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Running head: CHANGING THE WORLD THROUGH SERVANT LEADERSHIP

Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

CHANGING THE WORLD THROUGH SERVANT LEADERSHIP

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Michele Anne Spain

July, 2014

James Rocco DellaNeve, Ed.D.—Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

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under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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VITA

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ABSTRACT

Leadership theories provide guidance, methods, and models for effective leaders. Many leadership theories, such as transactional, transformational, and servant leadership, identify a set of leadership traits or behaviors an effective leader possesses. Robert Greenleaf's (1970) servant leadership theory and characteristics have endured for decades. Greenleaf's servant leadership theory has resurfaced and grown in popularity as evidence by his work being widely cited in new publications, leadership journals, and articles on servant leadership (e.g., Ken Blanchard, Stephen Covey, and Peter Senge).

A number of authors have studied Eunice Kennedy Shriver and written about her leadership style, but no one to date has conducted an analysis to determine if her characteristics match those of a servant leader. This dissertation was a historical case study to recognize the leadership of Shriver and analyze the supposition that she was a servant leader. Shriver had the vision that became the Special Olympics movement that transformed the lives of people with intellectual disabilities and their families and communities worldwide. The fact that under the leadership of Shriver the Special Olympics achieved global success makes a study of her leadership style significant to the field of organizational leadership.

This qualitative case study sought to determine if leadership behaviors of the research subject, Eunice Kennedy Shriver, exemplified the 10 characteristics (behaviors) of servant leadership as defined by Robert Greenleaf (1970) and Larry Spears (1995, 1998b).

Servant leadership is the antithesis of leadership in much of corporate America. For decades, American managers of large corporations and the military have applied an autocratic (command and control) style of leadership. Servant leaders are selfless and seek to invest in the

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people they lead by genuinely caring about them and their success. They understand that success is realized through the efforts of their followers over self-interest (Greenleaf, 1977).

Leadership can be a company's competitive advantage, and servant leadership can be the key element. Laub (1999) and Parolini (2004) found that organizations that fostered a servant leadership culture capitalized on the skills of both their employees and their leaders, which led to greater employee engagement and profitability (Block, 1993; Wheatley, 2005).

Chapter 1

Researchers continue to identify specific leadership traits or behaviors necessary for effective leadership. Effective leadership is essential to the success of any organization. Companies rely on effective leaders to drive organizations to reach their goals. Research shows that leaders' characteristics can directly affect his or her ability to influence others (Anderson, Spataro, & Flynn, 2008). Kouzes and Posner (2002) found that a leader's style and actions can directly affect the organizations' behavior and overall performance.

Leadership styles have evolved since the 1900s. The once prominent directive and autocratic leadership style of the 20th century has shifted to a more democratic, shared leader-follower model in which the leader is no longer the primary focus (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). The servant leadership theory, developed by Robert Greenleaf (1970), takes a moral stand to ensure the well-being of the followers. Greenleaf (1977) asserted that leaders must lead with their followers' best interests in mind, to help them grow without force or intimidation. A servant leader is selfless and self-aware, and their primary motivation comes from a natural desire to help others. The growing interest in servant leadership necessitates an examination of the traits and behaviors of a servant leader (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). Laub (1999) noted that the rise in popularity of servant leadership is linked to the growing trend towards a team-based leadership style that fosters personal growth and employee satisfaction.

The servant leadership theory and related characteristics for effective leaders were originally developed by Greenleaf (1977), founder of the Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership. Greenleaf died in 1991. After Greenleaf's death, Larry Spears, president and CEO (1990–2007) of the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership discovered Greenleaf's

previously unknown and unpublished writings, which spanned nearly 50 years. After reviewing Greenleaf's writings and comparing them to his published work (1970; 1977; 1988; 1991), Spears (1995, 1998b) developed and published the 10 characteristics of servant leadership. The 10 characteristics of servant leadership are (a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community.

This qualitative case study examined the 10 characteristics (behaviors) of servant leadership as applied to the life of Eunice Kennedy Shriver. Historical data written by or about Shriver was examined and qualitatively analyzed using descriptive coding to determine if her leadership embodied all 10 servant leadership characteristics.

Similar case studies have been conducted using the same 10 servant leadership characteristics comparing a subject (leader) to determine whether such characteristics are exemplified in the leadership behavior of the research subject. Subjects included well-known leaders such as Christian evangelist, Billy Graham (Hunt, 2002), and American basketball player and famous coach, John Wooden (Taylor, 2008). Other researchers focused on educational leaders: Catholic high school principal (Hiatt, 2010), higher education teachers (Hays, 2008), and a community college president (Omoh, 2007). Increasing our understanding of servant leadership characteristics can be useful for organizational success in selecting, developing, and educating our workforce both today and in the future.

Servant leadership

In the 1970s, while working as an executive at AT&T, Robert Greenleaf began to develop the servant leader theory. Greenleaf's theory of servant leadership contradicted the

command-and-control leadership theories of the time. Greenleaf's original concept of servant leadership was inspired by an essay written by Hermann Hesse (1956/1932), called, *Journey to the East*. Hesse wrote about a leader named Leo who was by nature, a servant. Greenleaf (1977) concluded that a great servant leader's primary motivation is a deep desire to first serve others with the objective of ultimately building a more caring society. This approach ensures that other people's highest priority needs are being served.

Greenleaf (1977) established an approach to leadership and service in which to be a truly great leader one must first be a servant to others. True leadership materializes if one's chief motivation is the deep desire to help others. Servant leadership embodies the idea of service to others above self. Servant leaders give up self-importance and place their followers' needs ahead of their own. They help their followers reach their full potential to achieve personal and organizational success, which results in trust and cohesiveness (Greenleaf, 1977).

The main motive of a servant leader centers on developing and preparing their followers to be successful, and by doing so, they too may become servant leaders. The servant leader seeks to find ways to contribute and help others make a difference without seeking recognition or personal gain. Russell (2001) asserted that servant leaders do not hoard power, instead they freely give it away, thereby empowering others.

Greenleaf (1977) characterized servant leaders as visionaries who model ethical behavior that they want others to follow. They value and develop people, build the community, and share power for the good of each individual and the organization. Servant leaders see the "big picture" and help others reach their goals through empowerment and mentoring. Servant leaders exhibit ethical and caring behavior, which adds to the growth of people they serve while improving

overall organization effectiveness (Spears, 1998b). Greenleaf (1977) made a few key distinctions that are not directly addressed in the 10 characteristics of servant leadership: (a) Servant leaders have an inherent desire to help others, (b) they help their followers reach their goals and grow to become servant leaders themselves, and (c) their actions are often unseen.

Eunice Kennedy Shriver

In 1921, Eunice Kennedy was born in Brookline, Massachusetts, into one of the most influential families in American government and politics. The Kennedy family is known for their public service, a value that has been deeply ingrained in the Kennedy family for generations (Shorter, 2000). In 1943, Eunice earned a bachelor's degree in sociology from Stanford University and married Robert Sargent Shriver Jr. a decade later (see Appendix A, Eunice Kennedy Shriver Timeline).

Eunice Kennedy Shriver's leadership advanced the rights of people with intellectual disabilities. Shriver, sister of President John F. Kennedy, changed the world for the mentally disabled by launching the Special Olympics. Shriver had a clear vision to change the world's understanding and treatment of people with intellectual disabilities (Shorter, 2000).

Historically, society has believed that people with mental disabilities were incapable of developing and functioning in any area of life. Shriver was extremely close to her sister Rosemary. Rosemary was considered mildly mentally disabled. In 1941, around the age of 23, Rosemary underwent a lobotomy, which at that time, was considered a standard remedy for mood swings and depression. Unfortunately, the surgery worsened Rosemary's condition. Rosemary was left in a comatose-like state and was placed in a Catholic care home for the remainder of her life (Kennedy, 2009).

In the 1950s, the mentally disabled were among the most scorned, isolated, and neglected groups in American society (Shorter, 2000). Mental retardation was viewed as a hopeless, shameful disease, and those afflicted were shunned from society. Families of children with intellectual disabilities would often hide them, deny them basic human rights, and even tell others that they had died.

For the press, the Kennedys would make excuses for Rosemary's absence from the public eye, stating that Rosemary was away "teaching" or helping to "care for the mentally retarded" (Shorter, 2000, p. 34). The social stigma of mental disabilities was so strong that it took the Kennedy family two years into John F. Kennedy's presidency to publicly announce Rosemary's medical condition (Shorter, 2000). In 1962, Shriver took a bold and significant first-step on her journey to the change the world. With the consent of her family, she published an article in the *Saturday Evening Post* sharing the truth of her sister Rosemary's mental condition (Shorter, 2000). This courageous announcement, coming from one of the nation's most famous family in politics, raised global awareness of people with intellectual disabilities. The *Saturday Evening Post* article stated,

Twenty years ago, when my sister entered an institution, it was very unusual for anyone to discuss this problem in terms of hope. . . . The years of indifference and neglect are drawing to a close and the years of research and experiment, faithful study and sustained advancement are upon us. (Shriver, 1962, p. 74)

Shriver's profound love for her sister Rosemary was evident as she devoted her entire life to giving people with intellectual disabilities a voice, a voice of hope. She made use of her family connections to bring about this change. The reputation and notoriety of the Kennedy

family enabled Eunice to exercise considerable influence in politics. Eunice made use of her influence through persistent pursuit of her goals (Stossel, 2004).

Shriver used sports as a means of sensitizing the world to the plight of people with intellectual disabilities and as a catalyst for instilling “respect, acceptance, and inclusion” towards the intellectually challenged” (Seckler, 2009, p. 1). Shriver clearly understood that people with intellectual disabilities have the ability and right to excel and grow at sports and in life and she relentlessly fought for those rights (Shorter, 2000).

Throughout her lifetime, Shriver had the support of her brother, John F. Kennedy, the entire Kennedy family, as well as many public officials. Shriver fought for changes in legislation, education, and research to overturn the prejudice and oppression towards the intellectually disabled. In the 1960s, Shriver established the President’s Committee on Mental Retardation and the National Institute for Child Health and Human Development and created a network of university-affiliated facilities and intellectual disabilities research centers at major medical schools across the United States.

In 1962, Shriver ran a summer camp for mentally disabled children in her backyard in the suburbs of Washington, D.C. This event was the start of what eventually became the Special Olympics. From observing her sister, Shriver could see that the intellectually disabled were far more capable and should have the right to participate in sports and physical education (Shorter, 2000).

After seeing first-hand how sports improved her sister’s quality of life, Shriver began creating world-wide opportunities for the intellectual disabled to actively participate in sports

training and competition. Shriver's empathy for the disabled sparked her vision to start a global movement for the rights and acceptance of the intellectually challenged.

In the 1970s, Shriver broke new ground and organized centers for the study of medical ethics at Harvard and Georgetown Universities. Shriver's leadership was recognized by the French Legion and the American Association on Mental Deficiency (AAMD). In the 1980s Shriver instituted the "Community of Caring" program across 1,200 public and private schools; the program worked to reduce intellectual disabilities among babies of teenagers. Her leadership efforts were recognized by the University of Notre Dame, United States Sports Academy, and by Ronald Regan, who presented Shriver with the nation's highest civilian award, the Presidential Medal of Freedom.

By the year 2003, the Special Olympics had grown internationally to more than 6,500 athletes with intellectual disabilities from 150 countries. Shriver fought to globally educate the vision of the Special Olympics through documentaries, ABC's *Wide World of Sports* presentations, afterschool TV specials, and feature films. Shriver's goal was to demonstrate that athletic training, medical treatment, and schooling could change the lives of the intellectually disabled.

Many well know public figures have spoken of Shriver's visionary leadership, a key servant leadership characteristic called conceptualization. Special Olympics President and Chief Operating Officer Brady Lum (as quoted in Suto, 2009) credited Shriver's influential vision that created the Special Olympics movement and transformed the lives of people with intellectual disabilities, their families, and their communities. *Sports Illustrated* columnist, Jack McCallum (2009), noted that Shriver was recognized for her vision, creation, and success of the Special

Olympics. He stated that Shriver was the most important person responsible for improving and enriching the lives of the intellectually disabled; virtually every country in the world has taken hold of the Special Olympics. Quincy Jones (2009) noted that although Eunice was born into one of the most legendary families in American society, she did not let that define her nor did she rest on that legacy. Shriver created her own success through the Special Olympics, a cause that has influenced and supported people around the world (see Appendix B, The Leadership Continuum of Eunice Kennedy Shriver, for a listing of Shriver's leadership endeavors and accomplishments).

At a White House in 2005, at a dinner in honor of Shriver's 85th birthday, Eunice said, Let us not forget that we have miles to go to overturn the prejudice and oppression facing the world's 180 million citizens with intellectual disabilities. . . . As we go forward, all of us, may our numbers increase in this noble battle. May you overturn ignorance. May you challenge indifference at every turn. And may you find great joy in the new daylight of the great athletes of the Special Olympics. (as quoted in McCarthy, 2009, para. 8).

Statement of the Problem

Various authors have characterized Shriver's leadership style as servant leadership (Frick, 2004; Leamer, 1994; Shorter, 2000; Stossel, 2004). It seems apparent that Shriver has the characteristics of a servant leader, but there are no documented studies or publications that specifically explore whether she exhibited the servant leader characteristics as defined by Greenleaf (1970) and Spears (1995, 1998b).

The trait-based servant leader concept brought forth by Greenleaf (1977) and Spears (1995, 1998b) has only recently emerged as 'highly relevant' to management (Andersen, 2009;

Hamilton, 2008; Hopen, 2010). Northouse (1997) noted that a criticism of servant leadership theory has been its lack of support from “published, well-designed, empirical research” and its reliance on examples that are mostly “anecdotal in nature” (p. 245). As a result, the servant leader theory has not been strong enough to create widespread acceptance (Russell & Stone, 2002). Formal theory and research designed to test the professed strengths of servant leadership are still in the early stages of maturation (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008).

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to recognize the leadership of Eunice Kennedy Shriver and to analyze the supposition that she was a servant leader as exemplified by Greenleaf’s (1977) and Spears’ (1995, 1998b) 10 servant leadership characteristics.

Research Question

The research question for this study is, What evidence exists that the declared 10 characteristics of servant leadership as defined by Greenleaf (1977) and Spears (1995, 1998b)—(a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community—are exemplified in the life of the research subject, Eunice Kennedy Shriver?

Significance of the Topic

A study of whether Eunice Kennedy Shriver’s leadership style can be characterized as a servant leader is significant for many reasons. No scholarly literature exists examining the similarities and differences between Shriver’s leadership style and servant leadership. This study will fill a gap in literature on this topic.

Similar peer reviewed servant leadership studies have been published using Spears (1995, 1998b) 10 characteristics of servant leadership in comparison to a particular leader or leaders (see Table 1). One third of the authors listed in Table 1 used historical data, whereas the others exercised surveys and personal interviews.

Table 1

Peer Reviewed Servant Leadership Studies

Subject	Author/ Yr	Research Method	Measure
Billy Graham	Hunt 2002	10 characteristics of servant leadership compared to historical research data	Number of occurrence
Community college president	Omoh 2007	10 characteristics of servant leadership compared to 13 participants' lived experiences, perceptions, perspectives, & understanding of the research subjects leadership style	% of occurrences
John Wooden	Taylor 2008	10 characteristics of servant leadership compared to historical research data	Number of occurrences
Catholic high school president	Hiatt 2010	10 characteristics of servant leadership compared to personal interview responses from subject	5 point Likert scale
Experts in the field of servant leadership	Focht 2011	Reviewed 10 characteristics of servant leadership compared to the servant leadership characteristics as defined by experts in the field (survey)	4 point Likert scale
Community college instructional administrators	Elliott 2012	10 characteristics of servant leadership compared to responses from interviews with 3 chief academic officers and 5 or 6 of their direct reports	Number of occurrences
Higher education teachers	Hays 2008	10 characteristics of servant leadership compared to the characteristics of leaders in higher education	5 point Likert scale

The topic of servant leadership has resurfaced in recent years as evidence of the numerous publications that cite Greenleaf's work cited (see Table 2). Furthermore, the popularity of the servant leadership in many well-known organizations, coupled with the need

for more effective organizational leadership calls for a study of this rising leadership practice (Autry, 2001; Bennis, 2003; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Page & Wong, 2000; Spears, 2004).

