting outcome measurement was critical and needed verification and substantiation by inter-raters for the results of the study to be credible and useful. According to Frankfort-Nachimias and Nachmias (2008), the basic question of validity was whether the factors intended for measure were in fact measured. Content validity was addressed in two areas: face validity (appropriateness of the instrument for measuring the concept) and sampling validity (the population chosen to be assessed). For face validity, the GRI was used, and its content, strengths, and limitations have been presented in detail above. The limitations were addressed in this

study by quantifying the level of reporting for each selected element and category rather than attempting to quantify the content of each element and category. For sampling validity, a random sample of the population of servant organizations with GRI reporting was used, and a random sample of nonservant organizations with GRI reporting was used and data gathered within a prescribed timeframe. Use of the pretested framework of the GRI for reporting consistency provided validity and reliability to the reporting level of content validity.

The GRI report guidelines are organized into four major categories, but only certain items within each category were selected for this study to gather data for comparative purposes. To assess and summarize the level of GRI report data, I followed the guideline reported by Leszcynska (2012). According to Leszcynska, several potential metrics were considered before adopting the GRI methodology as the basis for evaluation because it was generally used and available. Sixty-nine percent of the largest companies by revenue follow the GRI sustainability reporting guidelines (Leszcynska, 2012). Based on the categories of economy, environment, and social change (each category covering a group of topics characterizing it), a range of points was applied in evaluating content in sustainability reports between 1 and 4 (1 = *brief or generic statements*, 2 = *more detailed coverage*, 3 = *extensive coverage*, 4 = *full coverage*). If the topic was not mentioned, the item did not get a score, but was designated N/A (not applicable) indicating an item blank or no rating applicable to the scale in the study. For the purpose of this study, total scores for all dependent item and category variables were rated and calculated by summing individual item responses.

The maximum score in Leszcynska's (2012) example was 312 for seven topics. I applied this methodology for the scaling of the data to be evaluated on the three dependent variable categories and 55 intervening variables selected for this study. Please see Appendix D: GRI Data Summary Report Range of Scores. The range of scores for each dependent variable category was economy 9 - 36, environment 14 - 56, and social change 32 - 128, with a composite TBL (including all three categories) range of 55 - 220. Please see Appendix D: GRI Data Summary Report of Range of Scores. The sum scores for each independent variable, SL and non-SL organizations, were statistically analyzed through the same SPSS detail as described in the section on instrumentation. In this study, I suggested a way to calculate total outcome scores on the level of reporting for a selection of items within the categories of economy, environment, and social change. Permission for use of Leszczynski's sustainability report analysis had been obtained. Please see Appendix E. Permission for Use of Sustainability Report Analysis.

Data Analysis Plan

Preliminary analyses were run to examine the distributions of all dependent variables separately for each group. Descriptive statistics, such as measures of central tendency and dispersion, were reported in the results. Hypotheses 1 – 4 were tested using independent samples *t* tests, with an independent variable being organization type, with two levels, SL and non-SL, that were independent of each other with the following dependent variables of economy, environment, social (impact), and composite triple bottom line (all three categories). The assumptions of normality and homogeneity of

variance were evaluated for each independent samples *t* test. SPSS software was used for all statistical analyses.

Research Questions and Corresponding Hypotheses

Research Question 1: What is the difference between the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

*H*₀1: In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

*H*₁1: In the population, the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Research Question 2: What is the difference between the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

*H*₀2: In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

*H*₁2: In the population, the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Research Question 3: What is the difference between the means of the total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

*H*₀3: In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL and non-SL organizations.

*H*₁3: In the population, the means of the total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Research Question 4: What is the difference between the means of the total and average TBL outcome reporting score of SL and non-SL organizations?

H₀4: In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average TBL outcome reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

H₁4: In the population, the means of the total and average TBL outcome reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Threats to Validity

External Validity

Threats to validity may be assessed in the areas of internal and external threats, content validity, empirical validity, and construct validity. According to Babbie (2013), validity in quantitative research is defined as “a measure that accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure” (p. 560). External validity threats arise when the researcher draws incorrect inferences from the sample data to other persons, settings, and past or future situations (Babbie, 2013). This study was comparative in nature and design, conducted with two discrete organization types, in multiple industries. The results can be generalized to SL and non-SL organizations that are large and multinational enterprises (250 + employees), U.S. based, and participating in GRI reporting. However, the intent of this study was to serve as a foundation for future studies in larger populations, more diverse organization types, and more diverse industries and geographical areas.

Threats to external validity may be categorized into two types: population and ecological. The focus of this comparative study was on SL and non-SL organizations and the self-reported TBL outcomes of each group. Therefore, the population was defined at

the outset because a sampling of all known SL and non-SL organizations with GRI reports, 2012 – 2014, were included in the study. The population validity was not threatened because sampling was random. Ecological validity was not threatened because the comparison was based on GRI data submitted by each organization during the period 2012 – 2014.

Internal Validity

Threats to internal validity, such as history, maturation, testing, and instrumentation, were controlled by having a two-group design. Internal validity is concerned with the relationship between a measuring instrument and the measured outcomes (FrankfortNachmias & Nachmias, 2008), and it did not pose a threat due to the validation and reliability testing of the GRI instruments designated for use in the study.

Construct Validity

Construct validity, as defined by Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2008), was established by relating the measuring instrument to a general theoretical framework. The organizational reporting outcomes were in the GRI report. And their relationship is depicted in the theoretical framework as identified in Figure 1.

Ethical Procedures

Conflicts of interest were avoided in this study as I was not associated with the organizations or participants in any manner, such as employee or former employee, and only archival data were used. Approval of this research plan from the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) was requested and obtained, IRB approval # 05-05-16-0293854, before implementation of the data collection methodology to ensure the

highest level of ethical scrutiny prior to the start of research. All information was held in the highest level of confidentiality through the coding of organizations so that identities were protected and access to the coding scheme was held only by me.

Within the ethical framework of the study, information was provided to the academic community on the creation of awareness and potential for employee empowerment, growth and development, and positive social change at the organizational and community level. As a result, the problem of a lack of knowledge about SL and its relationship to organizational outcomes of economy, environment, and social change, and the contribution of the study to the purpose of collecting data about the use and practice of SL as a tool for change in the leadership paradigm were identified.

The objective of this research plan was to have data collection free from biases, protecting the fundamental privacy and integrity of the organizations for the purpose of collecting data for the benefits of the study only. Data ownership resides solely with me. Data security was controlled electronically with access codes limited only to me, and the data will be discarded after a period of 5 years. Consideration was given to the validity and reliability of data collection and communication plan to ensure compliance with ethical standards and the university IRB.

Summary

In this chapter, the research design and rationale, methodology, and threats to validity was detailed to provide for a clear view of the study with sufficient information for replication of the study in future research. The research design was causal comparative and was in alignment with the study research problem, purpose, and research

questions. The methodology section contained details of the population selection, sampling procedures, and data collection. The appropriate instruments for collection of the data with evidence of their validity and reliability in collecting the necessary data for analysis and contribution of information to the research questions were identified. Samples of all forms, instruments, permission, and confidentiality agreement were provided in the Appendices. Threats to internal and external validity were recognized with action plans to minimize or avoid any identified threats. Ethical issues were identified with procedures and processes included in the research design for transparency of the study. Informed consents for participation were not required because of use of archival public information. Chapter 4 contains details of the data collection and results of the research. Chapter 5 concludes with a discussion of the findings and recommendations.

Chapter 4: Results

For this study, I used a quantitative causal comparative research method to compare reporting outcome data in SL and non-SL organizations related to the TBL reporting outcomes that include economy, environment, and social change in each organization as identified in the GRI (2014). I attempted to fill the gap in knowledge and empirical research on SL and its relationship to organizational TBL outcomes of economy, environment, and social change.

Research questions and corresponding hypotheses were as follows:

Research Question 1: What is the difference between the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

H_01 : In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

H_11 : In the population, the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Research Question 2: What is the difference between the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

H_02 : In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

H_12 : In the population, the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Research Question 3: What is the difference between the means of the total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

H₀₃: In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL and non-SL organizations.

H₁₃: In the population, the means of the total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Research Question 4: What is the difference between the means of the total and average TBL outcome reporting score of SL and non-SL organizations?

H₀₄: In the population, there is no difference between the means of the total and average TBL outcome reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations.

H₁₄: In the population, the means of the total and average TBL outcome reporting score of SL organizations is higher than non-SL organizations.

Major sections of this chapter include a description of how the data were collected and rated, a description of the organization profiles from which the data were collected, statistical test assumptions, descriptive statistics of the sample, statistical results, and analysis organized by research questions, and summary.

Data Collection

I used the Internet as the source for the collection of data for this research study. The sources of data included the most recent list of SL companies (Lichtenwalner, 2015); the most recent GRI G4 (2014), and a list of non-SL; U.S. based companies extracted from the most recent GRI list of reporting companies. The data were collected from the most recently submitted organization GRI Reports 2012 – 2014 and reporting outcomes rated according to Leszczynska's (2012) analysis of sustainability reports. Inter-raters were used for verification, and discrepancies were resolved to one rating for each

dependent variable. Because the data were based on public information archival data, recruitment and response time were not factors in the data collection for this study. The timeframe for the collection of the data, rating, and analysis was approximately 6 weeks. The original plan was to use data from all 12 SL organizations, with a matching sample of 12 non-SL organizations. However, at the beginning of the rating stage, it was determined that the organization reports did not adhere to the GRI format structure and the data had to be teased out of long 100+page-narratives, found in multiple locations and formats in the organization document for rating. Therefore, the study was narrowed to a random sample of six SL and six non-SL organizations.

The population consisted of six servant leadership (SL) organizations that met the following criteria: (a) had been identified as SL organizations, (b) had home businesses in the United States, although they may be large or multinational enterprises (MNE), and (c) had 2012 – 2014 GRI reports. The exclusion criteria consisted of SL and non-SL organizations that did not have 2012 – 2014 GRI reports, and organizations home-based outside of the United States. SL and non-SL organizations within the United States with fewer than 250 employees were also excluded from this study.