Lastly, the results of this study may be used by companies and institutions to improve organizational effectiveness and profitability (Lewis & Noble, 2008).

Table 2

Recent Servant Leadership Publications

Published	Author(s)	Research title
2010	Dirk Van Dierendonck and Kathleen Patterson	<i>Servant Leadership: Developments in Theory and Research</i>
2011	Shann Ray Ferch and Larry Spears	<i>The Spirit of Servant Leadership</i>
2011	Robert W. Hayden	<i>Greenleaf's "Best Test" of Servant Leadership: A Multilevel Analysis</i>
2012	Rayna Schroeder, Jackie Bahn-Henkelman and Jim Henkelman-Bahn	<i>Becoming a Servant-Leader</i>
2012	Kent Keith	<i>Questions and Answers About Servant Leadership</i>
2012	Daniel Wheeler	<i>Servant Leadership for Higher Education: Practices and Principles</i>
2012	Jeanine Parolini	<i>Transformational Servant Leadership</i>
2012	Dan C. Hammer and C. Peter Wagner	<i>Servant Leadership</i>
2012	Larry W. Boone and Sanya Makhani	"Five Necessary Attitudes of a Servant Leader"
2013	Denise Linda Parris and Jon Welty Peachey	"A Systematic Literature Review of Servant Leadership Theory in Organizational Contexts"

(continued)

Published	Author(s)	Research title
2013	Graham Hill	<i>Servantship: Sixteen Servants on the Four Movements of Radical Servantship</i>
2013	Geoff Watts	<i>Scrum Mastery: From Good To Great Servant-Leadership</i>
2013	Tony Barron	<i>The Art of Servant Leadership: Designing Your Organization for the Sake of Others</i>
2013	Gerald Baldner	<i>Successful Servant Leadership: Insights from Servant Leaders in Education, Business, Healthcare, Politics, Athletics, and Religion</i>

Key Definitions

Researchers define terms so that readers can understand their exact meaning (Creswell, 2003). The following definitions of terms are provided to bring clarification throughout this case study.

Leadership: Northouse (2004) described leadership as a process whereby an individual influences others to achieve a common goal. Bass (1990b) emphasized that leadership involves having the ability to lead others toward achieving the organizations goals and objectives. Frick (2004) asserted that leaders articulates and clarify goals to provide certainty of the purpose and vision for their followers.

Mental retardation: Mental retardation was a term commonly used when referring to people with intellectual disabilities. This term is no longer used as it considered offensive and hurtful (Chandler, 2010). In 2010, a new federal statute, called, “Rosa’s Law,” mandates that the term *mental retardation* be replaced with *intellectual disabilities* in federal health, education and labor policy (Chandler, 2010, para. 1). Similar terms used in this case study include *mentally disabled*, *intellectually disabled*, and *intellectually challenged*. The American Association of Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities defined intellectual disabilities: (a) intellectual

functioning level (IQ) below 70–75; (b) significant limitations in two or more adaptive skill areas; and (c) manifesting before the age of 18 (as cited in Special Olympics, 2014d).

Servant leadership: Laub (2004) noted that although Greenleaf did not explicitly define the term *servant leadership*, he identified specific traits and behaviors of servant leaders. Greenleaf (1977) stated that servant leadership consists of a leader's natural feeling to serve others before themselves, ensuring that "other people's highest priority needs are being served" (p. 13). Spears (1995, 1998b) expanded upon the Greenleaf's theory by identifying 10 most frequently mentioned servant leadership characteristics in Greenleaf's writings—(a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community.

Special Olympics: The Special Olympics is defined by the online Oxford English Dictionary ("Special Olympics," 2014a) as: "An international competition, modeled on the Olympic Games, in which mentally and physically handicapped athletes compete." The Special Olympics' (2014c) mission is to present sports training and athletic competitions, year round, for adults and children with intellectual disabilities by providing them continuing opportunities to, "develop physical fitness, demonstrate courage, experience joy and participate in the sharing of gifts, skills and friendship with their families, other Special Olympic athletes and the community."

Key Assumptions

This case study was conducted through the examination of historical data for evidence of Shriver's leadership and her work with the intellectually challenged. The study also includes literature on the life of Shriver prior to the inception of the Special Olympics. An assumption for

this case study is that both primary leadership sources written by Shriver and secondary sources written about Eunice are available to determine to what extent, if any, there is a relationship between Shriver's leadership style and servant leadership. The assumption has been made that the current and historical information provided in the primary and secondary sources are accurate and truthful. Also, there is an assumption that these primary and secondary documents sufficiently capture the essence of Shriver for the researcher's evaluations about the nature of her leadership. Additionally, it is assumed that Shriver and her leadership style are practical topics for this case study surrounding organizational leadership, more specifically, servant leadership characteristics.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of this case study involve data gathering, interpretation, and analysis. For example, the volume of data sources makes analysis and interpretation time intensive. Additionally, qualitative studies are not easily replicated, and findings might not be easily generalized. This case study is limited to available primary sources written by Shriver and secondary sources written about her. The data gathered for this study may be incomplete, incorrect, or lack authenticity. In general, qualitative research is interpretive and highly subjective (Creswell, 2003). There may be a potential bias by the researcher. For example, researchers may be inclined to force a connection between two factors (e.g. Shriver's leadership style and servant leadership characteristics).

The researcher's values and belief system predispose the study to researchers' bias. For example, when the researcher extracts the raw data to translate into codes, the decisions are

based upon the researcher's judgment that the data is relevant. Also, other researchers' results may differ due to the potential subjective decision making by the researchers.

Chapter 1 provides the background and contextual definition of the servant leadership theory and characteristics, and the history of Shriver's leadership and legacy. Additionally, Chapter 1 defines the problem and purpose of this study including the research question, significance of the topic, key definitions, assumptions, and limitations. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive literature review of servant leadership characteristics and other significant leadership models, and their relevance to servant leadership. Chapter 3 defines the research methodology and detailed process for gathering data sources, the instruments used and analysis applied, as well as the Pepperdine University Institutional Review Board plans. Chapter 4 provides the findings of the applied qualitative coding, and Chapter 5 presents a summary of the findings and conclusion.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides a literature review of relevant leadership theories in contrast to the servant leadership theory and characteristics as defined by Greenleaf (1977) and Spears (1995, 1998b). This leadership literature review revealed an abundance of research data on leadership characteristics, both in books and on the Internet (45,200,000 sites using “leadership characteristics”). This review identifies many common threads of servant leadership characteristics to other leadership theories, (e.g., trait approach, team leadership, and transformational leadership).

Historical Background

The modern beginning of servant leadership is credited to Greenleaf’s (1970) pivotal essay on servant leadership, “The Servant as Leader.” This essay was expanded into Greenleaf’s (1977) book, *Servant leadership: A Journey Into the Nature of Legitimate Power and Greatness*. Greenleaf’s writings contain numerous enduring themes. These themes have been used by many subsequent authors as they seek to refine the definition and measures of a servant leadership.

Using Greenleaf’s writings, Larry Spears, president and CEO of the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership, categorized the 10 most recurrently noted characteristics of a servant leader as follows: (a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community (Spears 1995, 1998b). For the remainder of this study, these characteristics are referred to as the “10 characteristics of servant leadership.” Spears (2004) noted that these leadership characteristics’ signify, “strength, commitment, and responsibility for those desire to undertake the servant leadership role” (p. 7).

Some dispute that Greenleaf's servant leadership concept was the first of its kind. For example, Jesus Christ taught his disciples the servant leadership principles saying, "Whosoever will be great among you, let him be your minister; and whosoever will be chief among you, let him be your servant" (20 Matt. 26–27, King James Version). Cedar (1987) stated, "He [Jesus Christ] was and is the master servant leader" (p. 22). Blanchard and Hodges (2003) wrote that Jesus sent a clear message on leadership to His disciples; he said that the act of service was first in leadership. He instructed those who follow Him, that leadership is an act of service.

In 1961, when John F. Kennedy (1989) gave his famous inaugural speech, and said, "And so, my fellow Americans: ask not what your country can do for you, ask what you can do for your country" (para. 25), he expressed the underlining principal of servant leadership, service to others. He called upon others to serve as leaders to bring about change toward a mutual goal.

Greenleaf (2002) theorized that servant leadership leads to personal growth of the followers, in which these followers would likely emulate the servant leader by becoming a servant leader themselves. He noted that the best way to identify servant leaders was by evaluating the effects of this leadership style on their followers. The direct outcomes-based test of servant leadership has not been empirically tested. Greenleaf (1970) described the "best test" (p. 15) of servant leadership:

The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant—first to make sure that the other people's highest priority needs are being served. 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, more likely themselves to become

servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society? Will they benefit or at least not be further deprived” (p. 7).

Greenleaf’s work is highly respected and widely used in leadership journals, articles, and publications. Frick (2004) remarked that Greenleaf’s servant leadership work has been repeatedly cited by many important business authors, such as Ken Blanchard, Stephen Covey, and Peter Senge and others. In blurbing Ferch and Spear’s (2011) *The Spirit of Servant Leadership*, Senge noted, “No one in the past 30 years has had a more profound impact on thinking about leadership than Robert Greenleaf” (p. xv).

Theoretical Framework

This chapter addresses relevant leadership approaches, theories, and models and their relationship, if any, to servant leadership. The purpose of this chapter is to provide pertinent background information and explanation of leadership research of the past in relation to and in support of the 10 servant leadership characteristics as defined by Spears (1995; 1998b). This literature review encompasses these leadership theories and models: (a) servant leadership, (b) trait approach, (c) skills approach, (d) style approach, (e) situational leadership, (f) contingency theory, (g) path–goal theory, (h) leader–member exchange (LMX), (i) transactional leadership, (j) transformational leadership, (k) full range leadership theory (FRLT), and (l) team leadership.

This chapter also seeks to demonstrate the researcher’s knowledge of organizational leadership in relation to servant leadership. To illustrate the common threads, if any, between various the leadership theories and the 10 servant leadership characteristics, the researcher developed a matrix (see Table 1).

Based on the researcher's understanding and definition of the 10 characteristics of servant leadership (Spears, 1995; 1998b), the researcher assigned keywords for each characteristic. The keywords were used by the researcher to aid in capturing the true meaning of each characteristic. For example, the definition of the servant leadership characteristic *awareness* includes self-awareness, perceptiveness, and awareness in a holistic view. The researcher assigned the keywords *awareness, self-aware, holistic view, perceptive, insightful, and conscious*.

The next section defines the servant leadership theory and the 10 characteristics of servant leadership. These 10 definitions and keywords were used in analyzing historical data on the leadership style of Shriver.

Servant Leadership

Background. Robert K. Greenleaf (1904–1990) developed the servant leadership theory in the 1970s. The words *servant* and *leader* are often thought of as contradictory terms, but together they capture the essence of Greenleaf's leadership theory of servanthood. Greenleaf (1977) asserted that strong servant leaders are naturally driven to serve a cause. Servant leadership is not focused the style of the leader; the focus is on the leader's character and motivation. Servant leaders have strong values and a deep desire to serve others. Dittmar (2006) pointed out that it was Greenleaf's belief that most people have a nature desire to serve others.

A servant leader's ethics and values system encourages trust with followers. As a result of the servant leader, the followers themselves become servant leaders. Servant leaders behave in a way that cultivates and nurtures an environment of trust. Their servant attitude breeds trust and commitment as followers can consistently see that their leader considers their best interests, even and especially in turbulent times (Dittmar, 2006).

The 10 characteristics of servant leadership:

1. Listening. Listening is an important element in understanding others. Greenleaf (1977) characterized listening as an attitude displayed by the leader that pays close attention, by showing genuine interest toward others with the aim of deeply understanding and without judgment or regard for personal view. Greenleaf, Beazley, Beggs, and Spears, (2003) noted that when leaders listen, they learn about their followers in ways that help them modify the followers' attitudes, and subsequently they modify their own behavior, which results in the transformation of the attitudes and behaviors of others. Cashman (1999) described authentic listening as hearing not just the words, but hearing "the emotions, fears, and underlying concerns...beyond our self-centered needs" (p. 121). Zander and Zander (2000) discussed listening authentically in the context of "the silent conductor" (p. 68). A silent conductor takes the time to observe and listen for the passion and commitment in others, thereby allowing others the opportunity to express themselves enabling them to "speak to their passion" (Zander & Zander, 2000, p. 74). Additionally, Stephen Covey's (2005) Habit 5: "Seek first to understand, then to be understood" points out the importance of listening intently (p. 235). Demonstrating the desire to listen to others displays sincerity in wanting to truly understand the different views of other people. Covey (2004) noted that it is important for leadership growth and development to listen to understand and focus on receiving "the deep communication of another human soul" (p. 241).

Keywords: *listen, hear, understand, sincerity, openness, and attentive.*

2. Empathy. Servant leaders work to understand and empathize with others (Greenleaf et al., 2003). Greenleaf (1977) believed that everyone should be accepted and acknowledged for their special uniqueness. The online *Oxford English Dictionary* defines empathy as “understanding and sharing the feelings of another” (“Empathy,” 2014). Buckingham and Clifton (2001) described empathy as the ability to feel the emotions of others and what they are experiencing—as if it is happening to you. By doing so, the leader builds trust and understands the follower’s perspective. Servant leaders never reject others; they are accepting and tolerant (Greenleaf, 1977). Robbins (2005) noted that when one actively listens, they develop empathy with the person speaking because they are able to truly hear what the person is saying without prejudice. Keywords: *empathy, acceptance, caring, trust, and sensing*.
3. Healing. Servant leaders heal others by showing compassion and concern through listening and empathy. The healing process occurs when the leader demonstrates a caring and nurturing attitude that supports and encourages the other person (Spears, 1995, 1998b). Keywords: *compassion, concern, empathetic listening, nurturing, and encouraging*.
4. Awareness. The servant leadership characteristic, awareness, refers to a leaders’ strong sense of personal awareness and self-acceptance and conscious of problems or concerns of others. Servant leaders are mindful of people from the macro- and microperspectives, a “holistic position” (Greenleaf et al., 2003, p. 17). They have awareness of their environment and the situation, and they understand

themselves and seek to gain greater understanding of others (Greenleaf, 1977).

Servant leaders are also committed to fostering awareness. Greenleaf (1977) noted that awareness is a disturber and an awakener, noting that servant leaders “are usually sharply awake and reasonably disturbed. They are not seekers after solace. They have their own inner serenity” (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 40). A leaders’ awareness can directly influence their understanding of issues as it provides a holistic view of a situation. Keywords: *awareness, self-aware, holistic view, perceptive, insightful, and conscious.*

5. Persuasion. Servant leaders use participatory leadership rather than directive leadership. They use persuasion, through consensus building, to engage and inspire their followers. The main distinction between the authoritative traditional style of leadership and the servant leadership model is that servant leaders effectively build “consensus within groups” (Spears, 1998b, p. 18). Servant leaders do not use their positional power to control or coerce followers; instead, they are gentle and clear. They display honesty and integrity in everything they do. As leaders build the trust of their followers, the followers’ gain a greater sense of commitment and service to the organization. Keywords: *persuade, influence, inspirational, honest, integrity, and consensus.*
6. Conceptualization. Servant leaders are visionaries and they encourage and foster big thinkers. Kouzes and Posner (2010) viewed the visionary leadership characteristic as essential because it adds the distinguishing trait of credibility to the leader. Servant leaders assess problems internal and external to the

organization from a big picture perspective, beyond the daily activities, but work to balance both the tactical and strategic requirements (Greenleaf, 1977, 2002).

Servant leaders dream big things for organizations and the people in them.

Conceptualization is truly valuable when the leader's vision includes the workforce and adds value to them (Spears, 2004). Conceptualization

characteristics of cognitive ability include intelligence, competence, and knowledge of the business (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Northouse, 2007).