A sample of six organizations was randomly selected from the SL organization group and six non-SL organizations were randomly selected, equal in number to the population size of six SL organizations for comparative purposes. The geographical region of the study was U.S. home-based organizations voluntarily participating in the GRI. The limitations of null hypothesis significance testing (NHST) and the advantages of using effect size and its respective confidence intervals provided important

information about the results of the study (Tellez, Garcia, & Corral-Verdugo, 2015). Tellez et al. (2015) recommended establishing an appropriate sample size by calculating the optimum statistical power at the moment that the research is designed. A random sample of six SL, from a population of 12 qualified organizations, and a random sample of six non-SL organizations, were drawn using SPSS software that permitted selection of a sample and then to determine if they possessed qualities that captured characteristics of the entire sample. Due to the predetermined population size of six SL organizations, power analysis was not conducted.

Statistical Results

Organization Profiles

Servant leadership organizations. The headquarter locations of the six SL organizations were each in a different state: Colorado, North Dakota, California, Minnesota, North Carolina, and Texas. All were large and MNEs with operations in three – 11 countries outside of the United States. The companies provided services to 33 – 140 countries. The types of services or products provided included construction management and design, oil exploration and production, integrated digital technology platforms, medical technology and services, analytic software, and air travel. One organization was employee-owned, one was privately held, and four were corporations. Net revenues were stated as ranging from \$22,284 M - \$5.9 B, with one organization not stating the net revenue. The number of employees for these organizations ranged from 12,128 – 46,368. Two organizations did not give a further descriptive breakdown on the employees. The four organizations providing information on the male/female ratios ranged from highs of

male 75%, female 49%, to lows of male 57%, female 25%. Three organizations reported diversity percentages as 30%, 39%, and 56%. Four organizations reported no bargaining units, and two organizations reported bargaining unit percentages of 44% and 83%. Only one SL organization reported a breakdown by age group: <25 = 5%; 26-35 = 25%; 36-45 = 26%; 46-54 = 22%; 55+ = 22%. All six organizations reported major awards and recognitions ranging from six – 46.

Nonservant leadership organizations. The headquarter locations of the six non-SL organizations were Texas, Ohio, Nebraska, California (2), and Virginia. All were large and MNEs with operations in six - 350 locations outside of the United States. These organizations provided services to six - 130 countries. The types of services or products these organizations provided included IT infrastructure and hardware (2), provider of sand and sand-based products, building design and construction, building maintenance, and railroad. One organization was employee-owned, three were privately held, and two were corporations. Net revenues were stated as ranging from \$1.6 M - \$59 B, with two organizations not stating the net revenue. The number of employees for these organizations ranged from 1,534 – 108,000. The male/female ratio ranged from highs of male 93%, female 59%, to lows of male 41%, female .07%. Five organizations reported diversity percentages as ranging from 16% - 93%. Four organizations reported no bargaining units, and two reported bargaining unit percentages of 12% and 83%. Four non-SL organizations reported a breakdown by age group, which is summarized as follows: <30 from 15 % - 22%; 30 – 50 from 36% - 72%; 51 – 65 from 18% - 25%; 65+

from .002% - 5%. All six organizations reported major awards and recognitions ranging from two – 50.

Statistical Test Assumptions

There were six assumptions that needed to be satisfied to perform an independent sample t test. The first and second assumptions required the independent sample t test to be performed on one dependent continuous variable and one dichotomous categorical independent variable. This was satisfied because the means of the total and average scores for economic, environmental, social, and TBL were continuous. The independent variable was the group, and this was dichotomous because the groups were either SL-based or non-SL-based.

The third assumption required independence of observations, which meant that there was no relationship between the observations in each group of the independent variables or between the groups themselves. This was satisfied because all samples were randomly selected and how one organization reported the GRI did not have any relationship on how the others reported.

The fourth assumption required no significant outliers in the two groups of the dependent variables. Overall, all groups for each dependent variable did not have outliers based on observation of the box plots below, except for the SL-based group of average economic score variable. However, the p -value resulted from the independent sample t test was not significant, so the outlier was not a threat.

The fifth assumption required that the dependent variables should be approximately normally distributed for each group of the independent variable. The Table

1 Tests of Normality below showed that normality was assumed for all groups except two. The significance of the SL-based group for economic average score had significance less than .05 and did not satisfy normality. However, the p -value resulted from the independent sample t test was not significant so the violation of normality was not a threat. The significance of the SL-based group for social average score had significance less than .05 and did not satisfy normality. However, the independent sample t test was robust to violations of normality, and considering that the significant of Shapiro-Wilk for this group was 0.04, this was approximately normally distributed enough to not be a concern. The Table 1 Tests of Normality is a summary of this narrative.

Table 1

Tests of Normality

Category	Groups	Shapiro-Wilk df	Shapiro-Wilk Sig
Economic Total Score	SL Based	6	0.13
Economic Total Score	Non-SL Based	5	0.98
Economic Average Score	SL Based	6	0
Economic Average Score	Non-SL Based	5	0.87
Environmental Total Score	SL Based	6	0.29
Environmental Total Score	Non-SL Based	5	0.89
Environmental Average Score	SL Based	6	0.07
Environmental Average Score	Non-SL Based	5	0.3
Social Total Score	SL Based	6	0.15
Social Total Score	Non-SL Based	5	0.22
Social Average Score	SL Based	6	0.21
Social Average Score	Non-SL Based	5	0.04
Triple Bottom Line Total Score	SL Based	6	0.06
Triple Bottom Line Total Score	Non-SL Based	5	0.98
Triple Bottom Line	SL Based	6	0.16
Triple Bottom Line	Non-SL Based	5	

The sixth and last assumption was homogeneity of variances. Levene's tests of equality for variances were conducted for all dependent variables, and the significance was summarized in the table below. The economic total score, social total score, and social average score did not meet the equality of variances test so the *t*-test values for unequal variances were used.

Table 2

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

Category	F Statistic	Sig.
Economic Total Score	7.21	0.02
Economic Average Score	0.21	0.66
Environmental Total Score	0.12	0.74
Environmental Average Score	3.73	0.08
Social Total Score	5.46	0.04
Social Average Score	6.65	0.03
Triple Bottom Line Total Score	4.53	0.06
Triple Bottom Line Average	2.2	0.17

Statistical Findings

After the six assumptions above were addressed, a series of *t* tests for independent samples were conducted, and the results are reported in the paragraphs below. Table 3 is a descriptive statistics table summarizing the sample size for each group as well as the mean and standard deviations for those groups.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics

Category	Groups	N	M	SD
Economic Total Score	SL Based	6	10.5	5.89
Economic Total Score	Non-SL Based	5	4.67	3.33
Economic Average Score	SL Based	6	2.3	0.72
Economic Average Score	Non-SL Based	5	1.87	0.79
Environmental Total Score	SL Based	6	23.67	10.86
Environmental Total Score	Non-SL Based	6	24.33	13.4
Environmental Average Score	SL Based	6	3.06	0.6
Environmental Average Score	Non-SL Based	6	3.01	1.09
Social Total Score	SL Based	6	35.5	20.84
Social Total Score	Non-SL Based	6	21.83	9.95
Social Average Score	SL Based	6	2.09	0.4
Social Average Score	Non-SL Based	6	2.85	0.74
Triple Bottom Line Total Score	SL Based	6	69.67	31.88
Triple Bottom Line Total Score	Non-SL Based	6	50.83	17.63
Triple Bottom Line Average	SL Based	6	2.38	0.29
Triple Bottom Line Average	Non-SL Based	6	2.84	0.62

Total economic score between servant leadership and nonservant leadership organizations. There were six SL organizations and five non-SL organizations due to nonreporting of one organization in this category. An independent-samples *t* test was run to determine if there were differences in total economic scores between these two groups. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Total economic scores between SL and non-SL organizations were normally distributed, as assessed by

Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$), but the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .028$) so unequal variance was assumed for t test. The total economic score was higher for SL organizations ($M = 10.50$, $SD = 5.89$) than non-SL organizations ($M = 4.67$, $SD = 3.33$), a statistically significant difference, at 90% CI, $t(7.90) = 2.11$, $p = .068$, $d = 1.334$ (Wiseheart, 2013). The effect size of $d=1.334$ is very large. There was sufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis and accept that the total economic score for SL organizations was higher than non-SL organizations.

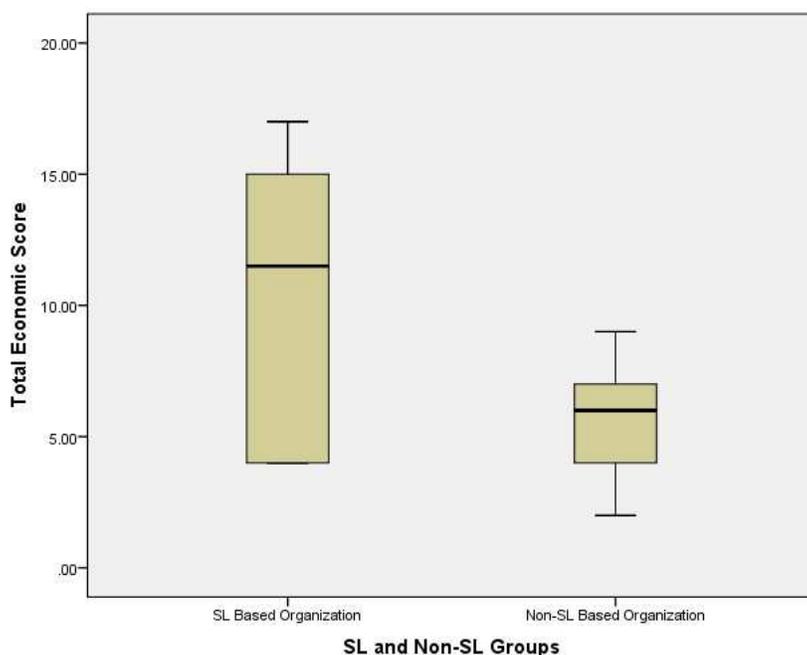


Figure 2. Box plot of total economic score

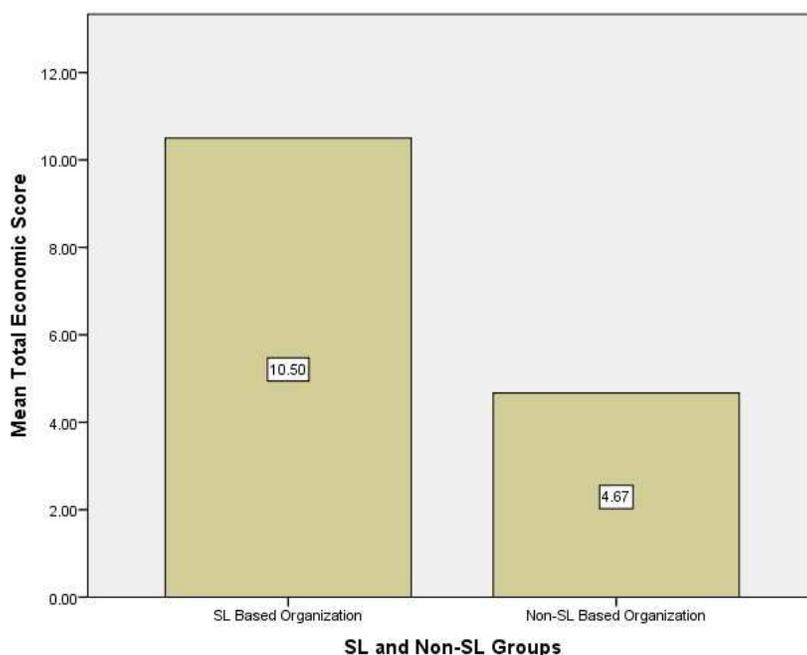


Figure 3. Bar graph of total economic score

Average economic score between servant leadership and nonservant leadership organizations. There were six SL organizations and five non-SL organizations, due to nonreporting of one organization in this category. An independent-samples *t* test was run to determine if there were differences in average economic score between these two groups. Average economic scores between SL and non-SL organizations were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$), and the assumption of homogeneity of variances was satisfied. The average economic score was higher for SL organizations ($M = 2.30$, $SD = 0.72$) than non-SL Organizations ($M = 1.87$, $SD = 0.79$), however there was no statistically significant difference, at 90% CI, $t(9) = 0.95$, $p = 0.367$. There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so accept that there was no statistically significant difference