Keywords: *visionary, big thinker, holistic, strategic, intelligent, competent, and knowledge of the business.*

7. Foresight. Foresight is defined as having the ability and prudence to perceive future events and caring for that possibility (Greenleaf, 2002). Foresight is related to conceptualization in that it enables the servant leaders to understand the lessons from the past, the truths of the present, and the potential consequences of future decisions. A leader's intuition and interpretation of past and current situations enables them to foresee future outcomes. Greenleaf (1977) noted that failure to foresee can be viewed as an "ethical failure" (p. 26). Servant leaders are expected to protect others by exercising prudence to protect and prepare followers for the future. Keywords: *foresight, intuitive, anticipates, and protects.*
8. Stewardship. Servant leaders serve others by putting their own self-interests aside to build people so they become wiser and healthier (Greenleaf 1977). Greenleaf (1977) defined stewardship as the concept of service in which the needs of the people are served first. The leader exhibits humility and openness by focusing on

partnering with others instead of dominating or controlling (Spears, 1998a).

Keywords: *serve, people-first, help others, build people, selfless, humility, and openness.*

9. Commitment to the growth of people. Greenleaf (1991; 1996) maintained that for followers to meet the individual goals of the organization, they must first be developed into effective leaders. Servant leaders are committed to the development and growth of every individual in the organization. They nurture others and are committed to the growth of each person personally, professionally, and spiritually. Servant leaders put their follower's best interest first before their own self-interests (Greenleaf, 1977). Keywords: *committed to growth of people, growth, empower, develop, and nurture.*
10. Building community. Servant leaders build community by creating an inclusive cooperative work environment within their organizations where they share common goals and interests. Servant leaders work side-by-side their followers to build and demonstrate community. They develop relationships and foster a collaborative work environment (Greenleaf, 2002). Keywords: *build community, teamwork, collaboration, and embrace diversity.*

Supporting viewpoints. Behavioral scientists have substantiated that the 10 characteristics of servant leadership are critical to leaders as evidenced by the growing number of servant leadership attributes (Joseph & Winston, 2005). Servant leadership characteristics continue to evolve as researchers develop new sets of characteristics (Focht, 2011; Sipe & Frick, 2009).

Prominent authors of leadership studies have reinforced the servant leadership theory (e.g., Ken Blanchard, Stephen Covey). Senge (1990) supported the servant leadership theory by noting that leaders do not just set the direction for their followers, they also serve and teach them. This type of leadership works to build trusting relationships by serving the people they lead. Max DePree (2004) defined servant leadership duty: “The first responsibility of a leader is to define reality. The last is to say thank you. In between, the leader is a servant” (p. 11).

Despite the fact that servant leadership has not gained widespread acceptance, empirical studies of servant leadership have increased: Dennis 2004; Dennis & Winston, 2003; Drury, 2004; Helland, 2004; Irving, 2004; Laub, 1999, 2004; Russell & Stone, 2002; Sendjaya, 2003; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Sendjaya (2003) believed that rigorous qualitative and quantitative research of servant leadership would be a logical next step to ensure the concepts are transformed into a comprehensive model. Russell and Stone (2002) asserted that more research is needed to learn how the personal values of servant leaders differ from other leadership styles (e.g., transformational leadership).

Servant leadership characteristics were also found in leaders of top performing organizations such as Best Buy, the United States Postal Service, Whole Foods, Starbucks, Southwest Airlines, and the San Antonio Spurs (Hesse, 2013). Hesse (2013) found that these effective leaders were humble and selfless, with strong values toward service to others. The characteristics of servant leadership drive employee engagement and increase profitability (Block, 1993; Wheatley, 2005).

Over the last decade, leadership scandals and corporate corruption (e.g. Enron, Tyco, Adelphia, Arthur Andersen, HealthSouth, and WorldCom) spurred new perspectives on

leadership, such as ethical leadership (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005) and authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The moral and selfless theory of servant leadership is significant in an era of massive corporate scandals and corruption. *New York Times* columnist, Eduardo Porter (2012), reported that Americans are less trusting of big business, a decline over the past 3 years; and 62% regard corruption as common across corporate America. Researchers theorize that a major contributing factor in these corporate corruptions stems from the leader's character. Servant leadership can improve an organization's culture because the theory is morally based, requiring leaders to self-reflect more than any other leadership style (Giampetro-Meyer, Brown, Browne, & Kubasek, 1998).

Opposing viewpoints. Most servant leadership studies have been theoretically based, lacking empirical research (Table 3).

Table 3

Theoretical Based Servant Leadership Studies

Date	Author	Title
1991	Graham	"Servant-Leadership in Organizations: Inspirational and Moral"
1998	Spears	<i>The Power of Servant Leadership</i>
2011	Ebener	"On Becoming a Servant Leader"
1998	Spears	<i>Insights on Leadership: Service, Stewardship, Spirit, and Servant Leadership</i>
1998	Buchen	"Servant Leadership: A Model for Future Faculty and Future Institutions"
1999	Farling, Stone, & Winston	"Servant Leadership: Setting the Stage for Empirical Research"
2001, 2003	Russell	"The Role of Values in Servant Leadership"; "A Practical Theology of Servant Leadership"
2002	Russell and Stone	"A Review of Servant Leadership Attributes: Developing a Practical Model"

(continued)

Date	Author	Title
2002	Sendjaya and Sarros	“Servant Leadership: Its Origins, Development, and Application in Organizations”
2002	Spears and Lawrence	<i>Focus on Leadership: Servant Leadership for the Twenty-First Century</i>
2004	Rude	<i>The Connection Between Servant Leadership and Job Burnout</i>
2003	Patterson	<i>Servant Leadership: A Theoretical Model</i>
2003	Jennings and Stahl-Wert	<i>The Serving Leader: 5 Powerful Actions That Will Transform Your Team, Your Business and Your Community</i>
2003	Wong and Page	“Servant Leadership: An Opponent-Process Model and the Revised Servant Leadership Profile”
2003, 2004	Stone, Russell, and Patterson	<i>Transformational Versus Servant Leadership: A Difference in Leadership Focus.</i>
2003	Winston	“Extending Patterson’s Servant Leadership Model: Coming Full Circle”
2004	Patterson and Stone	“Servant Leadership: Examining the Virtues of Love and Humility”
2004	Hale	A Contextualized Model for Cross-Cultural Leadership in West Africa
2004	Laub	“Defining Servant Leadership: A Recommended Typology for Servant Leadership Studies”
2004	Ndoria	“Servant Leadership: A Natural Inclination or a Taught Behavior”
2004	Page	“Experiential Learning for Servant Leadership”
2004	Parolini	“Effective Servant Leadership: A Model Incorporating Servant Leadership and the Competing Values Framework”
2004	Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko	“Transformational and Servant Leadership: Content and Contextual Comparisons”
2004	Wolford-Ulrich	“Seeing Servant Leadership Through the Lens of Design”
2006	Irving and McIntosh	“Investigating the Value of and Hindrances to Servant Leadership in the Latin American Context: Initial Findings From Peruvian Leaders”

A servant leader is always present but does not need to be seen and often, if successful, remains unnoticed, allowing their team to be recognized (Greenleaf, 1977). The servant leader’s approach may be viewed as a weak leadership style because of the traditional imagery of famous

leaders depicted as “strong, mysterious, aloof, wise, and all-powerful” (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 23).

Additionally, the servant leadership theory has been criticized for not taking into account time, as servant leaders seek to build consensus as opposed to commanding immediate action (Frick, 2004). Andersen (2009) believed that a weakness of servant-led organizations may involve unnecessary conflicts and ineffective outcomes. The assumption is that team members focus on their own personal goals and interests while organizational resources are exhausted, and the results may not necessarily equate to organizational success.

One could argue that servant leadership cannot be learned. Greenleaf (1977) maintains that one must have a true desire to serve others: “It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve *first*. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead” (p. 13). Leaders without a strong value system, integrity, or aspiration to serve do not fall under Greenleaf’s definition of a servant leader. The question of whether servant leaders can be taught to want to serve has yet to be explicitly addressed. Spears (2004) asserted that the servant leadership characteristic foresight is the only born characteristic out of the 10 servant leadership characteristics.

Next, this chapter covers a literature review of the significant leadership theories and approaches and their relationship, if any, to servant leadership. Table 4 illustrates the connections, if any, between each of the 10 characteristics of servant leadership and the leadership theories and approaches covered in this literature review.

Table 4

Servant Leadership Characteristics Relationship Matrix

Column 1		Column 2										
		Leadership theories and approaches										
Servant Leadership Characteristics	Keywords	Trait approach	Skills approach	Style approach	Situational approach	Contingency theory	Path-goal theory	Leader-member exchange	Transactional leadership	Transformational	Full range of leadership	Team leadership
	1) Listening	Listen, hear, understand, sincerity, openness, and attentive	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
2) Empathy	empathy, acceptance, caring, trust and sensing	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
3) Healing	compassion, concern, empathetic listening, nurturing, and encouraging	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
4) Awareness	awareness, self-aware, holistic view, perceptive, insightful, and conscious	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
5) Persuasion	persuade, influence, inspirational, honest, integrity, and consensus	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X

(continued)

Column 1		Column 2											
6) Conceptualization	visionary, big thinker, holistic, strategic, intelligent, competent, and knowledge of the business	X	X								X	X	X
7) Foresight	foresight, intuitive, judgment, anticipates, and protects	X	X								X	X	X
8) Stewardship	serve, people-first, help others, build people, selfless, humility, and openness	X		X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X
9) Commitment to the growth of people	committed to growth of people, growth, empower, develop, and nurture	X		X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X
10) Building community	build community, teamwork, collaboration, and embrace diversity	X					X	X			X	X	X

In Table 4, the “X” next to the servant leadership characteristic in Column 2 indicates that the servant leadership characteristic is also identified in a leadership theory or approach. A grayed-out box in Column 2 signifies no direct relationship between the servant leadership characteristic and the leadership theory or approach.

For example, the servant leadership theory emphasizes the leader’s deep commitment to connect and serve each follower. The most important way to connect with the follower is to listen. Listening is a key servant leadership characteristic that is also present in transformational leaders (Northouse, 2004). Therefore, the researcher concludes that both transformational leadership and servant leadership contain the characteristics of listening as servant and

transformational leaders both seek to guide and serve the needs of their followers by receptively and intently listening to them.

The researcher assumed that if a leadership approach or theory indicates both listening and empathy as leadership characteristics, then the servant leadership characteristic of healing should be considered part of their leadership style. Robbins (2005) asserted actively listening to another person develops empathy in the listener for the speaker. Active, empathetic, listening enables one to truly hear what a person is saying without prejudice. Greenleaf (1996) and Spears (1995, 1998b) asserted that the healing process requires a leader to interact in a caring and nurturing way that affirms and encourages the other person. The researcher asserts that empathetically listening to another is by definition acting in a caring and nurturing way and is considered to be part of healing.

The next section provides background, supporting and opposing viewpoints, and relationship to servant leadership of the following leadership theories and approaches: (a) trait approach, (b) skills approach, (c) style approach, (d) situational leadership, (e) contingency theory, (f) path-goal theory, (g) LMX, (h) transactional leadership, (i) transformational leadership, (j) FRLT, and (k) team leadership.

Trait Approach

Background. During the mid-19th century, scholars studied leadership traits of various high profile military, government, and social leaders. Researchers were interested in identifying and understanding the trait differences between leaders and followers. These studies and others resulted in many so-called great man theories of leadership that propose that certain people are born leaders. Many great man theories identify the leader as strong, powerful, and heroic.

The trait approach seeks to identify specific qualities or a combination of characteristics that an effective leader exemplifies (Robbins, 2005). The trait approach includes personal, social, goal-oriented, physical, demographical, and intellectual characteristics. For example, a leader may possess personal characteristics such as confidence and aggressiveness and social characteristics of collaboration and sociability. Goal-oriented characteristics can include persistence and being results driven. Physical characteristics may refer to a leaders' height, weight, or hair color. A leader's demographics are traits that may include age, education level, and economic background. Intellectual characteristics refer to strong decision making skills and sound judgment.

Supporting viewpoints. Historically, and to this day, researchers put their efforts toward defining a unique set of leadership traits found in effective leaders. The grouping of specific leadership characteristics continues to grow as researchers persist in refining different sets of servant leadership characteristics (see Table 5 for a historical view of the various trait approach studies with the bold text representing elements of the 10 characteristics of servant leadership).

Table 5

Trait Approach Studies

Year of Publication /Author	Trait Approach Characteristics
1948, Stogdill	Intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence , self-confidence, sociability
1959, Mann	Intelligence , adjustment, extroversion , dominance, masculinity, conservatism
1974, Stogdill	Achievement, persistence, insight , initiative, self-confidence, responsibility, cooperativeness, tolerance, influence, sociability
1986, Lord, DeVader, & Alliger	Intelligence , masculinity, dominance
1990a, Bass	Adjustment, self-confidence, adaptability, aggressiveness, alertness , ascendance, dominance, emotional balance, control , originality, independence, creativity, integrity
1991, Kickpatrick & Locke	Drive, motivation, honesty, integrity , self-confidence, intelligence and knowledge of the business
1995, Kouzes & Posner	Honesty, forward looking, inspiring, competent
1995, Spears	Empathy, persuasion, awareness, foresight
1998b, Spears	Listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, foresight, conceptualization, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, build community
2001, Russell	Vision, credibility, trust, service, modeling , pioneering, appreciation of others, empowerment
2002, Kouzes & Posner	Honest, inspiring, forward-looking, competent, intelligence
2003, Laub	Valuing people, developing people , displaying authenticity, providing leadership, sharing leadership
2003, Wong & Page	Leading, servanthood, visioning, developing others, team-building, empowering others, shared decision making, integrity
2003, Stone, Russell, & Patterson	Respect, vision, influence , modeling, trust, integrity, empowerment, service
2009, Sipe & Frick	Integrity, humility, puts people first, empathy, persuasive, compassionate collaborator, builds teams, foresight, systems thinker, leads with moral authority

Note. Bold indicates characteristics of a servant leader as defined Spears (1995; 1998b).

The trait approach provides useful benchmarks for identifying key leadership traits. Northouse (2004) believed that the trait approach was one of the first methodical attempts in leadership studies. Personality assessment tools have been used for decades (e.g., Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Leadership Trait Questionnaire). Trait theory remains a primary interest in leadership studies, and scholars continue to refine this research. Despite the fact that modern theorists have not been able to agree on a definitive, universal set of leadership traits, they still tend to group traits into sets that they believe will lead to effective leadership (Northouse, 2004). Table 5 demonstrates that various combinations of traits that researchers have developed in an attempt to define effective leadership traits.

Opposing viewpoints. Stogdill (1948) did not believe that traits were predictors of effective leadership in that possession of leadership traits does not mean a leader will be effective (Bass, 1981; Robbins, 2005).

Relevance to servant leadership. In review of the trait approach as defined in this study, all 10 servant leadership characteristics were linked to the trait approach (see Table 6). The trait approach focuses on personal, social, goal-oriented, and intellectual characteristics. Servant leadership characteristics have the same focus, with the exception of the physical and demographic characteristics of a leader, which are not considered servant leadership attributes.

Table 6

Servant Leader Characteristics Versus Trait Approach Characteristics

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	Trait Approach Characteristics
1. Listening	1. Social—listening
2. Empathy	2. Personal—empathy
3. Healing	3. Personal—healing
4. Awareness	4. Personal—alertness
5. Persuasion	5. Social—inspiring, honest
6. Conceptualization	6. Intellectual—visionary
7. Foresight	7. Intellectual—forward looking
8. Stewardship	8. Social—serve, build people, selfless, humility, openness
9. Commitment to the growth of people	9. Social—growth, develop, nurture
10. Building community	10. Social—collaborates, cooperativeness

The trait approach assumes leaders are born and not developed. Greenleaf (1977) asserted that servant leadership characteristics can be learned and developed. Servant leadership is viewed as a journey toward personal growth, a continuous process (Greenleaf, 1977). Dittmar (2006) recalled Greenleaf's point that servant leadership can be learned; although some people are naturally inclined to be servant leaders, not everyone has this disposition.