between average economic score for SL and non-SL organizations. There was an outlier in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot, but the p -value resulted from the independent sample t test was not significant so the outlier was not a threat to the validity of using a t test.

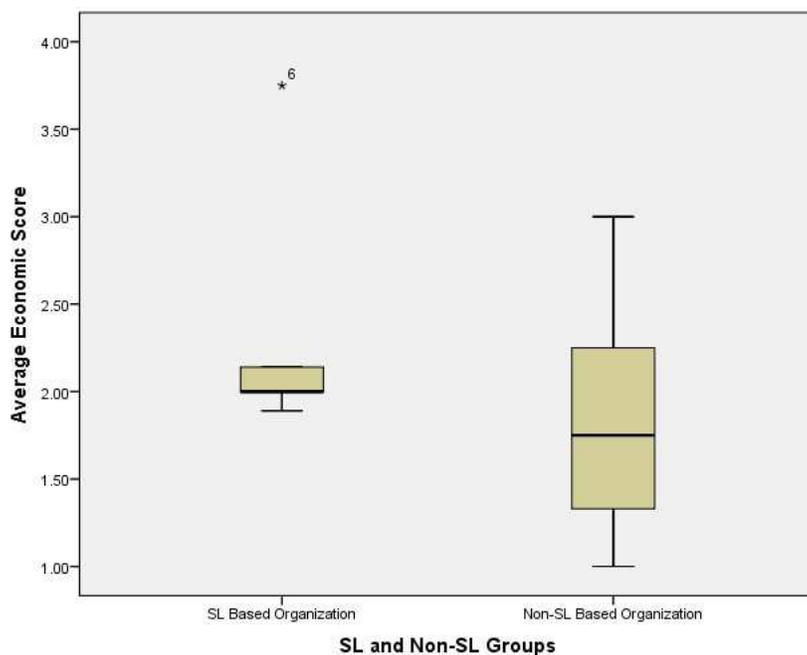


Figure 4. Box plot of average economic score

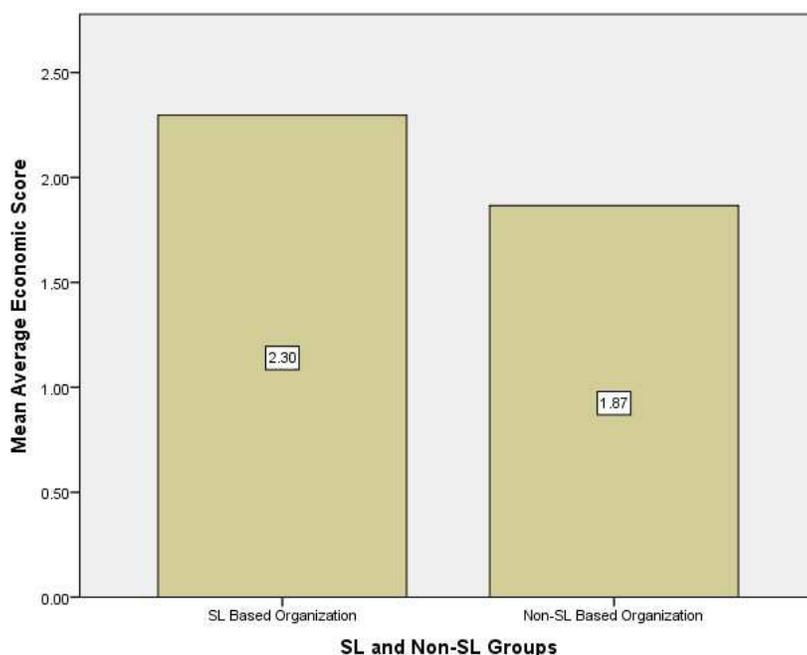


Figure 5. Bar graph of average economic score

Total environment score between servant leadership and nonservant leadership organizations. There were six SL organizations and six non-SL organizations. An independent-samples t test was run to determine if there were differences in total environment scores between these two groups. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Total environment scores between SL and non-SL organizations were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$), and the assumption of homogeneity of variances was satisfied. The total environment score was higher for SL Organizations ($M = 23.67$, $SD = 10.86$) than non-SL organizations ($M = 24.33$, $SD = 13.40$), however there was no statistically significant difference, at 90% CI, $t(9) = 0.95$, $p = 0.926$. There was insufficient evidence at the 90%

confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so accept that there was no statistically significant difference between total environment score for SL and non-SL organizations.

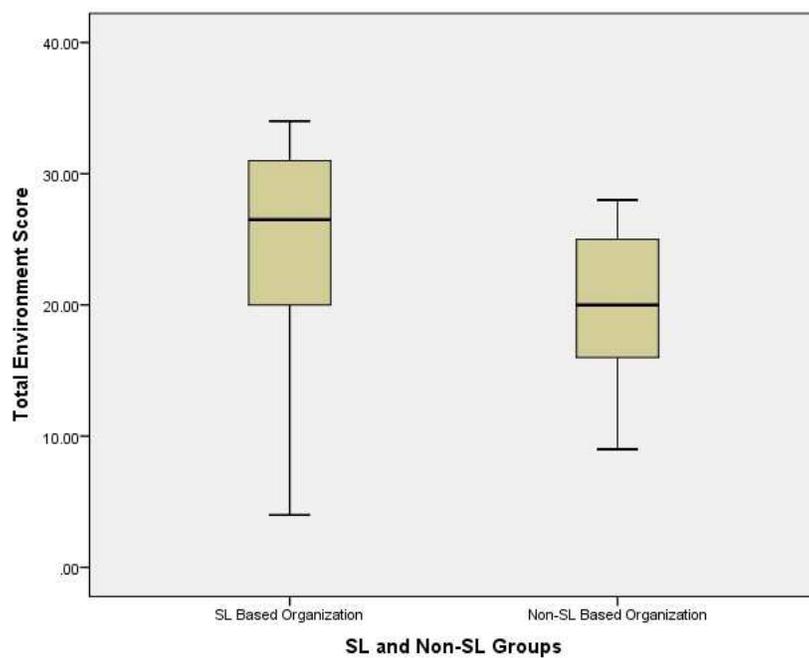


Figure 6. Box plot of total environment score

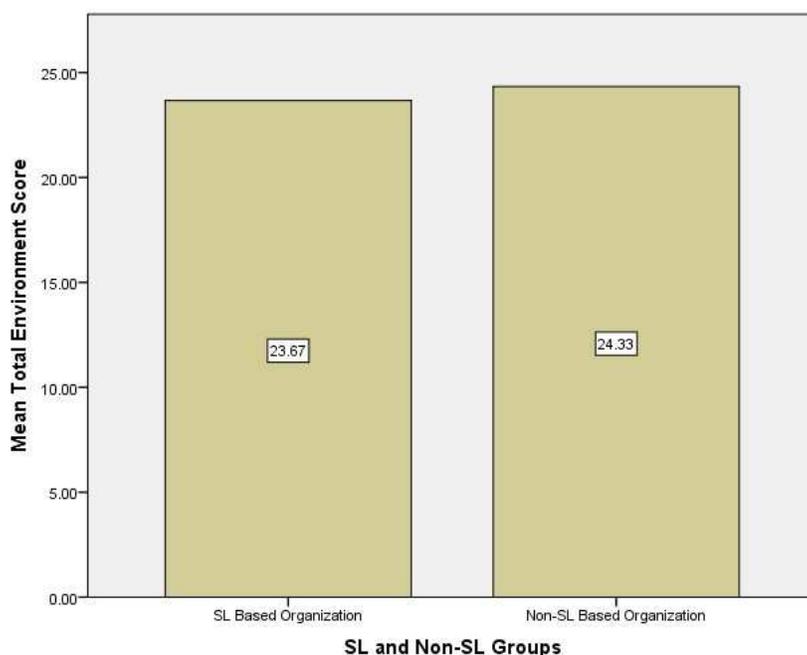


Figure 7. Bar graph of total environment score

Average environment score between servant leadership and nonservant leadership organizations. There were six SL organizations and six non-SL organizations. An independent-samples t test was run to determine if there were differences in average environment score between these two groups. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Average environment scores between SL and non-SL organizations were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$), and the assumption of homogeneity of variances was satisfied. The average environment score was higher for SL Organizations ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 0.60$) than non-SL Organizations ($M = 3.01$, $SD = 1.09$), however there was no statistically significant difference, at 90% CI, $t(10) = 0.10$, $p = 0.921$. There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so accept that there was no

statistically significant difference between average environment score for SL and non-SL organizations.