Skills Approach

Background. The skills approach focuses on the leader. Two theories were significant in the development of the skills approach: (a) the three-skills approach and (b) the skills-based model of leadership (Northouse, 2004). The first theory, the three-skill approach developed by Robert Katz (1955), raised the idea that there are “a set of developable skills” (as cited in Northouse, 2004, p. 35) that can be learned for effective leadership. The three-skill approach comprises technical, human, and conceptual skills. By the early 1990s, studies revealed that

leadership effectiveness was directly linked to a leader's ability to solve complex problems in organizations. The second theory, the skills model, focuses on the leaders' problem-solving skills, social judgment, and knowledge, as opposed their innate traits (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000; Yammarino, 2000). The skills approach suggests that a leader's attributes directly contribute to leadership competence, which leads to effective organizational results. The skills approach emphasizes learning and developing knowledge and skills and the performance of the leader.

Supporting viewpoints. As in servant leadership, the skills approach assumes that leadership skills can be learned and developed (Northouse, 2004). The skills model incorporates many key leadership elements, such as, problem-solving skills and social judgment skills. The approach provides a structure that is aligned with leadership education programs (Northouse, 2004; 2007). The skills approach suggests that building the leader's capabilities will improve his or her leadership performance (Northouse, 2004).

Opposing viewpoints. The skills model has been criticized for being too comprehensive, reaching beyond the bounds of leadership study and lacking evidence of how it leads to effective leadership performance (Northouse, 2004). Katz's (1955) research in developing the skills approach specifically studied high ranking U.S. military personnel; these findings may not be applicable to nongovernment organizations.

Relevance to servant leadership. Seven of the 10 servant leadership characteristics are contained in the skills approach. For example, individual leadership attributes such as problem solving and social judgment are key components of the skills model (Northouse, 2004). Eight out of 10 skills approach characteristics appear to have a direct connection to the servant

leadership characteristics (see Table 7). Both the skills approach and the servant leadership theory speculate that effective leadership can be learned and developed.

Table 7

Servant Leader Characteristics Versus Skills Approach Characteristics

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	Skills Approach Characteristics
1. Listening	1. Human skills—listening
2. Empathy	2. Human skills—empathy, trust
3. Healing	3. Human skills—healing
4. Awareness	4. Human skills—awareness
5. Persuasion	5. Human skills—persuasion
6. Conceptualization	6. Conceptual skills—vision; Technical skills—competent, knowledge
7. Foresight	7. Social judgment—foresight
8. Stewardship	8. None
9. Committed to the growth of people	9. Human skills—develop
10. Building community	10. None

Style Approach

Background. The style approach expanded leadership research by moving away from leader traits and skills to a focus on the behavior of leaders. Research such as The Ohio State University Study, The University of Michigan Study, and Blake and Mouton’s Managerial (Leadership) Grid, contributed to the development of the style approach (Northouse, 2004; Robbins, 2005). The style approach looks at how leaders behave in various situations and how they combine task behavior and relationship behavior to influence others to achieve common goals (Robbins, 2005). The style approach centers on what leaders do (task behavior) and how they behave (relationship behavior) rather than who they are (trait based). This approach centers

a leader's focuses on employee performance and maintaining strong relationships with the employees.

Supporting viewpoints. The style approach has been proven to be credible as evidenced by the wide range of studies that contributed to this approach (e.g., Blake & McCauley, 1991; Blake & Mouton, 1964, 1985; Robbins, 2005). This approach enables leaders to self-reflect to further develop their leadership style (Northouse, 2007). The approach, more specifically the managerial grid, is used extensively in organizations for training and development (Northouse, 2007).

Opposing viewpoints. The style approach does not show how a leader's style (task and relationship) are linked to business performance and results (Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 1994). Blake and Mouton (1985) questioned whether the behaviors characterized as optimal on the managerial grid (9, 9) are effectively an optimal style for all situations. Although the style approach is seen as credible, researchers have yet to find a leadership style that is considered most effective in various situations (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Fiedler, 1958; Lewin, Lippitt & White, 1939; Likert, 1961; Shaw, 1955).

Relevance to servant leadership. As in the style approach, servant leaders use positive relationship behaviors to assist and encourage their followers to reach their goals and the goals of the organization (Frick, 2004). Servant leaders use persuasion rather than positional power to influence their followers to reach their goals. The style approach has a connection to servant leadership using relationship behavior. The approach includes self-reflection that brings self-awareness, which links to the servant leadership characteristics awareness (Greenleaf, 1996; Northouse, 2007).

The style approach focuses on getting tasks done and maintaining good relationships. The servant leader theory focuses on the people first, then the tasks. Seven of the servant leader characteristics relate to the style approach; the other three characteristics are not explicitly called out in the style approach (see Table 8 for the connection of the style approach to the 10 characteristics of servant leadership).

Table 8

Servant Leader Characteristics Versus Style Approach Characteristics

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	Style Approach Characteristics
1. Listening	1. Relationship—listening
2. Empathy	2. Relationship—empathy, trust
3. Healing	3. Relationship—healing
4. Awareness	4. Relationship—awareness, self-reflection
5. Persuasion	5. Relationship—persuasion
6. Conceptualization	6. None
7. Foresight	7. None
8. Stewardship	8. Relationship—build people
9. Committed to the growth of people	9. Relationship—empower
10. Building community	10. None

Situational Approach

Background. In 1969, Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard introduced the situational approach leadership model, which includes consideration for a leaders’ style and the situation. This prescriptive approach to leadership presumes a particular style of leadership will meet the demands of one situation, but not appropriate for another. The situational approach was derived from the managerial or leadership grid model and the 3-D management style theory. In the

situational approach theory, leadership has been described as a function of the complex interactions among leader styles and situational influences (Case, 1987, 1990; Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).

The situational approach model has directive and supportive dimensions in which leaders must match their personal leadership style to meet the competence level and commitment of the follower. The situational approach is a dynamic developmental model that requires flexible leaders to adapt their management style to the development level of the people they are managing and their changing needs. This approach is a leader focused contingency model for decision making in that the effectiveness of this model is contingent upon the leaders' ability to properly diagnose the followers' competency and commitment level (Robbins, 2005).

Supporting viewpoints. The situational leadership approach has been challenged over time but is still considered practical and continues to be used often for training and developing leaders (Northouse, 2004). The situational leadership model is easy to use and is prescriptive in that it tells leaders what they need to do to be effective in a situation (Virkus, 2009).

Opposing viewpoints. There are no significant published results that validate whether the Hersey and Blanchard model actually improves performance, and many found the situational model to be conceptually ambiguous (Barrow, 1977; Yukl, 1981). The extant research provides only partial support of the model (Barge, 1994). Characteristics such as age, gender, or education are not factored into the model, yet studies show that demographics can change the performance outcome (Fernandez & Vecchio 1997; Vecchio, 1987; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002). The fluctuations in how a leader relates to and manages team members may appear indiscriminate and seen as lacking vision or direction. Additionally, when followers see a leader

treating people differently, they may view that as favoritism or unfair, making it more difficult to effectively lead.

Relevance to servant leadership. Similar to the servant leadership theory, the situational approach focuses on followers and their situation by coaching, developing, inspiring, and empowering followers to achieve organizational goals (Frick, 2004). Seven out of the 10 servant leadership characteristics are found in the situational approach. There does not appear to be any direct connection between the situational approach and the servant leadership characteristics of conceptualization, foresight, and building community as they are more strategic in nature. The situational approach deals with the current situation and immediate actions to take for the best short-term results. The servant leader is concerned with both the macro- and microlevels of the organization (Greenleaf et al., 2003; see Table 9).

Table 9

Servant Leader Characteristics Versus Situational Approach Characteristics

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	Situational Approach Characteristics
1. Listening	1. Supportive—listening
2. Empathy	2. Supportive—empathy
3. Healing	3. Supporting—healing
4. Awareness	4. Supportive—awareness
5. Persuasion	5. Supportive—persuasion, inspire
6. Conceptualization	6. None
7. Foresight	7. None
8. Stewardship	8. Supportive—coaching
9. Committed to the growth of people	9. Supportive—develop, empower
10. Building community	10. None

Contingency Theory

Background. Austrian psychologist Fred Fiedler (1967) developed a contingency theory, which is also referred to as Fiedler's contingency theory. Although many contingency theories exist, Fiedler's contingency theory is the earliest and most widely recognized trait-by-situation model of leadership (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). Fiedler's contingency theory contends that performance of a group relies upon the leader's style and the favorableness of the situation. The leader's style refers to the leader's focus on the relationship or the task, in relation to a given situation. The theory implies that effective leadership depends on how well the leader's style matches the situational environment (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974).

Situational favorableness is measured by (a) leader-member relations, (b) task structure, and (c) leader's position and power (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Robbins 2005). The leader-member relationship centers on the level of trust and confidence the team members give to their leader and the leader's ability to influence the team members. Task structure describes the degree of understanding of a task by the leader and team members. The leader's position and power refers to the leader's level of influence, through positive and negative rewards and punishments in a given situation. Position power refers to the leader's legitimate position the leader holds in the organization and the corresponding level of reward and coercive power that position permits (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). In this theory, leaders will not be effective in every situation. A leader's style is measured by Fiedler's Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale, in which a high score on the scale indicates a leader is relationship motivated and a low score indicates the leader is task motivated.

Supporting viewpoints. Fiedler's model suggests that it is easier to change out a leader to accommodate a situation than it is to change a leader's style to fit a particular situation (Wright, 1996). The model has various practical applications that help explain why an individual is effective or ineffective in a particular situation based on the different variables (Robbins, 2005). Fiedler's contingency model is widely recognized, extensively researched, and well validated (e.g., Bass, 1981; Gibb, 1969; Hollander, 1978; Jacobs, 1971; Stogdill, 1974; Vroom, 1976).

Opposing viewpoints. Although Fiedler's model is well known, the assumptions in the model have been heavily criticized for lacking an empirical basis (Graen, Orris, & Alvarez, 1971). Robbins (2005) noted that Fiedler's model may be difficult to use because of the complexity of the LPC scoring in assessing the goodness of the leader-member relations, structured tasks, and position power. Lastly, Fiedler's research has primarily been used to study military leaders; therefore, in a different organization results may differ.

Relevance to servant leadership. Fiedler's contingency model emphasizes the need for leaders to build trust among their followers. In servant leadership, listening and empathy are key leadership characteristics that build trust. Trust is established when leaders are empathetic to the needs of their followers (Greenleaf, 1998). Servant leaders work to build both leader trust and organizational trust with their followers. Servant leaders strive to build trust by empowering their followers and nurturing their followers' professional and personal growth (Spears, 1998b). Seven out of the 10 characteristics of servant leadership are related to Fiedler's model, but the model does not explicitly call out any elements of foresight, conceptualization, and building community (see Table 10).

Table 10

Servant Leader Characteristics Versus Contingency Theory Characteristics

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	Contingency Theory Characteristics
1. Listening	1. Listening
2. Empathy	2. Empathy, trust
3. Healing	3. Healing
4. Awareness	4. Awareness
5. Persuasion	5. Influence, honesty
6. Conceptualization	6. None
7. Foresight	7. None
8. Stewardship	8. Build people
9. Committed to the growth of people	9. Develop, empower
10. Building community	10. None

Path–Goal Theory

Background. In 1971, Wharton Professor Robert House published an essay titled “A Path–Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness.” The path–goal theory was created through the combined efforts of House (1971), Evans (1970), Dessler (1974), and House and Mitchell (1974). In 1996, House refined the theory that centers on the follower, ensuring employee satisfaction and increased performance by tapping into the followers’ motivation. The leader also clearly communicates the vision, sets the goals, and helps followers reach their goals (Robbins, 2005).

The path–goal theory specifies that leaders improve the performance, satisfaction, and motivation of their followers by (a) communicating clearly the goals and the path to accomplish the goals, (b) offering rewards for reaching the goals, and (c) removing barriers that could prevent followers from attaining their goals (House & Mitchell, 1974).

A leader's behavior changes to fit the needs of the follower, based on the characteristics of the follower and the work environment (House & Mitchell, 1974). The path-goal theory provides the framework that combines situational, contingency, and expectancy theories into one approach with a focus on the leaders' behavior and the interaction between the leaders and their followers (Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, Marks, 2000).

Supporting viewpoints. In the path-goal theory leadership is mutually beneficial to the leader and the follower in that it provides supportive behavior and actions to help improve the followers' performance and job satisfaction. When a job is too difficult or complex, the leader helps remove roadblocks and uses a directive approach to provide clarification and structure for the follower (Northouse, 2004). The path-goal theory is a helpful guide for leaders as it raises their awareness to seek ways to help their followers succeed. The path-goal theory is a recognized process in leadership (Bass, 1985a, 1990a; Conger, 1998; Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Fiedler, 1978; House, 1971, 1999; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Stogdill, 1948, 1974; Yukl, 1989).

Opposing viewpoints. Northouse (2004) asserted that the path-goal theory would be difficult to use in an organizational environment in that there are so many "interrelated sets of assumptions" (p. 144). Bertocci (2009) suggested that employee performance might cause changes in leaders' behavior instead of leaders' behavior causing changes in the employees' performance. Also, the path-goal theory puts the responsibility on the leader and assumes that the leader will know what to do in any given situation, which may not be the case.

Relevance to servant leadership. Both the servant leadership theory and the path-goal theory address the behavior of an effective leader, emphasizing that leaders serve and act as

facilitators to help others reach their goals. Similarly, servant leadership characteristics of stewardship and commitment to the growth of people focus on the leaders’ support the personal and professional growth of their followers (Spears, 1998a). The path–goal theory encompasses directive, supportive, participative, or achievement-oriented leadership behaviors (Evans, 1996). Those behaviors have some connection to eight of the 10 characteristics of servant leadership, with the exception of foresight and conceptualization (see Table 11). At the microlevel, path–goal involves the leader in establishing and communicating the goals and defining the path to get there. The theory does not address the leader’s need to exercise prudence at the macrolevel to protect and prepare followers for the future.

Table 11

Servant Leader Characteristics Versus Path–Goal Theory Characteristics

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	Path–Goal Theory Characteristics
1. Listening	1. Supportive—listening
2. Empathy	2. Supportive—empathy
3. Healing	3. Supportive—healing
4. Awareness	4. Supportive—awareness
5. Persuasion	5. Achievement-oriented—influence
6. Conceptualization	6. None
7. Foresight	7. None
8. Stewardship	8. Supportive—build people, coaching
9. Committed to the growth of people	9. Achievement-Oriented—empowerment; Supportive—develop
10. Building community	10. Participative—consensus, group oriented

Leader–Member Exchange Theory

Background. The LMX theory was originally called the “vertical dyad linkage” (Northouse, 2004, p. 148). LMX centers on the dyadic relationship between leader and follower. The LMX theory looks at the exchange between the leader and follower based on the leaders’ characteristics and ability to influence their followers.

Leadership effectiveness is a function of the psychodynamic exchange that occurs between leaders and followers (Myers, 2006). The LMX model implies leaders typically choose in-group members who have similar characteristics or are higher performers than out-group followers (Robbins, 2005, p. 163). The followers in the in group get more time with the leader, and their relationship is more personal and less formal. The LMX theory emphasizes the leader spends more time and energy on relationships with in-group individuals, including mentoring, resulting in improved work performance (Robbins, 2005). In LMX, the in-group member role is informally developed between the individual follower and their leader (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Lastly, the leader does not behave the same way to every member and therefore, a member of the group may not experience the same leader traits or behaviors as another.

Supporting viewpoints. The LMX theory asserts that in-group members are given more responsibility, have greater decision-making influence, and have increased work satisfaction (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Researchers contend that the LMX theory positively influences individuals work performance and work attitudes (Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999).

Opposing viewpoints. A main criticism of the LMX theory centers on measurements. The LMX theory measures various parameters regarding the quality of the follower–leader interaction and the followers’ job satisfaction and feeling of control. Schriesheim et al. (1999)

said, “LMX scales seem to have been developed on ad hoc, evolutionary basis, without the presentation of any clear logic or theory justifying the changes which were made” (p. 100). Yukl (2006) noted that the evolution of the LMX relationships over time needs further explanation.