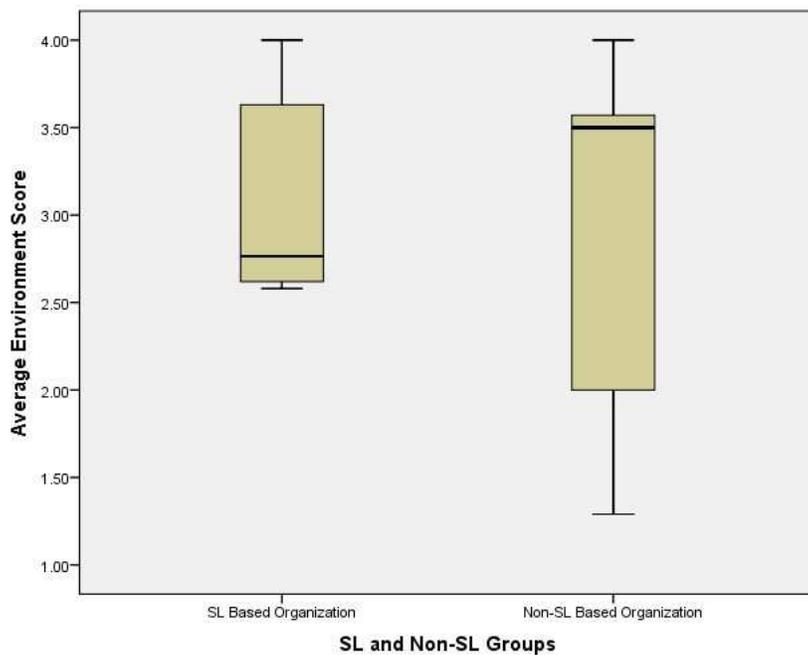


Figure 8. Box plot of average environment score

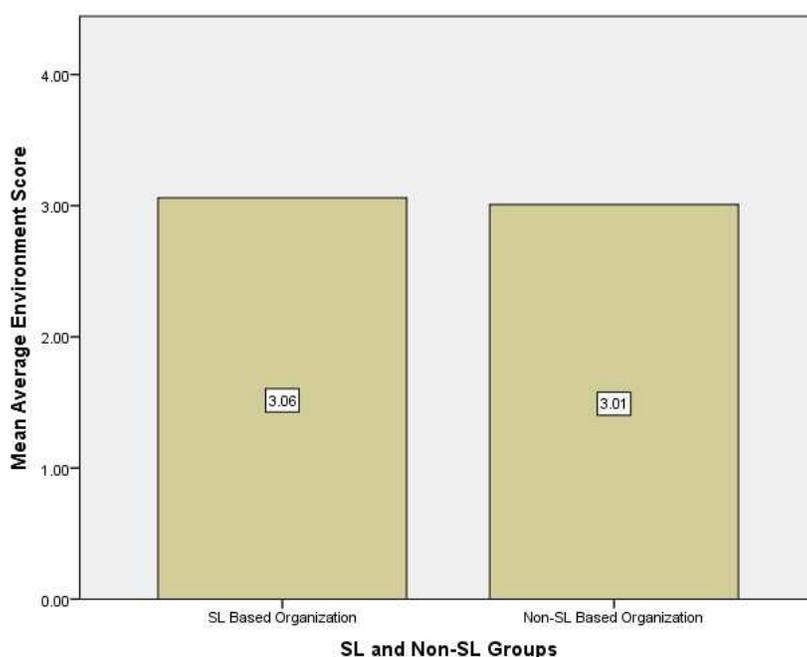


Figure 9. Bar graph of average environment score

Total social score between servant leadership and nonservant leadership organizations. There were six SL organizations and six non-SL organizations. An independent samples *t* test was run to determine if there were differences in total social score between these two groups. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Total social scores between SL and non-SL organizations were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$), but the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .042$) so unequal variance was assumed for *t* test. The total social score was higher for SL organizations ($M = 35.50$, $SD = 20.84$) than non-SL organizations ($M = 21.83$, $SD = 9.95$), however there was no statistically significant difference, at 90% CI, $t(7.17) = 1.450$, $p = 0.189$. There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence

interval to reject the null hypothesis so accept that there was no statistically significant difference between total social score for SL and non-SL organizations.

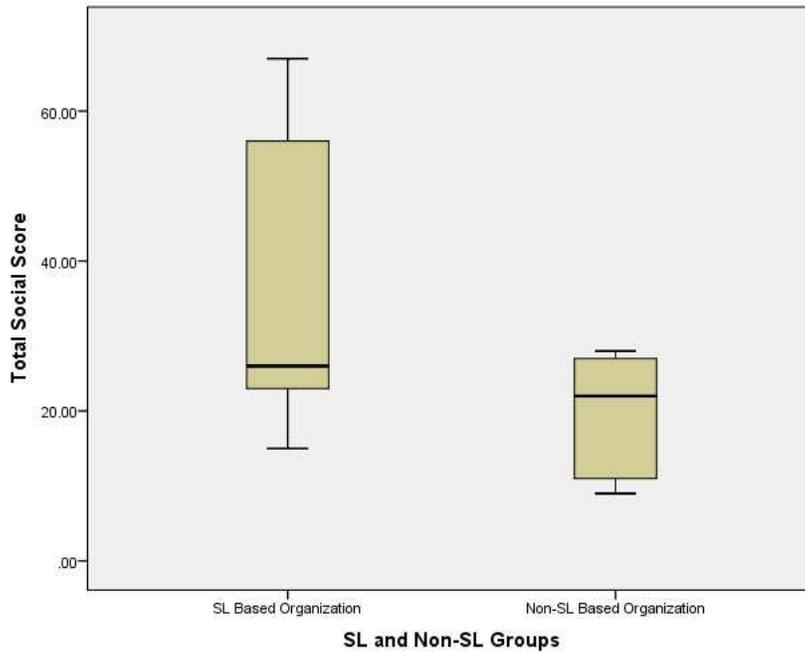


Figure 10. Box plot of total social score

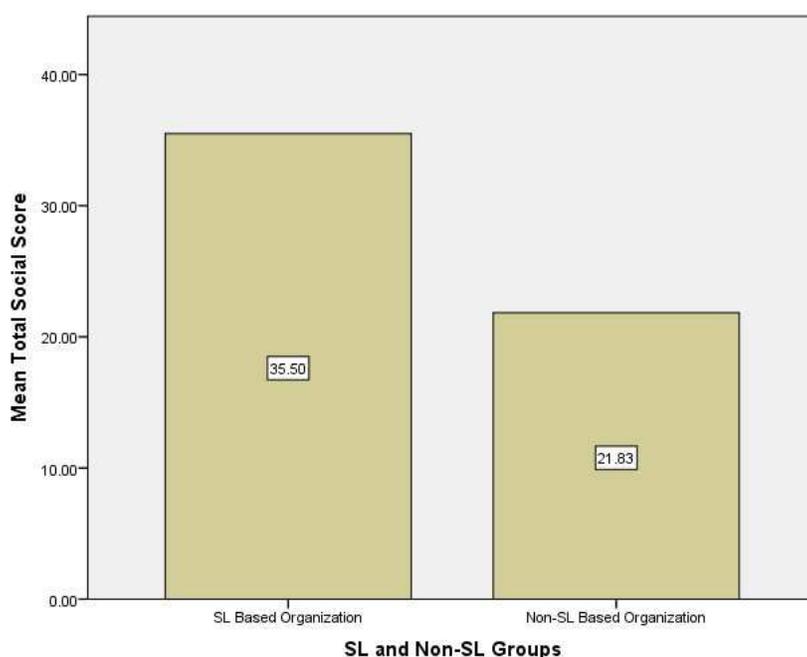


Figure 11. Bar graph of total social score

Average social score between servant leadership and nonservant leadership organizations. There were six SL organizations and six non-SL organizations. An independent-samples t test was run to determine if there were differences in average social score between these two groups. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Average social scores between SL and non-SL organizations were normally distributed, as assessed by ShapiroWilk's test ($p > .05$), but the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .028$) so unequal variance was assumed for t test. The average social score was lower for SL Organizations ($M = 2.09$, $SD = 0.40$) than non-SL organizations ($M = 2.85$, $SD = 0.74$), a statistically significant difference, at 90% CI, $t(7.70) = 2.22$, $p = .059$, $d = 1.404$ (Wiseheart, 2013). The effect size of $d=1.404$ was very large. There was

sufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis and accept that the average social score for SL organizations was higher than non-SL organizations.

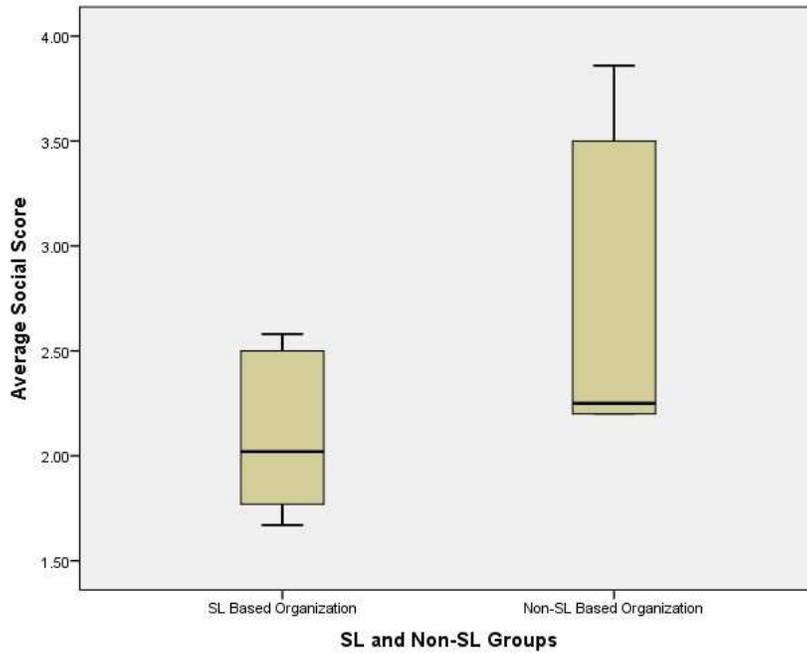


Figure 12. Box plot of average social score

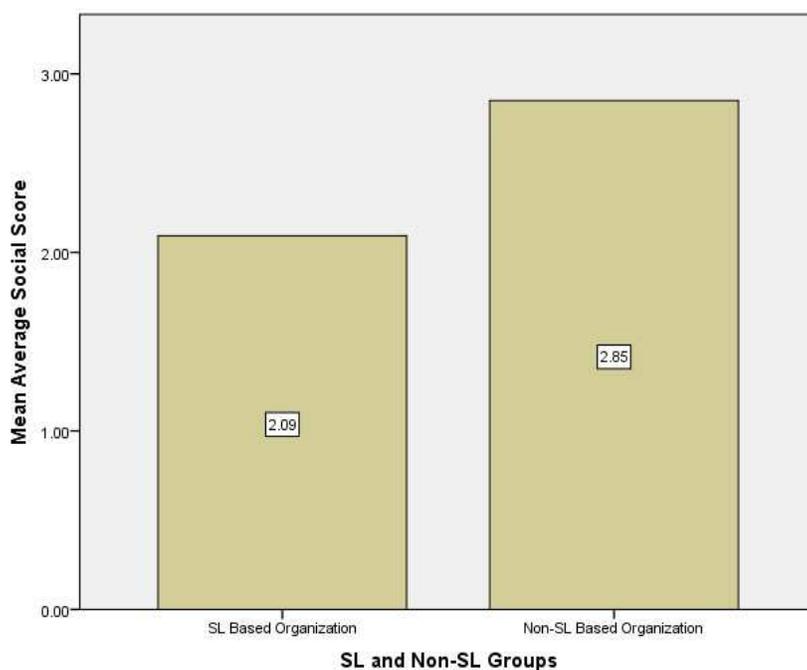


Figure 13. Bar graph of average social score

Total Triple Bottom Line score between servant leadership and nonservant leadership organizations. There were six SL organizations and six non-SL organizations. An independent-samples t test was run to determine if there were differences in total triple bottom line scores between these two groups. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Total triple bottom line scores between SL and non-SL organizations were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$), and the assumption of homogeneity of variances was satisfied. The total triple bottom line score was higher for SL organizations ($M = 69.67$, $SD = 31.88$) than non-SL organizations ($M = 50.83$, $SD = 17.63$), however there was no statistically significant difference, at 90% CI, $t(10) = 1.27$, $p = 0.234$. There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so accept that there was no

statistically significant difference between total triple bottom line score for SL and non-SL organizations.

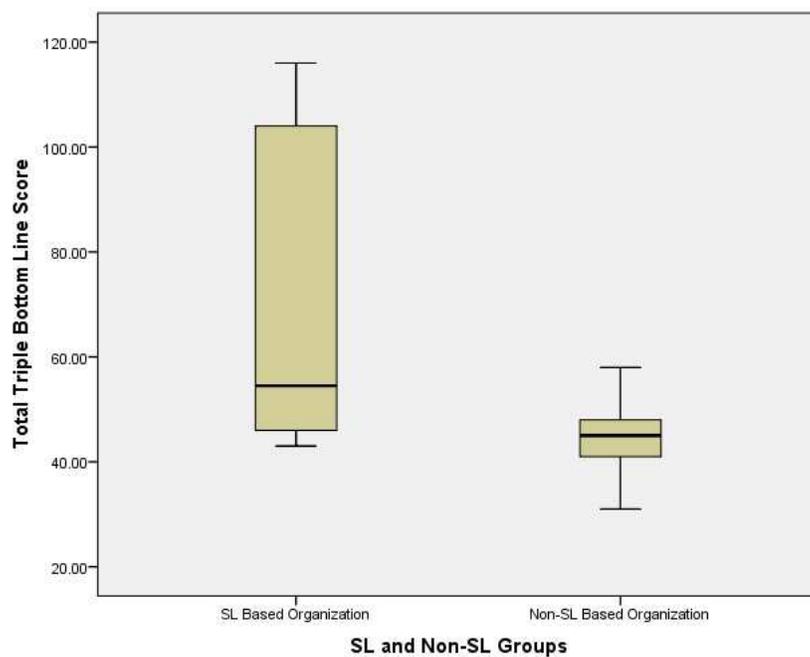


Figure 14. Box plot of total TBL score

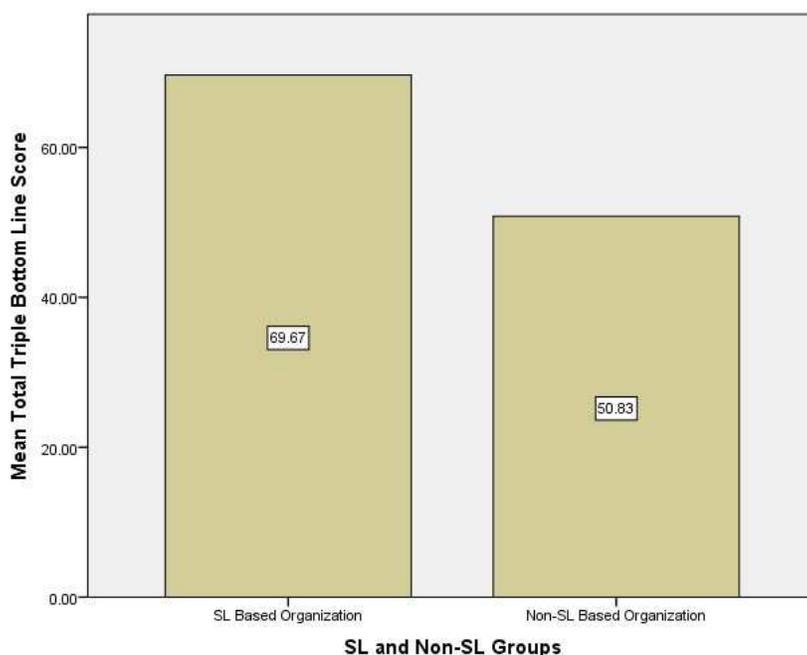


Figure 15. Bar graph of total TBL score

Average Triple Bottom Line score between servant leadership and nonservant leadership organizations. There were six SL Organizations and six non-SL organizations. An independent samples t test was run to determine if there were differences in average triple bottom line scores between these two groups. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Average triple bottom line scores between SL and non-SL organizations were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$), and the assumption of homogeneity of variances was satisfied. The average triple bottom line score was lower for SL organizations ($M = 2.38$, $SD = 0.29$) than non-SL organizations ($M = 2.84$, $SD = 0.62$), however there was no statistically significant difference, at 90% CI, $t(10) = -1.65$, $p = 0.129$. There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so

accept that there was no statistically significant difference between average triple bottom line score for SL and non-SL organizations.

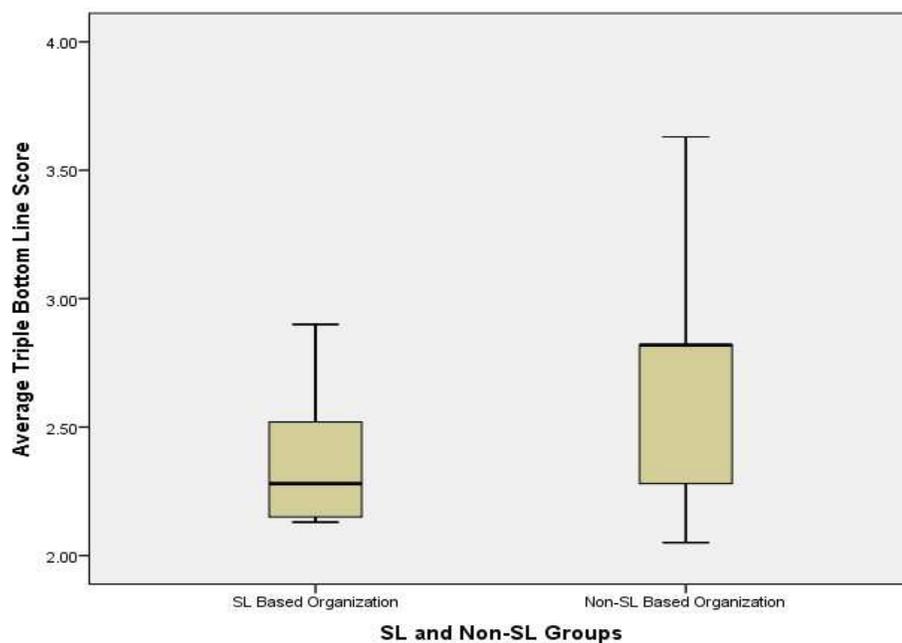


Figure 16. Box plot of average TBL score

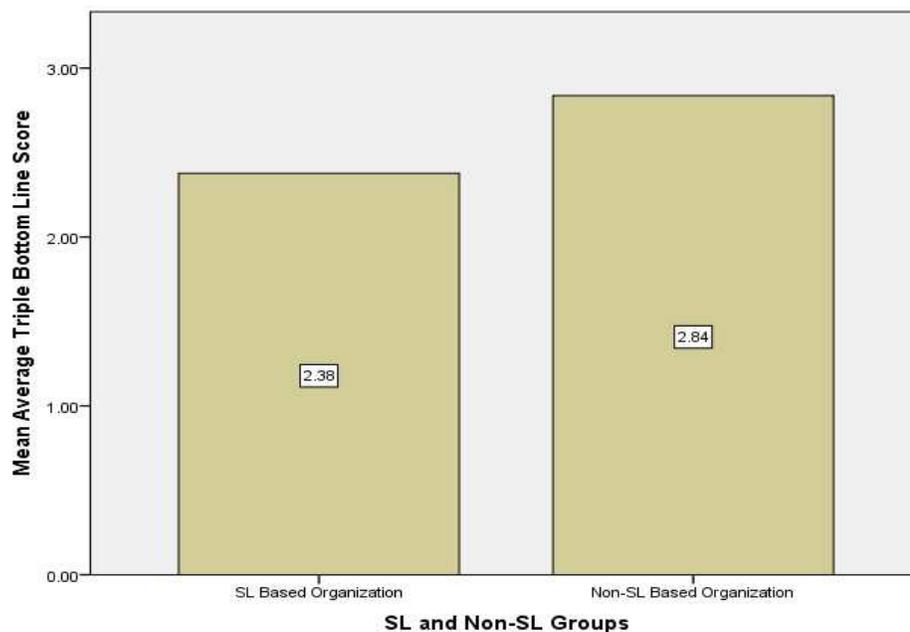


Figure 17. Bar graph of average TBL score

Summary

In summary, I found that no statistically significant differences existed between SL based and non-SL based organizations reporting of total environmental, social, and triple bottom line scores. A statistically significant difference was found where SL based organizations reported a higher total economic score. These SL based organizations reported on more items in the economic category subscale, which resulted in higher average total scores than non-SL based organizations. A statistically significant difference was also found where non-SL based organizations reported higher average social scores than SL based organizations. This is attributed to non-SL based organizations providing more extensive reporting information per item in the social category subscale than did SL based organizations. No other statistically significant differences were found for average reporting scores in economic, environment and triple bottom line scores between non-SL and SL based organizations.