LMX theory may be viewed as showing bias towards certain followers. The in-group members receive resources and support, which improves their job performance (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Because group members with high-quality LMX exchanges often work beyond their formal job requirements their leaders respond by providing them with increased decision making opportunities (Graen, 1976; Liden & Graen, 1980; Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986). The leaders’ focus on the in group could be seen as favoritism as they receive more individual time with the leader, as well as mentoring and special projects or opportunities than the out-group members.

Relevance to servant leadership. Nurturing relationships and having the awareness to identify the needs of the individuals are both elements of the LMX theory and the servant leadership theory. The LMX theory includes several servant leadership elements: listening, empathy, persuasion, awareness, and commitment to the growth of people. Similar to LMX theory, servant leaders strive to develop the personal and professional growth of their followers through teaching and mentoring as a means to invite others toward service (Spears, 1998b). Eight of the 10 characteristics of servant leadership relate to the LMX theory. The LMX theory does not appear to have the elements of conceptualization (vision) or foresight in the model (see Table 12).

Table 12

Servant Leader Characteristics Versus LMX Theory Characteristics

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	LMX Theory Characteristics
1. Listening	1. Listening
2. Empathy	2. Empathy
3. Healing	3. Healing
4. Awareness	4. Awareness
5. Persuasion	5. Influence
6. Conceptualization	6. None
7. Foresight	7. None
8. Stewardship	8. Build people
9. Committed to the growth of people	9. Empower, mentor
10. Building community	10. Collaborate

Transactional Leadership

Background. Max Weber introduced the transactional style of leadership in 1947. By the 1970s, researchers shifted their focus away from situational leadership to a motivational style of transactional leadership to improve organizational performance. The transactional leadership model contains goal attainment, contingent reward, and management by exception (Bass, 1997). Transactional leadership theory is an exchange of behaviors that lead to rewards. The motive of leaders is to satisfy their own needs and wants by ensuring their followers’ needs and wants are met, and followers are motivated by the rewards and punishment system (Bass, 1981).

Bass (1981) asserted that transactional leaders motivate their followers through appealing to the followers’ self-interest in exchange for compliance (e.g., pay for performance). The transactional leadership model assumes followers are motivated through a contingency system of rewards and punishment (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). The transactional leadership style is most effective when the tasks are simple and the chain of command is clearly defined. Transactional

leaders are empowered by their formal organizational authority and the follower will obey their leader (not self-motivated).

Supporting viewpoints. The transactional style of leadership is valuable for managers and supervisors, because of the tactical approach at the microlevel. Bass (1981) found that the strength of the theory lies in organizations that work to support the daily flow of operations. Followers prefer a clear path with defined rewards and punishment structure. This type of by-the-book relationship is more predictable with clear objectives and goals set with defined rewards and punishment, which works well in manufacturing environment where there are routine tasks and safety risks (Bass, 1981). Bass (1981) asserted that transactional leadership is suitable for organizations that are progressing to set goals and expectations and wish to maintain the status quo.

Opposing viewpoints. Transactional leaders do not work to inspire or develop followers beyond the required goal and reward level. In fact, transactional leaders actually work to meet the lower needs of the follower (Northouse, 2004). Transactional leadership overemphasizes details and short-term goals without forward thinking.

If all leaders strictly relied on this type of leadership style, performance and employee satisfaction might decline (Bass, 1985b; Bryman, 1992; Burns; 1978; Peters & Austin, 1985). Transactional leadership can be effective in certain situations but is largely considered inadequate on its own as it may prevent personal and professional growth of both the leaders and followers.

Relevance to servant leadership. Transactional leadership and servant leadership have one slight similarity in that both appeal to followers' self-interest. The difference is that

transactional leaders' main motivation for appealing to followers' self-interest is to satisfy their own interests, whereas servant leaders' primary motivation would be to serve and meet followers' needs (Bass, 1981; Stone & Russell, 2002).

Transformational Leadership

Background. The transformational leadership concept was introduced by James MacGregor Burns (1978) and later refined by research and publications by Bass and Avolio (1990) and Bass (1985a). Transformational leadership is a process that involves inspiring others to pursue the goals of the organization above their own self-interest (Robbins, 2005). Burns asserted that transformational leaders seek to tap into followers' full potential. They motivate followers to work beyond what is formally expected for the good of the organization. Transformational leaders build relationships by which they gain trust, admiration, and respect, and they are motivated to put aside their own interests to give more than is expected for the organization (Ackoff, 1999; Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988; Bass, 1990b; Bennis, 1989; Hunt, 1991; Keeley, 1995; Keller, 1995; Miles, 1997; Sosik, 1997; Yukl, 1998). The Transformational leadership model focuses on the follower and contains four interrelated components of effective leadership: (a) charisma, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Charisma is an element of transformational leadership that includes characteristics that differentiate leaders from nonleaders. Charismatic characteristics and behaviors include self-confidence, strong faith in the vision, out of the ordinary behavior, change seeking, motive arousing, foresight, encouraging, being communicative, trustworthiness, dynamism, positivity, confidence building, role modeling, image building, goal communication goals, demonstrating

competence, and showing confidence (Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, & Dorfman, 1999; House 1977; Robbins, 1992, 2005). The inspirational motivation or idealized influence component of transformational leadership emphasizes that the leaders are strong role models for followers. Intellectual stimulation is another element of transformational leadership. Leaders use intellectual stimulation to enable their followers' creativity and innovation for improved organization effectiveness. Lastly, individual consideration is a component of transformational leadership in which both the leader and the followers are developed to higher levels of potential. The leader focuses on followers to understand their needs by carefully listening, coaching and advising them while cultivating a climate of open, two-way communication (Bass, 1985a; Bass & Avolio, 1991, 1997). Individual consideration also addresses diversity in that differences are accepted and appreciated.

Transformational leadership is centered on change and vision with the principle interest of engaging followers to support the goals of the organization (Bass, 1985). Bass and Avolio (2004) noted that the transformation occurs when a leader prepares followers to become leader and assigns responsibility and accountability to followers to take action and make decisions. Empowerment is a key factor of transformational leadership as it directly impacts energy levels, enthusiasm, confidence, ownership of work, and production levels (Liu, Fellows & Fang, 2003).

Supporting viewpoints. Bass (1985a) proposed that transformational leadership was a more powerful predictor of success outcomes than any other leadership style. Research has shown that transformational leaders are more effective in building strong organizations because they collaborate and seek ways to continually improve (Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Maxwell 2001). Transformational leaders inspire followers to their improve performance and produce followers

with greater job satisfaction and commitment to the organizations' goals (Yukl, 1998). Bass (1985a) stated that transformational leaders transform the personal values of their followers to support the vision and goals of the business by developing a climate of trust and shared vision.

Opposing viewpoints. Hall, Johnson, Wysocki, and Kepner (2009) noted that transformation leadership has potential for the abuse of power. The model has the potential to negatively affect followers because of the significant amount of influence leaders have over their followers (House & Singh, 1987). Transformational leaders' motivation is to reach the goals of the organization. By definition, transformational leaders strive to transform; but if a situation does not require transformation and team members are content, a leader may become dissatisfied and feel unchallenged.

Despite the fact that empirical studies more than sufficiently support the transformational leadership theory, many questions remain unanswered regarding the everyday application of the theory for first-line managers (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998; Yukl, 1999). Lastly, the four interrelated components of transformational leadership (charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) appear to have similar characteristics, making it difficult to make distinctions (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998).

Relevance to servant leadership. Patterson (2003) regarded the concept of servant leadership as an extension of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership and servant leadership are both theoretical frameworks that emphasize a leaders' primary concern for people first (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2003). Bass (2000) noted that the transformational leadership components of inspiration and individualized consideration are very similar to servant leadership. The difference between the two theories lies in the leader's focus (Stone et al.,

2003). The servant leader focuses on followers, whereas the transformational leaders’ primary focus is engaging followers to meet the goals of the organization (Bass, 1985, 2000; Humphreys, 2005). Spears (1998b) supported that position: “Servant leadership holds that the primary purpose of a business should be to create a positive impact on its employees and community, rather than using profit as the sole motive” (p. 9). All 10 characteristics of servant leadership have a direct connection to the characteristics of transformational leadership (see Table 13).

Table 13

Servant Leader Versus Transformational Leadership Theory Characteristics

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	Transformational Leadership Theory Characteristics
1. Listening	1. Listening
2. Empathy	2. Empathy, trust
3. Healing	3. Healing
4. Awareness	4. Self-knowing
5. Persuasion	5. Influence, inspire, motivate
6. Conceptualization	6. Vision, competence
7. Foresight	7. Foresight
8. Stewardship	8. People first, build people, openness, selfless, coaching
9. Committed to the growth of people	9. Empower
10. Building community	10. Diversity, acceptance

Full Range Leadership Theory

Background. Bass (1985b) developed the FRLT, which comprises nontransactional leadership (laissez-faire behavior), transactional leadership, and transformational leadership and enables leaders to shift leadership styles as an organization progresses (Northouse, 2004). The FRLT model includes laissez-faire leadership, also referred to as nontransactional leadership.

Laissez-faire is a French phrase meaning “let them do” and is used to describe leaders who does

not get involved with their team members. Generally, this type of leader delegates work with little interest in consensus building and performance. Laissez-faire leaders are typically passive and unwilling to provide direction and support to their followers (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

FRLT is also referred to as transformational–transactional leadership theory. The FRLT model is a multidimensional scale with nontransactional leadership on one end, transactional leadership in the middle, and transformational leadership on the other end; a continuum from passive leadership to a charismatic, highly supportive, role model leader (Avolio, 1999). Avolio and Bass (2002) asserted that all leaders display each style of the FRLT model to some degree.

Supporting viewpoints. The FRLT model does not provide all of the dimensions of leadership, but it does encompass a range of leadership styles (i.e., nontransactional, transactional, and transformational leadership). Bass and Avolio (1997) developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which measures the extent to which a leader demonstrates transformational and transactional leadership and the follower's level of satisfaction with their leader and their leader's success. The range of leadership styles measured by the MLQ ranges from nontransformational leadership to transactional leadership, to transformational leaders.

Kirkbride (2006) contended that the full range leadership model is supported extensively by evidence-based research. The extensive research of the transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership models span over 15 years. The FRLT model is instrumental in explaining leadership because it simply and completely clarifies most leadership activity (Antonakis & House, 2002). The FRLT model covers a wide range of styles that are used universally, but researchers still seek to define the most effective leadership style. Combinations

of leadership styles, such as transformational and transactional leadership are often used together; the two leadership styles are not mutually exclusive.

The FRLT also covers nontransactional leadership. This style of laissez-faire leadership often abdicates responsibilities, resulting in negative employee performance and satisfaction (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). This type of leadership style may be beneficial to high performing team members who are highly experienced, skilled, and self-motivated.

Opposing viewpoints. Avolio (1999) contended that although the FRLT model covers a variety of leadership theories, it does not cover all dimensions of leadership. One can argue that nontransactional (laissez-faire) leadership is not leadership as it requires no interaction and should not be considered in the FRLT model.

Relevance to servant leadership. Identical to transformational leadership characteristics, the FRLT model contains all 10 of the servant leadership characteristics with the exception of nontransactional leadership. Servant leaders' top priority is to focus on the needs and emotional welfare of their followers. Nontransactional leadership is the opposite of servant leadership in that it is a passive style of leadership with little regard for the followers' well-being.

Team Leadership

Background. Teams are part of every organization in some shape or form (Hills, 2007; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003; Lawler, Mohrman, & Ledford, 1995). Teams enable individuals to collaborate and integrate their diverse background of skills and experience to handle strategic and economic challenges facing organizations. Larson and LaFasto (1989) observed high performing teams to understand the elements that led to their success. They derived a list of requirements for effective team leadership:

1. A vision with clear business goals
2. Business goals that are results driven
3. The ability to select the right people for the job (competence and mix)
4. Team unity and commitment
5. A collaborative style of leadership
6. High standards of excellence
7. Principled leadership
8. External support (adequate resources)

The team leadership model, often referred to as “Hill’s team leadership model” (Northouse, 2004, p. 217), expanded on previous research to seek ways to improve teamwork. The team leadership model creates a “mental road map” (Northouse, 2007, p. 215) that enables leaders to analyze their team situation, diagnose and take corrective actions. Some researchers refer to this model as “team leadership capacity” (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004, p. 857) in terms of achieving organization effectiveness.

The team leadership model considers requirements of internal task functions, internal relationship functions, and the external environment functions. The internal task functions required of a leader include clarification and agreement of goals, ensuring the correct processes, and training in place to ensure goal attainment, decision-making guidance, and handling performance issues when needed. The internal relationship leadership functions require leaders to work to satisfy the team members’ needs, resolve conflict, coach, model behavior, encourage collaboration, and inspire and build commitment. The external environmental functions require a leader to advocate and network for their team to ensure they have the right resources, support,

and recognition. In addition, they share information with the team while removing obstacles and buffering them from environmental distractions (Northouse, 2007).

Ineffective team leaders are often major obstacles to overall team performance. The team leadership theory submits that a team's performance and effectiveness can be directly affected by the decisions a leader makes (internal or external to the team). A leader's decisions center on resource needs and skill requirements. They use discretion as to when intervention is necessary. An effective team leader takes into account the necessary resources and skills required with consideration of external forces and opportunities. External forces and opportunities are outside of the team and can include legal, economic, political or social impacts in the environment (Northouse, 2004).

Supporting viewpoints. The team leadership model is a mental map, closed-loop process of continuous improvement for the team and the team leader. More specifically, the leader diagnoses the problem and provides a mental map for the team to use, which includes a set of actions to ensure continuous improvement and effectiveness. According to Daft (2011), the leaders' function in the team leadership model can be carried out by one person in charge of the team or a shared effort by team members.

Team leadership focuses on organizational teams and the leadership needed for them to function effectively. The use of the team leadership model has led to increased productivity, creativity and innovation, and improved problem solving and decision making. The team leadership model provides a decision tool that enables effective team leadership. The team leadership model is most useful when teams are performing poorly as it helps leaders select the right skills and leadership to be effective (Northouse, 2004).

Opposing viewpoints. Northouse (2004) views Hill’s team leadership model as complex and not completely supported by empirical research. Hackman (1990) noted that the team leadership model has issues with the content, authority, and team patterns over time, but all have yet to be researched and addressed. Avolio et al. (2009) noted a main weakness of the team leadership model is that it generally focuses on the role of the leader of the team.

Relevance to servant leadership. The team leadership model asserts that leaders work toward enhancing team commitment, trust, and support (Northouse, 2004). Team leaders work to encourage a trusting and collaborative work environment. The team leadership model ensures leaders focus on team development and team performance. All 10 of the servant leadership characteristics are connected to the characteristics of team leadership (see Table 14). Servant leaders are also concerned with team performance and should ensure the right people are placed in the right positions (Spears, 2002). Similar to team leadership, servant leaders work to develop team members and seek group consensus, putting their followers first and striving to build their relationships on trust and mutual respect (Greenleaf, 1977, 1998; Greenleaf et al., 2003; Russell & Stone, 2002; Spears, 2002).

Table 14

Servant Leader Versus Team Leadership Model Characteristics

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	Team Leadership Model Characteristics
1. Listening	1. Listening
2. Empathy	2. Empathy, trust
3. Healing	3. Healing, encouraging
4. Awareness	4. Holistic view, perceptive
5. Persuasion	5. Consensus, inspire
6. Conceptualization	6. Vision, competence

(continued)

10 Servant Leadership Characteristics	Team Leadership Model Characteristics
7. Foresight	7. Anticipates, protects
8. Stewardship	8. Help others, build people
9. Committed to the growth of people	9. Empower
10. Building community	10. Diversity, collaboration

Summary

This chapter provides a detailed literature review of leadership models and theories relevant to and beginning with servant leadership. The leadership models and theories addressed in this literature review include (a) servant leadership, (b) trait approach, (c) skills approach, (d) style approach, (e) situational approach, (f) contingency theory, (g) path–goal theory, (h) LMX theory, (i) transactional leadership, (j) transformational leadership, (k) FRLT, and (l) team leadership. For each leadership theory or approach, the relevant background, supporting and opposing viewpoints, and relevance to servant leadership are provided.