I recognized that the GRI Report was the current standardized report on organizational outcomes but had various limitations. Since it was a voluntary submission by organizations, the reporting took various forms relative to structure and content such as the opportunity for organizations to choose reporting against the full GRI Reporting Framework from the outset, while others may want to start with in-depth and most feasible practical topics first, and phase in reporting on other topics over time (GRI, 2014, p. 5). Another issue of noncomparability on GRI reports was that they may include both direct and indirect economic, environmental, and social impacts. Chapter 5 contains an in-depth discussion of the findings of this study as it relates to other discussions on

GRI report outcomes, interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study, recommendations for future studies, and implications for social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this quantitative, causal comparative research study was to compare outcome data in servant-led organizations and nonservant-led organizations related to TBL reporting outcomes. TBL outcomes include economy, environment, and social change in each organization, as a foundation for assessment of CSR, organizational sustainability, and viability in the areas of the community and society. The approach used in this study was the identification of SL organizations and accessible organized data on TBL outcomes for a comparison between SL organizations and non-SL organizations. For access to organizational outcomes, the GRI (2014), a public document, was selected, which was identified as the first framework for providing guidance to organizations for the disclosure of sustainability performance. There were two key findings of the study. First, a total economic reporting score for SL organizations was higher than non-SL organizations, but there was no statistically significant difference between average economic reporting scores. And second, there was no statistically significant difference between total social reporting score between SL and non-SL organizations, but the average social reporting score for non-SL organizations was higher than SL organizations.

Interpretation of the Findings

The results of this study did not provide a foundation for determining future exploration and study of SL as a leadership theory for the paradigm shift in organizational leadership. The data from the GRI did not provide comparable reporting of the TBL outcomes of economy, environment, and social change for both organization

types for comparative purposes. The methodology of this study was limited to comparing the levels of reporting for each organization rather than item content. The comparison of levels of reporting were analyzed and compared on both the means of the totals and the average for each category of dependent variables. Using the Leszcynska (2012) rating system, it was determined that one organization might report extensively (rating 4) in only one variable of a 9-item category, while another organization might report briefly (rating 1) in all nine variables of the category; therefore, the means of the totals and averages were calculated for all dependent categories.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1: What is the difference between the means of the total and average economy reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations? There was sufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis and accept that the total economic reporting score for SL organizations was higher than non-SL organizations. There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so it was accepted that there was no statistically significant difference between average economic reporting score for SL and non-SL organizations. There was an outlier in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot, but the p -value resulted from the independent sample t -test was not significant so the outlier was not a threat to the validity of using a t test. The total economic reporting by SL organizations was higher than non-SL organizations, while there was no statistical difference between average economic reporting score for SL and non-SL organizations. This anomaly was due to the lack of any reporting criteria generated by the GRI guidelines. Each

organization was free to report as little or as much information as the organization desired and yet label and submit the report as a GRI sustainability report. This interpretation of findings sufficed for the remaining Research Questions 2, 3, and 4.

Research Question 2: What is the difference between the means of the total and average environment reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations?

There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so I accepted that there was no statistically significant difference between total environment reporting score for SL and non-SL organizations. There was also insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so I accepted that there was no statistically significant difference between average environment reporting score for SL and non-SL organizations.

Research Question 3: What is the difference between the means total and average social (impact) reporting score of SL organizations and non-SL organizations? There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so I accepted that there was no statistically significant difference between total reporting social score for SL and non-SL organizations. There was sufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis and accept that the average reporting social score for non-SL organizations was higher than SL organizations.

Research Question 4: What is the difference between the means total and average TBL outcome reporting scores of SL and non-SL organizations? There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so I accepted that there was no statistically significant difference between total reporting TBL scores for SL

and non-SL organizations. There was insufficient evidence at the 90% confidence interval to reject the null hypothesis so I accepted that there was no statistically significant difference between average reporting TBL scores for SL and non-SL organizations.

The identified gap was the lack of sources that address SL beyond the effectiveness of characteristics on individuals and the relationship of leadership characteristics to foster followership. Therefore, the focus of this study was turned to seeking evidence of organizational reporting outcomes of SL organizations as compared to non-SL organizations. I found that the basic information was not in place for the described comparison. Overall, the GRI report on organization outcomes of economy, environment, and social change provided the avenue for significant information on the organization's choice of what information to share on these vital areas. However, as determined by the data analysis, the reports did not provide data reporting analysis in a manner for comparison between organizations, whether SL to SL, non-SL to non-SL, or SL to non-SL. Milne and Gray (2013) argued that the TBL core may in practice reinforce business-as-usual and greater levels of unsustainability. Hahn and Lulfs (2014) stated that prior studies identified an abundance of positive information in CSR reports and a lack of negative voluntary disclosure. This held true in the sample of GRI reporting found in this study. The reports focused on a previous year's goal, progress made toward that goal in the current reporting year, and the setting of goals for future years. Generally, there was a lack of any negative reporting.

Literature Review

In an attempt to move the study of SL from a focus on characteristics of SL to a focus on organizational outcomes, three major themes were explored in the literature review: leadership and leadership change, SL, and the GRI as a measurement of organizational TBL outcomes (economy, environment, and social change). The reports reviewed of the sample organizations did not define or describe leadership and leadership change nor did SL organizations mention a philosophy or focus of SL. Tenets of leadership were described in organizational policies and strategy in terms of programs, training and development generally, ethics, and awards (ie., six years World's Most Ethical Companies List, six years World's 100 Most Ethical Companies List, Outstanding Leadership Award, 4 Diversity Awards, or 12 Sustainability Project Awards). This phenomenon was equally evident in both SL and non-SL organizations. SL, as noted above, was not mentioned or described in SL organizations or non-SL organizations. The general descriptions mentioned training and development programs, and some organizations mentioned leadership development programs, but none mentioned information on an overall philosophy of characteristics as defined by Greenleaf (2002), such as humility and empowerment of others. The Greenleaf definition of leadership that focused on serving the employee, the customer, and the community as priority number one (Wheatley, 2013) was not mentioned in the sample GRI reports reviewed. Information on community service was characterized by the progression of number of volunteer hours dedicated to community service by employees within the organizations. Murari and Gupta (2012) stated that SL provides organizations a way to

improve what it is becoming and producing by building capacity through creating empowerment, enabling or authorizing an individual to think, behave, take action, and control work and decision making in autonomous ways. This was not evident in the sample GRI reports from SL or non-SL organizations.

The second theme, SL, was explored in the literature. SL will promote high quality relations and a sense of community by emphasizing interpersonal relationships and bonding within organizations (Van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). Within the samples studied, there were no differences between SL and non-SL organizations in numbers of diverse chapters or groups, such as Hispanic American, African Americans, Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT). It was unstated as to the degree of interpersonal relationships or bonding within the groups, or their contributions to the organization or outcomes as a whole in the role of social change within the organization or the community.

The third theme explored in the literature was the GRI as a measurement of organizational TBL outcomes (economy, environment, and social change). In 2011, 95% of the 250 largest global companies published a GRI sustainability report (Hahn & Lulfs, 2014). According to Guenther, Hoppe, and Poser (2006), on average, companies report only one-third of the indicators suggested by GR, and focus on the indicators perceived to be the most relevant to the industry or the business. Of the 12 sample reports reviewed, 10 indexed the report to connect the subject to the GRI item and category, six SL and four non-SL. However, the information did not consistently adhere to the full content guideline, and negative reporting of disclosures was omitted.

Six legitimation strategies used by organizations for sustainability reporting were identified by Hahn and Lulfs (2014): marginalization, abstraction, indicating facts, rationalization, authorization, and corrective action. Although Hahn and Lulfs provided examples of the use of these legitimation strategies for negative reporting, in reviewing the reports, the raters were unable to determine whether these strategies were being employed in the context of the reports or not. Although the GRI has the potential to be the framework through which both TBL and sustainability are articulated at the organizational level, it will not be useful for analytical or comparative purposes until strict criteria are imposed on organizations to provide information and data that adhere to the already established guidelines in a comparable manner. Currently, based on the sample reports, the GRI report label has been applied to the organization's narrative annual report without adherence to the structure of GRI guidelines.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework (see Figure 1). Theoretical Framework for this study was built on servant leadership (SL) as a leadership theory recognizing that characteristics of SL are different from characteristics of the non-SL paradigm. The focus of the study was to determine the means of the total and average of differences between the reporting of outcomes of SL and non-SL organizations, using the recognized and established report on outcomes, the GRI. This theoretical framework was not confirmed in the samples reviewed and analyzed in this study for several reasons. As noted in the statistical analysis of hypotheses, the reports did not provide data reporting significant differences in a manner for comparison between SL and non-SL organizations. Second,

SL, as a leadership paradigm, was not identified or mentioned in the SL organizations, and neither was characteristics mentioned. Third, a big focus of the theoretical framework was based on a causal comparative analysis, and review of the samples revealed inconsistency in reporting and levels of reporting in both SL and non-SL organizations, negating any causal comparative analysis. I address this phenomenon in detail in recommendations for future studies.

Organization Profiles

All organizations were home-based within the United States, with only two non-SL organizations providing products or services in the United States only. A variety of products and services were provided by both groups as delineated in the section on Organization Profiles. Of the 12 organizations, one SL and one non-SL was employee-owned, one SL and three non-SL were privately held, and four SL and two non-SL were corporations. There was a wide range of total employees for the 12 organizations, from 1,534 – 108,000 with no apparent difference in the length or content of the GRI reports. There was also a wide range of net revenue reported, with two organizations omitting this information on the GRI report and both requesting Internet purchase of annual reports. The SL organizations reported a range of net revenue from \$22M - \$5.9 B, as compared to non-SL organizations reported a range from \$1.6 M - \$59 B. The organization profile data were included in this report to provide a description of the sample organizations, (i.e., to give them a face in the study), but did not appear to have any alignment, positive or negative, on the statistical results of the reporting outcomes for the analysis of the data.

Limitations of the Study

At the outset of this study, two major limitations were identified: the availability of only one list of SL organizations, with very broad criteria for inclusion on the list (Lichtenwalner, 2010), and use of the GRI report as the only structured standardized report on organizational TBL reporting outcomes (GRI, 2014). These two limitations proved to be significant in the results of this study. From review of the GRI Reports, the sample of the pre-designated SL organizations appeared to be no different from the non-SL organizations. This may have occurred for three reasons, one, all organizations in the study were ones with GRI Reports (in order to obtain reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and social change), and the second reason may have been related to free-form writing of content, without adherence to GRI structure and format. Due to the free-form writing of the reports, another limitation appeared in the area of finding the data for rating, which in some cases were scattered throughout hundreds of pages. Another limitation to the study was in the area of the legitimation strategies, as described in the discussion on GRI reporting above, which may or may not have been used by organizations. The presence or absence of this aspect was not possible to determine, except for the fact that there were no negative disclosures for SL or non-SL organizations.