The researcher created tables to illustrate the literature review connections, if any, between the 10 characteristics of servant leadership theories and approaches. The tables provide a visual map of the relationship between key leadership theories and approaches and the 10 characteristics of servant leadership (see Table 4, a summary of Tables 5 through 14).

Historically, researchers have worked to define key leadership qualities, traits, skills, and behaviors, in various situations and influences. Scholars continue to debate if great leaders are born or great leadership is something that can be learned. Even today, researchers are unable to agree on a universal set of leadership characteristics.

Leadership is taking a more moral and humanistic approach as opposed to the authoritative leadership methods of the past. Servant leadership continues to grow in popularity

as the role of a leader has evolved. This growth is evident in the corporate world and in higher education. For example, successful corporations such as Starbucks, The Men's Wearhouse, and Southwest Airlines all have adopted the servant leadership philosophy within their organizations. Top tier schools, such as Harvard Business School, have embraced and integrated the servant leadership training into their curriculums (Heskett, 2013).

“Teacher, Philosopher • Servant-Leader • Potentially a good plumber •

Ruined by a sophisticated education.”

-Self-authored epitaph of Robert Greenleaf

Chapter 3: Methods

Introduction

This chapter defines the research design, data collection methodology, coding technique and process applied in analyzing and interpreting the data in this study. This is a qualitative case study that examines to what extent, if any, Shriver exhibits the 10 characteristics servant leadership. The objective for selecting qualitative research as the primary method of research for this case study arose out of its holistic nature (Creswell, 2002). Qualitative research is a comprehensive inquiry that focuses on individuals not numbers, as in quantitative research. The textual process produces words that express the behaviors and interactions, whereas quantitative studies produce numbers from surveys and experiments.

Restatement of Research Question

What evidence exists that the declared 10 characteristics of servant leadership as defined by Greenleaf (1970) and Spears (1995, 1998b)—(a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community—are exemplified in the life of the research subject, Eunice Kennedy Shriver?

Flick (2002) cautioned that formulating an unclear research question may make it difficult for the researcher to effectively interpret the research data. This study sought to clearly identify the leadership characteristics of Shriver in relation to the 10 characteristics of servant leadership by formulating one research question. This research question is the overarching question that encompasses all 10 servant leadership characteristics in relation to leadership characteristics exemplified in Shriver.

Research Methodology

The research methodology used in this case study is explained thoroughly to ensure other researchers can repeat the process (Locke, Silverman, & Spirduso, 2004). This study examines the individual attributes and behaviors of Shriver in comparison to the 10 characteristics of servant leaders as defined by Spears (1995, 1998b).

The researcher conducted textual analysis of both primary and secondary literature sources to provide insight into the leadership style of Shriver. The methodology was chosen by the researcher after careful review of similar studies of servant leadership characteristics (see Table 1). The majority of the previous research listed in Table 1 involved personal interviews and questionnaires as data sources. Researchers who used historical data created a table (or matrix) for data collection and analysis; no qualitative research software applications were used. The two studies similar to this case study measured servant leadership through the number of occurrences (evidence) of each of the 10 servant leadership characteristics found in the textual analysis.

To support the findings, the researcher uses thick description to clarify the interpretation of the data from various aspects: micro, macro, historical, biographical, interactional, situational, relational, and descriptive (Denzin, 1989). The richness and thickness of the descriptions enable the reader to make determinations, which adds to trustworthiness of the research.

Process for Selection of Data Sources

The researcher worked with an online librarian to gather data sources pertaining to the subject. An Internet search was conducted on “Eunice Kennedy Shriver” within worldwide libraries <http://library.pepperdine.edu/>. The search revealed 3,147 results, which included

articles, books, journals, news sites (e.g., CNN, NBC News, NPR), and videos (e.g., YouTube, CSPAN Video). Many sources were in relation to the lives of John F. Kennedy, Sarge Shriver, Maria Shriver, and Ted Kennedy. The majority of publications written by Shriver were related to intellectual disabilities and less about Shriver herself.

To increase validity, an in-depth review of the subject was conducted using various types of data (Miller & Salkind 2002). Forms of data for this study include literature sources from journals, books, audio script, websites, blogs, and media reports. This study does not involve questionnaires, surveys, or personal interviews.

The researcher used multiple data sources in the data collection process to improve reliability and broaden perspective (Patton, 1990). The primary and secondary sources were selected because of their focus on Shriver as a leader and a change agent. The data collected for this study comprise nine primary sources and 11 secondary sources (see Table 15).

Table 15

Data Collection on Eunice Kennedy Shriver

Source Type	Primary/ Secondary Source	Year	Author	Title	Source
Book	P	1974	Fitzgerald, Rose Kennedy	<i>Times to Remember</i>	New York, NY: Doubleday
Audio Script	P	2011	Doughty, Bob, Lapidus, Faith, Shriver, Eunice Kennedy	“Eunice Kennedy Shriver, 1921–2009: She Changed the World for People with Mental Disabilities”	VOA Learning English website:
Article	P	2009	McCarthy, Colman	“Energetic Champion for the Disabled”	<i>National Catholic Reporter</i> 8/11/2009
Article	P	2007	Shapiro, Joseph	“Eunice Kennedy Shriver’s Olympic legacy”	National Public Radio 4/5/2007
Article	P	1962	Shriver, Eunice Kennedy	“Hope for Retarded Children”	<i>Saturday Evening Post</i> 9/22/1962
Article	P	1964	Shriver, Eunice Kennedy	““The Sun Has Burst Through”	<i>Parade Magazine</i> 2/2/1964
Essay	P	2009	Shriver, Maria	“The Unfinished Revolution”	<i>Time</i> 10/14/2009
Blog	P	2011	Shriver, Maria	“Eunice Kennedy Shriver Day: The Service of Play”	<i>Huffington Post</i> 9/23/2011
Journal Article	S	2010	Braddock, David	“Honoring Eunice Kennedy Shriver’s Legacy in Intellectual Disability”	<i>Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities</i> 2/10/2010

(continued)

Source Type	Primary/ Secondary Source	Year	Author	Title	Source
Newspaper Article	S	2010	de Souza, Father Raymond J.	“‘Retarded’ No More”	<i>National Post</i> (fka <i>The Financial Post</i> ; Canada)
Editorial	S	2009	Downes, Lawrence	“One Special Olympian”	<i>New York Times</i> 8/14/2009
Journal Article	S	2009	Eidelman, Steve	“Eunice Kennedy Shriver 1921–2009”	<i>Policy & Practice</i> 10/5/2009
Article	S	1987	Green, Michelle	“Eunice Shriver’s Olympian Friends”	<i>People Magazine</i> 8/17/1987
Book	S	1994	Leamer, Laurence	<i>The Kennedy Women: The Saga of an American Family</i>	New York, NY: Villard
Article	S	2009	McCallum, Jack	“Eunice Kennedy Shriver 1921–2009. Scorecard: Life On and Off the Field”	<i>Sport Illustrated</i> 8/24/2009
Book	S	2000	Shorter, Edward	<i>The Kennedy Family and the Story of Mental Retardation</i>	Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press
Essay	S	2009	Special Olympics Website	“Eunice Kennedy Shriver: One Woman’s Vision”	Special Olympics website
Press Release	S	2009	Kristen Suto Seckler	<i>Special Olympics Mourns the Loss of Eunice Kennedy Shriver</i>	Special Olympics website
Book	S	2004	Stossel, Scott	<i>Sarge: The Life and Times of Sargent Shriver</i>	Washington, DC: Smithsonian
Blog	S	2009	Wieckowski, Ania	“Eunice Kennedy Shriver’s Strategic Vision”	<i>Harvard Business Review</i> 8/14/2009

Definition of Analysis Unit

The sample size of this study is one. The individual for this study is Eunice Kennedy Shriver. The study involves the assessment of Shriver’s leadership style relative to the 10

characteristics of servant leadership: (a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community (Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 1995, 1998b). Thus issues of target population, sampling, and selection do not apply to this study.

Definition of Data Gathering Instruments

The researcher created and used an Excel workbook as the data gathering instrument for this study. The first tab, titled “Sources,” lists the selected sources related to the leadership of Shriver (see Table 15). The following 10 tabs in the workbook contain the data from those sources relevant to the 10 servant leadership characteristics (see Figure 1).

	Source Type	Primary / Secondary Source	Year	Author	Title	Source
2	Article	P	2009	Downes, Lawrence	One Special Olympian	Editorial, <i>New York Times</i> 8/14/2009
3	Book	P	1974	Fitzgerald, Rose Kennedy	<i>Times to Remember</i>	Autobiography. New York, Doubleday
4	Audio Script	P	2011	Doughty, Bob, Lapidus, Faith Shriver, Eunice Kennedy	Eunice Kennedy Shriver, 1921-2009: She Changed the World for People with Mental Disabilities	Interview in 2009; VOA Learning English Website: http://learningenglish.voanews.com
5	Article	P	2009	McCarthy, Colman	Energetic champion for the disabled	<i>National Catholic Reporter</i> 8/11/2009
6	Article	P	2007	Shapiro, Joseph	Eunice Kennedy Shriver's Olympic legacy	<i>National Public Radio (NPR)</i> 4/5/2007
7	Article	P	1962	Shriver, Eunice Kennedy	Hope for the Retarded Children	<i>Saturday Evening Post</i> 9/22/1962
8	Article	P	1964	Shriver, Eunice Kennedy	"The Sun Has Burst Through" Eunice Kennedy Shriver: One Woman's Vision	<i>Parade</i> 2/2/1962
9	Essay	P	2009	Shriver, Maria	The Unfinished Revolution	<i>Time</i> 10/14/2009
10	Blog	P	2011	Shriver, Maria	Eunice Kennedy Shriver Day: The Service of Play	<i>Huffington Post</i> , blog by Maria Shriver 9/23/2011
11	Journal Article	S	2010	Braddock, David	Honoring Eunice Kennedy Shriver's Legacy in Intellectual Disability	<i>Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities</i> 2/10/2010
12	Newspaper Article	S	2010	de Souza, Father Raymond J.	'Retarded' no more	<i>National Post</i> (fka The Financial Post) (Canada)
13	Journal Article	S	2009	Eidelman, Steve	Eunice Kennedy Shriver 1921-2009	<i>Policy & Practice</i> 10/5/2009
14	Article	S	1987	Green, Michelle	Eunice Shriver's Olympian Friends	<i>People Weekly</i> 8/17/1987
15	Book	S	1994	Leamer, Laurence	<i>The Kennedy Women: The Saga of an American Family</i>	New York, Villard
16	Article	S	2009	McCallum, Jack	"Eunice Kennedy Shriver 1921 – 2009. Scorecard: Life On and Off the Field"	<i>Sport Illustrated</i> 8/24/2009
17	Book	S	2000	Shorter, Edward	<i>The Kennedy Family and the story of mental retardation</i>	Temple University Press
18	Essay	S	2009	Special Olympics Website	Eunice Kennedy Shriver: One Woman's Vision	Biographical Essay, Special Olympics Website
19	Press Release	S	2009	Special Olympics Website	Special Olympics Mourns the Loss of Eunice Kennedy Shriver	Special Olympics Website
20	Book	S	2004	Stossel, Scott	<i>Sarge: The Life and Times of Sargent Shriver</i>	Washington D.C., Smithsonian
21	Blog	S	2009	Wieckowski, Ania	Eunice Kennedy Shriver's Strategic Vision	<i>Harvard Business Press</i> 8/14/2009
22						
23						
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27						
28						

Figure 1. Data gathering instrument.

The table within each tab provides a mechanism to capture the relevant data in an easy but comprehensive and efficient manner. The 10 servant leadership characteristic tabs contain columns that capture source information (Columns A through E), the data collected (Column F),

memo (Column G), rater agreement or disagreement (Column H), and rater comments (Column I).

The locations (page number or paragraph number; Column E) are included for ease in traceability back to the source. Column G allowed the researcher to make notes throughout the coding process. Memoing supports validity as it provides a means for researchers to document thoughts, assumptions, and descriptive assessments of the connection between the data and the servant leadership characteristic (Creswell, 2003). This simple template allowed the researcher to capture and interpret data in a consistent and dynamic manner and enabled the interraters to review the coding and note any discrepancies (see Figure 2).

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
1	<p>1. LISTENING Listening is an important element in understanding others. The leader that pays close attention, by showing genuine interest toward others with the aim of deeply understanding and without judgment or regard for personal view. A leader listens, they learn about the follower in ways that helps them modify the follower's attitudes and subsequently they modify their own behavior which results in the transformation of the attitudes and behaviors of others; Hearing not just the words, but hearing "the emotions, fears, and underlying concerns... beyond our self-centered needs"; A silent conductor takes the time to observe and listen for the passion and commitment in others, thereby allowing others the opportunity to express themselves enabling them to "speak to their passion"; "Seek first to understand, then to be understood" - listening intently; Demonstrating the desire to listen to others displays sincerity in wanting to truly understand the different views of other people; Listen to understand and focus on receiving "the deep communication of another human soul". (Key words: Listen, hear, understand, sincerity, openness, and attentive)</p>								
2	Primary or Secondary	Type	Author	Year	Pg No.s	Data Collected	Memo	Rater Agree or Disagree	Rater Comments
3									
4									
5									
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7									
8									
9									
10									
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13									
14									
15									
16									
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18									

Figure 2. Template for listening.

Validity of Data Gathering Instrument

A key measure of quality is the validity of the data gathering instrument (Creswell, 2003). Validity refers to the degree to which the data gathering instruments actually measure what they are intended to measure. To address the validity of the data gathered, the researcher

used “rich” and “thick” (Creswell, 2003, p. 196) descriptions to clearly explain the findings and assist the readers in understanding both the context of the data and the rationale for selecting the data as evidence. Annotations (memoing) used in this textual analysis process supports internal validity, thereby adding confidence to the researchers’ conclusions (Creswell, 2003).

Reliability of Data Gathering Instrument

To ensure a repeatable process, the data collection method measures reliability for consistency (Creswell, 2003). There are two areas of reliability addressed by the researcher. First, the primary data gathering instrument for this study was the researcher. The researcher explains any known bias brought forth in the data gathering and coding process. The secondary data gathering instrument is a Microsoft Excel workbook containing a tab for each servant leadership characteristic. Each tab contains a template for capturing the data and memoing any bias and internal dialog (see Figure 2 for an example of the template for listening).

Interrater reliability is the standard in qualitative research and was applied to this study to further enhance validation. By having one or more colleagues apply the process described in this chapter, a researcher can assess the consistency of the findings (Miles & Huberman 1994). The validity of this study comes from the interraters’ agreement on the connection of the data to the codes (the 10 servant leadership characteristics).

The interraters were given 2 weeks to review each tab in the data collection workbook row by row. Each interrater independently reviewed and marked “agree” or “disagree” (in Column H) for the researcher’s coding. If the interrater disagreed, the rater provided comments in Column I. When the interraters completed their assessment, the researcher reviewed the discrepancies and worked with the interraters to resolve them.

Data Gathering Procedure

The researcher captured the data in the workbook within the tab that represents the servant leadership characteristic (see Figure 3 for an example of data collected on Shriver’s leadership, using the workbook, under the servant leadership characteristic of empathy). The researcher noted that the data demonstrates aspects of empathy (caring and sensing).

2. EMPATHY Servant leaders work to understand and empathize with others; everyone should be accepted and acknowledged for their special uniqueness; understanding and sharing the feelings of another; the ability to feel the emotions of others and what they are experiencing - as if it is happening to you. By doing so, the leader builds trust and understands the follower's perspective; never reject others; they are accepting and tolerant; when one actively listens, they develop empathy with the person speaking because they are able to truly hear what the person is saying without prejudice. (Key words: empathy, acceptance, caring, trust, and sensing)									
Primary or Secondary	Type	Author	Year	Pg No.s	Data Collected	Memo	Rater Agree or Disagree	Rater Comments	
S	Book	Stossel, S.	2004	p135	I [Eunice] went to work with the underprivileged and I saw that people who were handicapped and they were, in my judgement, very badly treated... it was just that I had noticed that in all of my work when I saw people who were 'slow', no one seemed to be doing anything for them.	[early 1950s] Mrs. Shriver observed the unfair treatment of the handicapped. empathy, caring, sensing (no one seemed to be doing anything for them)			
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4									
5									
6									
7									
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14									

Figure 3. Empathy tab.

Description of Proposed Data Analysis Processes

A research design is an action plan that includes the research questions and steps for collecting, analyzing, and interpreting evidence (Yin, 2003). During the data collection process, research data were coded for analysis. Coding is an iterative open process that is used in qualitative research to systematically organize and arrange data for retrieval. Coding in qualitative studies is defined by Saldaña (2009) as “a word or a short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data” (p. 3). Codes are labels that give meaning to units of descriptive or inferential data collected during a study. Miles and Huberman (1994) noted that the “chunks”

(p. 12) of data vary in length, from a word to whole paragraphs and apply to a specific setting.

The overall objective was to find evidence of the 10 characteristics of servant leadership through the researcher's method of thematic review of the primary and secondary sources. There are 10 descriptive categories (codes) used for sorting the raw data. No new codes were created.

The keywords are synonyms, named by the researcher, for each of the 10 servant leadership characteristics. The researcher used the keywords for guidance when populating the templates, to ensure the collected data reflected the intended meaning of the servant leadership characteristic (code). It is important to note that some categories share common qualities, which can make it difficult to determine which category the data belongs under.

The raw data can be listed in several categories, and overlaps may exist. For example, the categories *empathy* and *listening* are closely related in that there could be evidence that the leader displays both characteristics (i.e., empathetic listening); thus, the data may fall under multiple categories. The determination of which category data fall under is dependent upon the significance and context of the data and the best objective judgment of the researcher.

The final step in the data processing and analysis phase required not only counting the number of pieces of evidence found in each characteristic but also providing an assessment of the findings and patterns or anomalies. The findings must embody the meaning of all 10 of the servant leadership characteristics for the researcher to warrant the determination that Shriver was a servant leader.

Institutional Review Board

The research for this dissertation involves the collection and study of existing, publicly available data sources (e.g., books, newspapers, articles, journals, and websites) and did not

involve research with human subjects. The research for this study was exempt from IRB review, per Pepperdine University Graduate School of Education and Psychology IRB guidelines:

It is the policy of Pepperdine University that all research involving human subjects must be conducted in accordance with accepted ethical and professional standards for research and that all such research (except as provided in Section II.B.) must be reviewed and approved by the appropriate Pepperdine IRB. Pepperdine IRBs are charged with monitoring the ethical propriety of all research involving human subjects conducted under Pepperdine University's auspices. It is further charged with insuring that all such research is conducted in compliance with federal regulations regarding research with human subjects outlined by the federal guidelines of Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) regarding the health, welfare, safety, rights, and privileges of human subjects; specifically, 45 CFR 46, 50, and 56. It is the policy of Pepperdine University that the IRBs have the authority to approve, require modifications in, or disapprove any research involving human subjects conducted under Pepperdine University's auspices.

Summary

The intent of this case study is to determine to what extent, if any, a relationship exists between Shriver's leadership style and that of a servant leadership. The methodology used in this study employs a qualitative method to examine publicly available historical data about Shriver's leadership style in relation to the 10 characteristics of servant leadership.

Chapter 4 details the data with analysis and findings of qualitative coding per Chapter 3 plans. It presents the data coding and analysis outcomes, including any evidence of patterns and significant behaviors found.

Chapter 4: Findings

This chapter provides a detailed explanation of the results of the qualitative coding method as defined in Chapter 3. This chapter addresses the evidence (data) found to indicate the leadership style of Shriver is that of a servant leader. The analysis of findings and interrater discrepancies, if any, are discussed.

Restatement of Research Question

What evidence exists that the declared 10 characteristics of servant leadership as defined by Greenleaf (1970) and Spears (1995, 1998b)—(a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community—are exemplified in the life of the research subject, Eunice Kennedy Shriver?

Analysis of Findings

The 76 data items were extracted from 16 sources and categorized (coded) by the servant leadership characteristic they exemplified using the methodology noted in Chapter 3. Although 20 sources were initially identified for this study, only 16 sources were exercised (see Table 16 for distribution of sources utilized by code). Of the 76 data items, nine items were coded in multiple characteristics of servant leadership.

Table 16

Distribution of Sources Utilized by Code

	Braddock (2010)	De Souza (2010)	Doughty et al. (2009)	Downes (2009)	Fitzgerald (1974)	Leamer (1994)	McCollum (2009)	McCarthy (2009)	Seckler (2009)	Shapiro (2007)	Shorter (2000)	Shriver, E. (1962)	Shriver M. (2009)	Special Olympics (2009)	Stosel (2004)	Wieckowski (2009)	Total
Listening	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	6		
Empathy	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	7		
Healing	0	0	1	2	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	6		
Awareness	0	1	2	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	6		
Persuasion	0	0	3	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	8		
Conceptualization	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	1	0	2	8	
Foresight	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	7		
Stewardship	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	0	0	7		
Commitment to Growth	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	2	9	
Build Community	1	0	2	0	0	2	0	1	0	3	0	0	1	1	0	1	12
Total	4	1	12	3	1	8	5	1	3	22	1	3	4	1	2	5	76

The majority of data items were found in Shorter (2000), representing 29% of the data items; Doughty, Lapidus, and Shriver (2011), 16%; and Leamer (1994), 11% (see Table 16). The number of data items categorized in each code (characteristic) ranged between six and 12 with the average of 4.75 data items per characteristic.

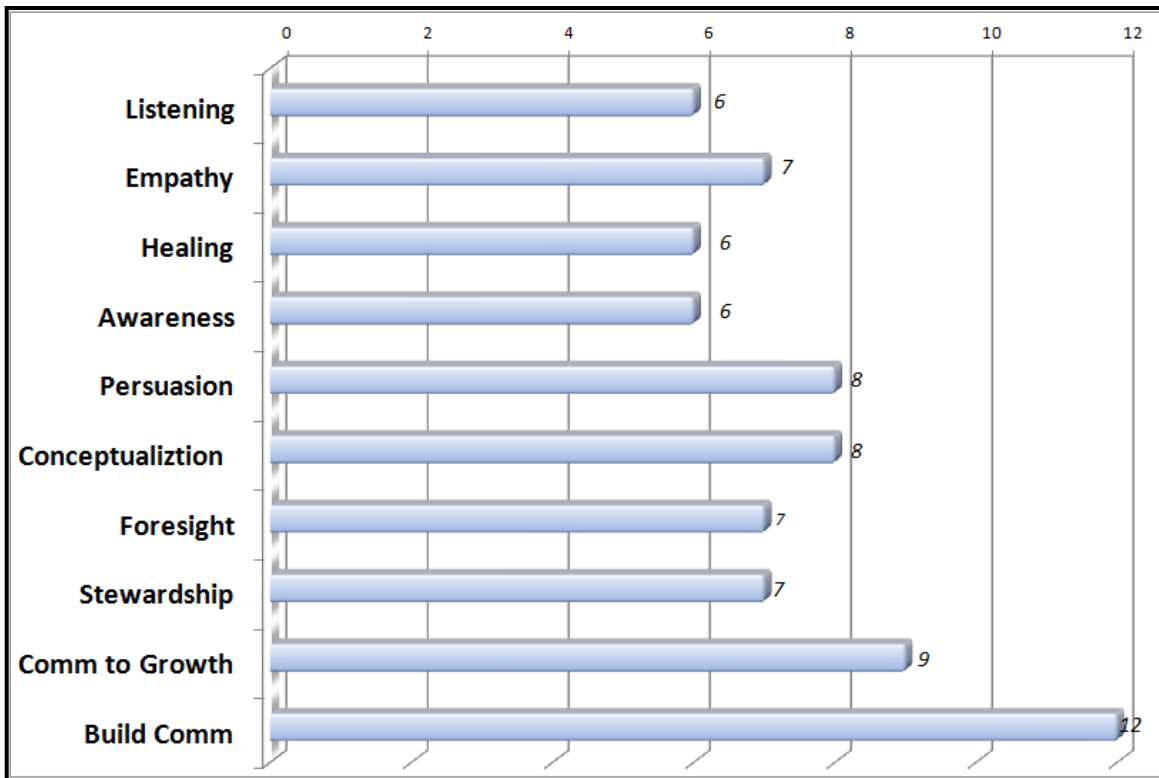


Figure 4. Data items per code (servant leader characteristic).

Figure 4 shows that the most common servant leadership characteristic is *building community*, with 12 data items, followed by commitment to the growth of people with nine items. The next section presents findings of Shriver's leadership style within the data items selected for this study.

Listening: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Listening findings. Six individual data items were categorized under the code of listening. The first piece of data came from a 5-page article in the *Saturday Evening Post* (1962) written by Shriver and the subsequent data derived from two books (Leamer, 1994; Shorter, 2000) written about Shriver. Two instances of listening were found in Leamer (1994) and two in

Shorter (2000); each addressed different aspects of listening. The interraters reviewed and approved all data coded under *listening*.

Shriver's recollected what she heard at her summer camp for the intellectually challenged. Shriver (1962) listened to high school and college volunteer camp counselors. Although she heard the words the counselors said; that the intellectually challenged were "difficult," "unteachable," and "helpless" (p. 72), she also heard what was not being said. Shriver heard the volunteers' "prejudice and misunderstanding" (p. 72) of the intellectually challenged.

In 1963 while in Europe, Shriver visited a home for the intellectually challenged in an effort to learn the European approach for their care. She used the opportunity to spend time with the children, "hugging several of them" (Leamer, 1994, p. 578), and learning from the administrators. Shriver paid close attention to what was being said in an effort to gain enough knowledge and understanding to push these concerns forward to reporters (Leamer, 1994).

Leamer (1994) noted that Eunice listened to her sister Rosemary, who was intellectually challenged. Shriver realized through her interactions with Rosemary that the intellectually challenged would benefit from exercise and physical training. By listening, Eunice learned that sports were a way to improve the lives of the entire intellectually challenged community.

Back in 1962, Eunice recalled listening to her mother's concerns about Rosemary's future, especially if anything happened to them (Eunice's parents). Eunice not only heard the concerns of her mother, but she recognized that it was also a concern for most parents with developmentally disabled children (Shorter, 2000). Eunice was "intently attuned" (Shorter, 2000p. 137) to the challenges faced by the parents of mentally disabled children. Eunice developed the Special Olympics strategy to encompass not just the development and support of

the lives of Special Olympians but their families as well. Shorter (2000) called her actions not just “a classical act of noblesse oblige, handing something down patronizingly to the suffering poor, but of self-help” (p. 137).

Lastly, Shriver’s vision of the Special Olympics evolved through listening. For example, Shriver came up with idea of expanding the Special Olympic Games after listening to Canadian expert Dr. Frank Hayden express his desire to expand the role of the Special Olympics. Eunice listened and suggested making the games national and subsequently secured the funding through the Kennedy Foundation (Leamer, 1994).

The data coded under *listening* indicates that Shriver demonstrated the servant leadership characteristic of listening, as defined by Greenleaf (1970) and Spears (1995, 1998b). Through listening, Shriver heard not just what was being said, but what was not said. She worked to gain knowledge and understanding by listening to her intellectually challenged sister Rosemary and other intellectually challenged children, her mothers’ fears, and the concerns and struggles of parents and family members of the intellectually challenged.

Empathy: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Empathy findings. Six individual pieces of data were coded under *empathy*, consisting two primary sources (one audio script and one article) and four secondary sources (two books and three articles). Two pieces of data were coded within the same source (Shorter, 2000); however, they address two different aspects of empathy: understanding and actions based on understanding. The two interraters reviewed and agreed with all coding of data under empathy.

The first piece of data under empathy came from Scott Stossel’s (2004) biography of Shriver’s husband Robert, *Sarge: The Life and Times of Sargent Shriver*. Stossel wrote of

Shriver's empathy for the intellectually challenged and her experiences as a social worker in the early 1950s in a woman's penitentiary and a home for troubled teenage girls. Stossel noted that Eunice visited many institutions for the intellectually challenged and she noticed a common theme: The people in these institutions were mistreated and no one seemed to take action to change it. Shriver said,

I saw that people who were handicapped and they were, in my judgment, very badly treated... it was just that I had noticed that in all of my work when I saw people who were 'slow,' no one seemed to be doing anything for them. (as quoted in Stossel, 2004, p. 135–136)

In a Voice of America Special English broadcast, Shriver displayed empathy for the intellectually challenged children and their parents. Having a sister with mental disabilities enabled Shriver to better understand their struggles. Shriver saw the injustice and showed understanding, acceptance, and caring for the intellectually challenged:

Think of the families, think of the mothers who love their children but feel so desperately alone. Their children have done nothing wrong, committed no crime and perpetuated no injustice. They are the world's most innocent victims, and they suffer only because they are different. (as quoted in Doughty et al., 2011, para. 18)

Shriver created the Special Olympics to give the intellectually challenged community hope, pride and inspiration. *New York Times* author Lawrence Downes (2009) said of her, "She offered love without pity, a chance to race and win, and to win just by racing" (para. 7).

Sports Illustrated writer, Jack McCallum (2009) interviewed Tim Shriver, Eunice's son. Tim spoke of his her mother's love for sports and her sister Rosemary. He noted that Eunice

empathized with the intellectually challenged. Eunice was driven to take action to improve the lives of the intellectually challenged through sports. It was her love of sports, her immense affection for and understanding of her sister's struggles and the insights she gained from her visits to mental institutions that drove Eunice to launch the Special Olympics. Tim said of his mother,

After watching the struggles of her sister and visiting institutions and seeing this enormous amount of human suffering, and at the same time coming from a place where women didn't have equal opportunity in sports, she just couldn't take it anymore. (as quoted in McCallum, 2009, p. 4)

Tim Shriver said that his mother articulated anger at the injustice faced by the intellectually challenged community (McCallum, 2009). He characterized his mother as "really tough and ambitious and strong-willed, but she also has this vulnerable and empathic side" (as quoted in McCallum, 2009, p. 4).

National Public Radio writer Joseph Shapiro (2007) wrote of Shriver's love and empathy for her sister Rosemary and how their relationship led Eunice to a deeper understanding of the intellectually challenged. Shriver said, "I had enormous affection for Rosie...If I [had] never met Rosemary, I would have never known anything about handicapped children, how would I have ever found out? Because nobody accepted them anyplace" (as quoted in Shapiro, 2007, para. 16).

Shorter (2000) wrote of an instance in 1980 when Shriver scolded the state directors during a meeting at Smuggler's Notch, Vermont, for not understanding the strategy behind the

Special Olympics. Shriver wanted the Special Olympians to develop and increase their skills but she pointed out that many

have had no training or so little training that they are not prepared for their events. I have seen swimmers who could not swim even the length of a pool. How humiliated and discouraged they must be. How humiliated and discouraged their parents must be.” (as quoted in Shorter, 2000, p. 181)

Shriver displayed empathy in not just her words but her actions. She had the wisdom to develop a “self-help” approach to the Special Olympics, understanding that “we grow as we help those with mental retardation grow” (Shorter, 2000, p. 137)

These data, coded under *empathy*, indicate that Shriver exhibited empathy for the mistreatment and struggles of intellectually challenged community. Shriver displayed love and understanding for the needs of the intellectually challenged, their families, and the entire community.

Healing: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Healing findings. Data coded under *healing* include three primary sources (one book, one blog, and one audio script) and three secondary sources (one book and one article). Two pieces of data were found in the same article written by Lawrence Downes (2009); they addressed two different aspect of healing: healing of Downes’ brother and the healing of the entire intellectually challenged community. The two interraters reviewed and agreed with all coding of data under healing.