Although two inter-raters were used in the collection and rating of the data to ensure as accurate a process as possible for this study, the trustworthiness of the data were negatively impacted, as discussed, by the lack of imposed criteria for content structure of the GRI Report and the actual reporting practice by the sampled

organizations. This could not be identified at the outset of the study and the study was dependent on identified SL organizations, one available list, and the reporting acceptable to the GRI, one recognized report on organization outcomes of economy, environment, and social change.

Recommendations

Servant leadership, as a leadership theory, in a contextual view, can be seen as part of the natural evolutionary process of leadership change. However, as identified in the Literature Review, leadership change has also been given impetus by events of organizational leadership crises and failures resulting in paradigm shifts in business (Pirson & Lawrence, 2010). In addition, there were internal operational changes in organizations, which demanded leadership change (Holloway, 2012) such as emphasis on teamwork, knowledge management, corporate social responsibility, economism vs. humanism, and corporate entrepreneurship. Previous researchers have explored the characteristics of servant leadership as a possible response to the leadership needs of the 21st century (Boone & Makhani, 2012; Hackett & Wang, 2012; Kincaid, 2012; Murari & Gupta, 2012; Spears, 1998; van Dierendonck, 2011; van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). The literature substantiated that there was a need for either attention to a new theory or a synthesis of theories for leadership of U.S. based organizations (Latham, 2014). The theory of servant leadership, although first introduced by Greenleaf (2002) in the 1970s had not been accepted as a viable leadership theory because of the lack of empirical studies of servant leadership in an organizational context (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Therefore, determination needed to be made as to whether or not servant leadership was a

viable theory of leadership for 21st century organizations and this exploration needed to go beyond characteristics and be connected to organizational outcomes. From this perspective, if there are *servant leadership organizations*, criteria for this designation must be developed and tested through empirical studies in order to move to comparative studies between servant leadership and nonservant organizations. In addition, in order for servant leadership to be accepted in the business domain, organization outcomes of economy, environment, and social change must be identified through empirical studies.

Recommendations for future studies were focused into four significant areas, identification and verification of a discrete list of servant leadership organizations, establishment of criteria for control of a reporting structure for organizational TBL outcomes of economy, environment, and social change, analysis of triple bottom reporting, and servant leadership as a theoretical construct.

Identification of Servant Leadership Organizations

Over the years, the focus of research has been on identifying characteristics of servant leadership (Hackett & Wang, 2012), defining a servant leader (Boone & Makhari, 2012), and measuring characteristics of servant leadership (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Ehrhart, 2004; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). As the result of this study, it was identified that the current list of servant leadership organizations is anecdotal and consists of a list of organizations, which were self-designated, with the title based on the broad criteria of documented references that support the servant leadership view (Lichtehwalner, 2015). In this study, I was unable to substantiate a significant difference in the reporting outcomes between servant leadership

organizations and nonservant leadership organizations. I recommend that future studies, preferably empirical case studies, identify and establish criteria for the designation of a *servant leadership* organization vs. *nonservant leadership* organization. The availability of such a list would serve as a foundation for use in future studies on a valid comparison of outcomes between the two types of organizations in various industries. These organizations might also serve as models for future paradigm shifts in organization leadership. I also recommend that future research employ questionnaires to obtain specific data on the existence and use of servant leadership within the organizational context.

Criteria in GRI Reporting

The GRI, founded in 1997, emerged as the preferred global reporting framework as a response to the financial crisis and collapse represented by such companies as Enron and WorldCom, and legislation such as the Sarbanes-Oxley Act (SOX) and the Dodd-Frank Act (Boerner, 2012). The GRI is now in its fourth iteration, GRI G4 (GRI, 2014), and demonstrates the depth of structure and format in its Guidelines for completion. However, since it is a voluntary submission from organizations, there were no criteria for standardization of content reporting for organizations. As reported in the findings of this study, the samples reviewed could be categorized as annual reports with the additional label of GRI Sustainability Report, which was the exact title of many in the sample. By allowing the application of each organization's annual reports, in a myriad of formats, with expanded or diminished content, the intent of comparability of the GRI is lost. I recommend that organizations desiring participation in the GRI and using the GRI label

agree to complete the GRI Report in its format with both positive and negative disclosures as outlined in the Guidelines for comparability with other organizations and future research purposes. Without such a criteria, the individual organization GRI Report becomes another beautiful, colorful, graphically-designed report to be filed on the shelf in an era when we are in need of transparency, full disclosure and comparable reporting. The GRI provides the structure and content guidelines, if followed, for research and study to move organizations forward to excellence and participation in the global social good.

Empirical Studies on Triple Bottom Line Reporting (TBL)

In the review of literature, recommendations were made by McCann and Holt (2011), and McCann and Sweet (2014) on the need for future studies on servant leadership and examination of the systematic and theoretical or empirical analysis of its relationship between characteristics of servant leadership and corporate social responsibility (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012); Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, and Colwell (2011). In the literature review, only one author, Reed, Vidaver-Cohen and Colwell (2011) specifically recommended future studies on the relationship of servant leadership to organizational outcomes. I strongly recommend that we begin empirical studies on TBL reporting on organizations generally, not only servant leadership organizations, but it was also recognized that the appropriate data bases for comparability are needed for validity of the studies. With the GRI, there was a high quality standardized structure for the gathering of the data, but if not followed, the comparability was lost.

Empirical Studies on Servant Leadership as a Theoretical Construct

Parris & Peachey (2013) found that numerous empirical studies had been completed on the definition and characteristics of servant leadership, and how to measure its presence as perceived by individuals in the workplace, but there were only a few empirical studies on servant leadership as a theoretical construct in an organizational context (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012; Washington, Sutton, & Sauser, Jr., 2014). To establish servant leadership as a viable theory of leadership, I recommend that empirical studies identify servant leadership as compared to other recognized forms of leadership such as transformational, authentic, and charismatic for determination of its viability within our organizations. Leaders whose approach to leadership is informed by both sustainable and servant leadership are more inclined to make strategic decisions that take into account the economic, social and ecological dimensions of each decision, which emphasizes the need for empirical studies on leadership outcomes generally, and servant leadership outcomes specifically.

Implications

There is a call for corporate social responsibility to expand rapidly to meet the challenge of shaping an inclusive and sustainable global society (Williams, 2014). A view of the new paradigm identifies business as having a broader purpose with the threefold challenge of economic, social, and environmental, also known as the triple bottom line outcomes. The theoretical implication of this study was in the area of determining the existence of servant leadership as a viable leadership theory in our organizations. In this study I used the only available list of servant leadership

organizations and organization reports of GRI for reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and social change. Limitations identified at the outset of the study proved to have stronger impact than anticipated. The anecdotal quality of the list of servant leadership organizations identified the need for empirical study to clearly generate criteria for such a list of organizations, and the lack of organization adherence to the format and content of the GRI Guidelines made gathering and rating of the data an exorbitant task. The free-form reporting of the organizations, without alignment to the structured guidelines and lack of negative disclosures also brought the quality of data into question. The results of this study might be disseminated via conferences, journal articles, and schools of business to encourage further research and empirical studies as identified in the above recommendations.

One primary implication of this study was the need for an established list of servant leadership organizations resulting from empirical studies with verified criteria. A second implication of this study was the inadequate, inconsistent organization reporting of outcomes, because of lack of criteria for use of the GRI labeling of the reports. Recommendations for practice have been described above. This research study might emphasize the need for basic empirical research to build a foundation for advanced research in the area of servant leadership as a leadership theory for promotion of global social good, impacting organizational leadership and schools of business in the training of leaders.

Conclusion

The need for radical leadership change is now, thrusting leadership to the forefront of change and opportunity (Spangenburg, 2014). The problem is the lack of knowledge and lack of empirical research on servant leadership and its relationship to organizational TBL reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and social change to establish credibility as a viable leadership theory. The research questions addressed the means of the total and average reporting outcomes of economy, environment, and social change, and the means of the total and average reporting outcomes of the composite triple bottom line of servant leadership and non-servant leadership organizations. Key findings established that no statistically significant difference existed between servant leadership based and non-servant leadership based organizations' reporting of total economy, environment, social, and triple bottom line scores. A statistically significant difference was found where servant leadership based organizations reported a higher total economic score. A statistically significant difference was also found where nonservant leadership based organizations had higher social scores than servant leadership based organizations. This was attributed to non-servant leadership based organizations providing more extensive reporting information per item in the social category subscale than did servant leadership based organizations. Key recommendations included the need for empirical study to clearly generate criteria for a list of servant leadership organizations, and the need for strict criteria in use of the GRI Guidelines for organizations to use the label of GRI Report. If the report guidelines are used as structured, the reports can be utilized for transparency, disclosure, comparison, and further research. I also recommend further

empirical studies on TBL reporting on organizations generally, not servant leadership organizations only, while recognizing that the appropriate data bases for comparability are needed for validity of the studies. With the GRI, there was a high quality standardized structure for the gathering of the data, but if not followed, the comparability was lost. The final key recommendation was empirical studies on servant leadership as a leadership theory comparable with other studies of *new genre* leadership theories such as transformational, authentic, and charismatic.

The need for a focus on humanism in leadership, corporate social responsibility in communities to expand rapidly to meet the challenge of shaping an inclusive and sustainable global society, and the need for comparable measurable organization outcomes of economy, environment, and social change have been established. Servant leadership, first introduced in the 1970s, has risen as a possible tool to meet these leadership needs. The time is now for further research to capture the possibility of use of such a leadership theory to aid in a major paradigm shift of organization leadership. The leader of the future will need to support and not exploit his or her followers, and facilitate their development and decision making in a way that promotes the common good. If not here, where? If not now, when? Ethical scholarly views demand answers that are in alignment with current leadership crisis that will facilitate a sustainable society, humanistic and responsible global future generations for the common good.

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Appendix A: GRI Guideline Sample Page

→ SECTION 5

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Aspect: Compliance



MONETARY VALUE OF SIGNIFICANT FINES AND TOTAL NUMBER OF NON-MONETARY SANCTIONS FOR NON-COMPLIANCE WITH ENVIRONMENTAL LAWS AND REGULATIONS

- a. Report significant fines and non-monetary sanctions in terms of:
 - Total monetary value of significant fines
 - Total number of non-monetary sanctions
 - Cases brought through dispute resolution mechanisms
- b. Where organizations have not identified any non-compliance with laws or regulations, a brief statement of this fact is sufficient.

SEE IMPLEMENTATION PLAN ↓

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Aspect: Transport

See reference 103.



SIGNIFICANT ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TRANSPORTING PRODUCTS AND OTHER GOODS AND MATERIALS FOR THE ORGANIZATION'S OPERATIONS, AND TRANSPORTING MEMBERS OF THE WORKFORCE

- a. Report the significant environmental impacts of transporting products and other goods and materials for the organization's operations, and transporting members of the workforce. Where quantitative data is not provided, report the reason.
- b. Report how the environmental impacts of transporting products, members of the organization's workforce, and other goods and materials are mitigated.
- c. Report the criteria and methodology used to determine which environmental impacts are significant.

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Aspect: Overall

See references 21, 109.



TOTAL ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION EXPENDITURES AND INVESTMENTS BY TYPE

- a. Report total environmental protection expenditures by:
 - Waste disposal, emissions treatment, and remediation costs
 - Prevention and environmental management costs

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Appendix B: GRI Organization Profile and Governance

Organization Name _____ Location _____

Number and Names of Countries where the organization operates: Number _____
Names _____

Nature of Ownership and Legal Form _____

Markets served (including geographic breakdown, sectors served, type of customers and beneficiaries) _____

Scale of the organization:

Total # of employees _____ Total # of operations _____ Net sales (private sector) _____

Net revenues _____

Employees

Total # of employees by employment contract and gender: Total _____ Male _____ Female _____

Total # of permanent employees by employment type and gender _____

Total # of employees by age group _____

Total # of employees by diversity breakdown

% of total employees covered by collective bargaining agreements _____

Organization Awards _____

COMMENTARY

Date _____

Appendix C: GRI Data Summary Report

Rating scale adopted from A. Leszcynska, Emerald Group Publishing Limited. doi: 10.1108/02635571211238518

Organization _____

Note: Items are rated as follows: brief/generic = 1; detail = 2; extensive = 3; full coverage = 4; N/A
Numbers within parentheses with items match detailed item on the GRI-G4 Report

Category and Items	1	2	3	4	N/A
1. Category: Economic (EC)					
Direct economic value generated & distributed (1)					
Risks and opportunities posed by climate change (2)					
Org's defined benefit plan obligations (3)					
Financial assistance received from government (4)					
Ratio of entry level wage by gender to min wage (5)					
Proportion of Sr. Mgmt hired from local comm (6)					
Impacts on commun and local economies (7)					
Significant indirect economic impacts (8)					
Proportion of spending on local suppliers (9)					
2. Category: Environment (EN)					
Materials used: renewable and nonrenewable (1)					
% of materials that are recycled input materials (2)					
Energy consumption within the organization (3)					
Energy consumption outside of the organization (4)					
Energy intensity ratio (5)					
Reduction of energy consumption (6)					
Reductions in energy requirement: products/svc (7)					
Total water withdrawal by source (8)					
Water sources affected by withdrawal of water (9)					
% & total volume of water recycled/reused (10)					
Size & location of habitats protected or restored (13a)					
Direct greenhouse gas emissions (15)					
Reduction of Greenhouse gas emissions (8)					
# environmental grievance impacts filed (34)					

Page Two
GRI Data Summary Report

Note: Items are rated as follows: brief/generic = 1; detail = 2; extensive = 3; full coverage = 4; 5 = N/A
Numbers within items match detailed item on the GRI-G4 Report

Category and Items	1	2	3	4	N/A
3. Category: Social (SO)					
3a. Labor Practices and Decent Work (LA)					
Total # and rates of new employee hires and employee turnover by age group and gender (1)					
Benefits provided to F/T employees but not temporary or part-time employees (2)					
Return to work and retention rates after parental leave, by gender (3)					
Labor/ Management Relations (4)					
Occupational Health and Safety (5, 6, 7, 8)					
Training and Education (9, 10, 11)					
Diversity and Equal Opportunity (12, 13)					
Supplier Assessment for Labor Practices (14, 15)					
Labor practices grievance mechanisms (16)					
3b. Human Rights (HR)					
Total # and % of investment agreements and Contracts that include human rights clauses or screening(1)					
Total # of hours devoted to training on human Rights policies or procedures (2a)					
% of employees trained in human rights policies Or procedures (2b)					
Total number of incidents of discrimination (3)					
Freedom of association and collective Bargaining (4)					
% of new suppliers screened using human rights Criteria (10)					
Potential negative human rights impacts in the Supply chain and actions taken (11)					
# Grievances about human rights impacts filed (12)					
3c1. Society (SO) (Community Relations)					
% of operations with implemented local community engagement, development programs (1)					
Operations with actual, potential negative impacts on local communities (2)					
Total # and % of operations assessed for risks related to corruption with risks identified (3)					
Communication and training on anti-corruption policies and procedures (4)					
Confirmed incidents of corruption and action taken (5)					

Page Three
GRI Data Summary Report

	1	2	3	4	N/A
Item					
Category: Social (continued)					
3c1. Society (SO) (continued)					
Total # of legal actions for anti-competitive behavior, anti-trust, monopoly practices (7)					
% of new suppliers screened using criteria for impacts on society (9)					
Actual and potential negative impacts on society in the supply chain and actions taken (10)					
Grievance mechanisms for impacts on society (11)					
3c2. Society (SO) (Safety)					
% of product and service categories with assessment of safety impacts for improvement (PR-1)					
# of incidents of noncompliance with regulations and voluntary codes concerning health and safety impacts of products and services during their life cycle, by type of outcomes (PR-2)					
Results of surveys measuring customer satisfaction (PR-5)					
Sale of banned or disputed products (PR-6)					
Total # of incidents of noncompliance with regulations and voluntary codes concerning marketing communications, advertising, promotion, and sponsorships by type of outcomes (PR-7)					
Total # substantiated complaints regarding breaches of customer privacy and losses of data (PR-8)					

Appendix D: GRI Data Summary Report Range of Scores

Note: Range of Scores are calculated based on the following rating: 1 = brief/generic; 2 = detail; 3 = extensive; 4 = full coverage

Category	1	2	3	4	SUM Min/Max
Note: 55 items spread over 3 major categories					
1. Economic (EC) (Total)					
9 elements. Each element range of scores =	9	18	27	36	9/36
2. Environment (EN) (Total)					
14 elements. Each element range of scores =	14	28	42	56	14/56
3. Social (Total)					
32 elements. See subcategories below	32	64	96	128	32/128
3a. Labor Practices (LA) (Total)					
9 elements. Each element range of scores =	9	18	27	36	9/36
3b. Human Rights (HR) (Total)					
8 elements. Each element range of scores =	8	16	24	32	8/32
3c₁. Society (SO) (Commun)(Total)					
9 elements. Each element range of scores =	9	18	27	36	9/36
3c₂. Society (SO) (Safety) (Total)					
6 elements. Each element range of scores =	6	12	18	24	6/24
Triple Bottom Line (TBL) Total	55	110	165	220	55/220
See category totals above					

Appendix E: Permission for Use of Sustainability Report Analysis

Tue, Mar 29, 2016 1:18 am
FW: URGENT Fwd: Request for Permission to Use Sustainability Report Analysis
From
To
Cc Brad Swecker

Hi Lydia,

Thank you for your email- please accept my sincere apologies for the delay in responding.

With regards to your request, Emerald is happy for you to reuse the content, subject to full referencing/acknowledgement of the original work.

I hope this helps but please don't hesitate to contact me should you require any further assistance.

Kind Regards,

Chris Tutill

Rights Executive | Emerald Group Publishing Limited
Tel: +44 (0) 1274 785173 | Fax: +44 (0)1274 785200

CTutill@emeraldinsight.com | www.emeraldinsight.com

Original Message-----

From: Lydia Daniels.
To: bswecker
Cc: Idancon

Sent: Mon, Mar 21, 2016 11:18 am
Subject: Request for Permission to Use Sustainability Report Analysis

TO: Brad Swecker
California Representative, Emerald Group Publishing

Dear Brad,

Thank you for your telephone contact today. This is the background information and permission request:

My Research Study title is "Servant Leadership and Nonservant Leadership Organization Triple Bottom Line Reporting Outcomes." I am using archival data from the GRI Reports of 6 SL and 6 non-SL organizations for comparative analysis. I am requesting to use the GRI reporting analysis as reported in the following article in the Emerald Group Publishing:

Leszczynska, Agnieszka (2012). Towards shareholders' value: An analysis of sustainability reports. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 112(6), 911-928. Emerald Group Publishing.

Attached is the draft of the rating scale to be applied to the report analyses. Full recognition and credit will be acknowledged in the Dissertation and any subsequent publishing. I will appreciate your positive consideration to this request and an expeditious response as I am planning to complete this project for June graduation.

Thanking you in advance,

Lydia M. Daniels
Walden University Student,

Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Registered Office: Howard House, Wagon Lane,
Bingley, BD16 1WA United Kingdom. Registered in England No. 3080506, VAT No.
GB 665 3593 06

Appendix F: Confidentiality Agreement

Name of Signer:

During the course of my activity in rating and/or analyzing data for this research: “Servant Leadership and Nonservant Leadership Organization Triple Bottom Line Reporting Outcomes,” I will have access to organization names, which is confidential and should not be disclosed. I acknowledge that the information must remain confidential, and that improper disclosure of confidential information can be damaging to the research study.

By signing this Confidentiality Agreement I acknowledge and agree that:

1. I will not disclose or discuss any confidential information with others, including friends or family.
2. I will not in any way divulge, copy, release, sell, loan, alter or destroy any confidential information except as properly authorized.
3. I will not discuss confidential information where others can overhear the conversation. I understand that it is not acceptable to discuss confidential information even if the organization’s name is not used.
4. I will not make any unauthorized transmissions, inquiries, modification or purging of confidential information.
5. I agree that my obligations under this agreement will continue after termination of the job that I will perform.
6. I understand that violation of this agreement will have legal implications.
7. I will only access or use systems or devices I’m officially authorized to access and I will not demonstrate the operation or function of systems or devices to unauthorized individuals.

Signing this document, I acknowledge that I have read the agreement and I agree to comply with all the terms and conditions stated above.

Signature:**Date:**