The first data item comes from a biography written by Rose Kennedy Fitzgerald (1974), Shriver’s mother. Rose spoke of the compassion, caring, and encouragement Eunice

demonstrated towards her sister Rosemary, who was intellectually challenged. She noted that it was Eunice's empathy that drove her to become an expert and a champion of the intellectually challenged. Rose cited an example of her healing characteristic:

Eunice, though several years younger, even in childhood, was particularly good and attentive and helpful with her, encouraging her to do her best; and later on, because of this loving and unremitting interest in her older sister, she became a lay expert in the field of mental retardation and is director of the Joseph P. Kennedy, Jr. Foundation. (p.)

New York Times journalist Lawrence Downes (2009) wrote about his brother, who was intellectually challenged, and the healing that Shriver brought to his family. Downes said, "I doubt my brother Peter knew who Eunice Shriver was, though she probably brought more joy directly into his life than I, an annoying younger brother, ever did" (para. 1). Shriver healed Downes' brother Peter and the entire intellectually challenged community with the Special Olympics (Downes, 2009). Downes said,

People have always mocked the retarded, especially those who like to take credit for their own intelligence. But there is one island of inclusion: the Special Olympics. They are the pride and inspiration of millions. They exist because Eunice Shriver, who had a retarded sister she greatly admired, insisted on looking differently at disability. She offered love without pity, a chance to race and win, and to win just by racing. (para. 7)

Eunice's daughter, Maria Shiver (2011) posted a blog entry on the *Huffington Post* that captured her mother's characteristics of healing {empathy, compassion, support, concern, caring, and nurturing}. Maria said her mother Eunice had

compassion, an enormous heart, a sharp intellect and a competitive spirit. She used her full arsenal of talents to fight for those who were not viewed by society to be capable, to be fully human, to be deserving of the opportunity to play, to compete, and to contribute to their community worldwide. . . regardless of who we are or where we live, each of us has something to give, something the world needs from us. We all have talent, value and worth in the eyes of God and in the eyes of our families and communities. (para. 5)

Eunice exhibited the servant leadership characteristic of healing as evidence by her words and involvement in a speech given at the 1987 Special Olympics Games in South Bend, Indiana. She addressed the Special Olympians,

You are the stars and the world is watching you. By your presence, you send a message to every village, every city, every nation. A message of hope, a message of victory. The right to play on any playing field. You have earned it. The right to study in any school. You have earned it. The right to hold a job? You have earned it. The right to be anyone's neighbor. You have earned it." (as cited in Doughty et al., 2011, para. 4)

Shorter (2000) noted that Eunice was "intently attuned to the lives of the parents and their suffering" (p. 137). Eunice demonstrated healing for parents of children with intellectual disabilities through caring, supporting and nurturing, the servant leaders method of healing (Spears, 1995, 1998b).

These data, coded under *healing*, indicate that Shriver exhibited healing through her compassionate and nurturing leadership. She demonstrated healing of her followers, the intellectually challenged, and the entire intellectually challenged community.

Awareness: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Awareness findings. Data coded under *awareness* came from one primary source and four secondary sources. The data totaled six items from three books (Leamer, 1994; Shorter, 2000; Stossel, 2004), one article from the *National Post* (de Souza, 2010), and one audio script (Doughty et al., 2011). Two instances of awareness were found in the audio script of a broadcast with Shriver (2009), but each addressed different aspects of awareness (self-awareness and raising awareness). The two interraters reviewed and agreed with all coding of data under awareness.

Leamer (1994) noted how Shriver's mother Rose recalled a trip that Eunice took to Paris in the late 1960s in an effort to expand her campaign for the intellectually challenged. Eunice understood that volunteerism was quite foreign to the Parisian culture, but she met with President de Gaulle knowing that he had an intellectually challenged child and demonstrated how she worked with the intellectually challenged. Leamer noted, "The concept of volunteering was almost an alien to the French as rock and roll, and Eunice attempted to show them through the example of her own life. Every Monday morning she taught 140 mentally disabled children" (p. 659). Eunice raised awareness by demonstrating how she worked to improve the lives of the intellectually challenged.

Shriver (1964) published an article in *Parade Magazine* that shared insights to dispel myths that promote the negative stigma of the intellectually challenged. She wrote,

Only by facing the facts and resolving to meet the challenge head-on can something be done. Only if we broaden our understanding can we help the mentally retarded to escape into the sunlight of useful living. Even more important, we can prevent millions yet

unborn from ever becoming mentally retarded. First, I want to shatter the notion that the birth of a retarded child implies some kind of social stigma something to be hidden and ashamed of. Retarded children are born to the healthiest and wealthiest, to the brilliant as well as the meek. They have been born to actors, generals, tycoons, statesmen and Nobel Prize Winners. (para. 4–5)

Stossel (2004) quoted Shriver on her awareness of the poor treatment and indifference toward the intellectually challenged after visiting an institution back in the early 1950s:

I went to work with the underprivileged and I saw that people who were handicapped were, in my judgment, very badly treated...it was just that I had noticed that in all of my work when I saw people who were “slow,” no one seemed to be doing anything for them. (pp. 135–136)

In 2010, Father R. J. de Souza wrote of Eunice’s contribution to raising awareness in a published article in the *National Post* (Canada) newspaper, noting how she used the word “R-word” (retarded; para. 2) to break down the stigma and promote understanding and acceptance of people with intellectual disabilities:

Ms. Shriver—whose character and achievements far surpass those of her more celebrated brothers, JFK, RFK and Teddy—did more than anyone else to bring the mentally disabled out of the shadows and into the light. She long used the language of her day, of course, but latterly campaigned against the use of the R-word. Yet it was her willingness to use it that began to break down the stigma and shame around mental disability. (para. 4–5)

Shorter (2000) wrote of Shriver's awareness and her efforts to raise awareness. She not only understood the needs of the intellectually challenged, but the needs of their parents as well. Shorter noted that Eunice was "intently attuned to the lives of the parents and their sufferings" (p. 137) and worked to share that awareness with others. He noted that Eunice "constantly emphasized growth: we grow as we help those with mental retardation grow" (p. 137).

Doughty et al. (2011) spoke of Shriver's awareness and her efforts to spread awareness for the need of special education and training, and medical assistance for the intellectually challenged. It was because of her sister Rosemary and her interactions with parents of the intellectually challenged that Eunice became so aware of the inequity and conscious of the needs of the disabled, their families, and the community. Doughty et al. noted,

She said people with mental disabilities needed to be treated as useful citizens and given special education and training. She said family members of disabled people had few resources for community support or medical help. She gave examples of parents who struggled to make a better life for their disabled children. (para. 17)

These data, coded under *awareness* indicate that Shriver exhibited awareness in part due to her sister Rosemary's mental disabilities and her upbringing in the Kennedy dynasty. Additionally, evidence shows Shriver raised awareness and promoted acceptance and understanding. Through example, Shriver raised the consciousness of so many people: her daughter, Maria, the intellectually challenged, their parents and family members, European governments, the entire intellectually challenged community.

Persuasion: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Persuasion findings. Eight pieces of data were coded under *persuasion* from two primary sources (one audio script and one essay) and three secondary sources (two books and one article). Three of the eight instances of persuasion were found within the audio script from a broadcast with Shriver in 2009 (Doughty et al., 2011). Each instance (data) provides different examples of Shriver's ability to persuade. The two interraters reviewed and agreed with all coding of data under persuasion.

This data item illustrates how Shriver persuaded President de Gaulle, not by her words but by her actions. Shriver understood that volunteerism was not part of their Parisian culture so she demonstrated how to work with the intellectually challenged by donating her time. Eunice did not use positional power to persuade; instead she gently demonstrated how to teach the intellectually challenged. Leamer (1994) noted Eunice's mother recounting that "every Monday morning she taught 140 mentally disabled children" (p. 659).

In an essay in *Time Magazine*, Maria Shriver (2009), spoke of her mother's intelligence and courage, and the challenges she faced during a time when women were held back any type of leadership position. Eunice persuaded Maria through stories that encouraged Maria and other women. She wrote,

Eunice Kennedy Shriver was a trailblazer for American women. She was scary smart and not afraid to show it. She didn't buy into the propaganda of her day that women had to be soft and submissive. That took courage back then, because she grew up in a family that expected a lot from the boys and very little from the girls. . . . She told me their

stories because she wanted me to appreciate their impact. She encouraged me and other women to believe we had the ability to change the world. (para. 1–2)

Sports Illustrated writer, Jack McCallum (2009) interviewed Tim Shriver, Eunice's son; Tim spoke of how Eunice occasionally used her Kennedy status, but she did not use her positional power to control or coerce. McCallum wrote,

Born into wealth and power, the middle child of nine in this country's version of a royal family, Eunice Kennedy Shriver chose to lobby for the powerless. Yes, she used her connections from time to time. When Iowa's Tom Harkin was a freshman Senator in 1984, he got a political favor from Massachusetts senator Ted Kennedy and, sure enough, was visited shortly thereafter by Eunice, who asked for his support for Special Olympics funding. But she never twisted arms or peddled her influence to build her own power base. She used it to help those who were invisible or perceived to be an embarrassment by the population at large. (p. 3)

Shorter (2000) noted how Shriver used stories of persuasion to engage and inspire her followers:

Two years before the Special Olympics in Chicago, Eunice captivated an audience with stories of mentally retarded youngsters whom sports had helped to develop. She cited, for example, "a fourteen-year-old retarded boy in Toronto who could not read a word until he learned to play hockey. Now he reads the sports pages and can tell you the standing of every team and almost every player in the National Hockey League. (p. 138)

Shorter (2000) wrote of Eunice's attention to detail when planning the Special Olympics. He noted how her diligence inspired others to gain a greater sense of commitment and service to the organization. Shorter noted,

This attentiveness to detail paid off. The athletes were made to feel good about themselves, and the parents were tearful with pleasure and relief. . . . A sample of parents interviewed in 1987 strongly agreed that the Special Olympics constituted, "one of the finest experiences the child has had." Sixty-five percent of forty parents polled at random in 1993 had gone beyond being spectators to serving as "coaches, fundraisers, chaperones, and [in] other volunteer positions." (p. 182, 184)

In a 2009 broadcast of a Voices of America Special English interview with Shriver, commentator Faith Lapidus spoke of Shriver's influence with the Joseph P. Kennedy Jr. foundation. It was Eunice's persuasion that led to more studies for the intellectually challenged. Voice of America host Faith Lapidus said, "She influenced her brother to create a committee to study developmental disabilities. This effort led to the creation of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development at the National Institutes of Health" (Demange, 2009, para. 3).

Doughty et al. (2011) spoke of Shriver's ability to persuade others by leading with inspiration, not positional power:

She used her influence to make a difference in the lives of millions of people. Though she never ran for office, she spent her life energetically working to improve the lives of people with developmental problems. Eunice Shriver was best known for creating the Special Olympics, an athletic event for people with mental disabilities. Her efforts changed the way the world thinks about the mentally disabled. (para. 1)

In a speech given by Shriver in 1987 at the Special Olympic Games in South Bend, Indiana, Eunice demonstrated inspiration, hope, and integrity as she engaged her followers (Doughty et al., 2011). Shriver worked to build consensus across the intellectually challenged community, as evidenced in her words:

You are the stars and the world is watching you. By your presence, you send a message to every village, every city, every nation. A message of hope, a message of victory. The right to play on any playing field. You have earned it. The right to study in any school. You have earned it. The right to hold a job? You have earned it. The right to be anyone's neighbor. You have earned it. (as quoted in Doughty et al., 2011, para. 4)

The data coded under the servant leadership characteristic persuasion indicate that Shriver demonstrated persuasion, not through positional power but through kindness, understanding, and consensus building across the intellectually challenged community. Shriver was inspirational, setting the example for other women, especially her daughter, Maria. Eunice persuaded through stories that spoke to the hearts of many, especially the intellectually challenged community.

Conceptualization: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Conceptualization findings. Eight pieces of data coded under *conceptualization* with one primary source and six secondary sources. Two pieces of data were found in the same book (Shorter, 2000) and two pieces of data from the same blog, by Ania Wieckowski (2009). The interraters reviewed and approved all data coded under *conceptualization*.

Maria Shriver (2011) spoke of her mother's vision for using sports to raise awareness and fight for the rights of the intellectually challenged. Her vision added value to the intellectually challenged community worldwide. Maria said,

My mother's genius was in using the power of sport to transform the world—on the playing field, on playgrounds, in gyms and at schools My mother believed in the very fiber of her being that, regardless of who we are or where we live, each of us has something to give, something the world needs from us. We all have talent, value and worth in the eyes of God and in the eyes of our families and communities. At the very least, all of us can play. (para. 4)

Sports Illustrated writer Jack McCallum (2009) wrote of Shriver's holistic vision for the Special Olympics, which included education, medical treatment, and athletic training for the intellectually challenged, but more important was her vision to change perceptions, attitudes and laws. McCallum spoke of the success of Shriver's vision,

But to say that the lot of people with intellectual disabilities has improved because of Special Olympics is so grossly understated as to be meaningless. Shriver's movement did nothing less than release an entire population from a prison of ignorance and misunderstanding. It did something else, too—create a cathartic covenant between competitor and fan that is unlike anything else in sport. You watch and what you see is nothing less than a transformation, the passage of someone who has been labeled unfortunate, handicapped, disabled or challenged to something else: athlete. (p. 3)

Shriver demonstrated conceptualization “with her typically large vision” (Leamer, 1994, p. 638). Leamer (1994) recounted, “At the foundation, Eunice had been listening to the ideas of

Dr. Frank Hayden, a Canadian expert who envisioned an expanded athletic role and competitions for the developmentally disabled” (p. 638). Shriver dreamed big and propelled the Special Olympics to the national level (Leamer, 1994). Leamer wrote, “With the establishment of Special Olympics Inc. as part of the Kennedy Foundation there would be a next time, and Eunice was convinced that it would be most assuredly be better and bigger” (p. 639).

Shriver demonstrated conceptualization through her intelligent and inclusive strategic vision for the Special Olympics, as noted by Shorter (2000),

Eunice came into her own with the Special Olympics. It is not grandiose to speak of her as articulating a distinctive vision of the role of athletics in the lives of MR [mentally retarded] children, because she had the wisdom and maturity to formulate such a vision. (p. 136)

Shorter noted Shriver’s inclusive vision to use sports as the means to promote growth for all members of the intellectual challenged community. Shorter wrote,

It was this quality of populism that led Eunice to the core of her vision of the Special Olympics—that through sports not only do we help the mentally retarded, but they also help us. She constantly emphasized growth: we grow as we help those with mental retardation grow. Only somebody closely attuned to the lives of the parents and their suffering would have understood that the Special Olympics was not just a classical act of noblesse oblige, handing something down patronizingly to the suffering poor, but of self-help as well. (p. 137)

Shriver fought to raise awareness to increase equality and opportunities for the intellectually challenged (Wieckowski, 2009). She had the business acumen to intelligently

campaign for the intellectually challenged by providing facts and examples, as noted by Wieckowski (2009),

As much as the Special Olympics was created to help those with special needs directly, it was also meant to help them indirectly by removing the stigma of their condition, by educating and thus benefiting society as a whole. And so as Shriver advocated for the acceptance of intellectually disabled she used not only arguments of justice and equality in their own right, but carefully assembled statistics and examples to demonstrate that the intellectually disabled could contribute in the workplace and be productive, competitive participants in the economy. (Wieckowski, 2009, para. 4–5)

Shriver changed the world with her vision for the Special Olympics. Evidence of Shriver’s successful vision was noted in a biographical essay posted on the Special Olympics website (2014b), “What began as one woman’s vision evolved into Special Olympics International—a global movement that today serves more than 4 million people with intellectual disabilities in more than 170 countries” (para. 8).

Findings of Shriver’s conceptualization were noted by Ania Wieckowski (2009), *Harvard Business Review* assistant editor, memorializing her visionary talent in creating the Special Olympic Games. Wieckowski wrote,

Beyond the mystique of her family connection, it is Shriver’s tireless work on the behalf of the mentally disabled that commands our remembrance and interest. Particularly interesting is the strategic way in which she communicated her vision for the Special Olympics, growing her efforts from a single backyard camp -to a worldwide movement. (para. 1)

These data, coded under *conceptualization*, demonstrate that Shriver exhibited conceptualization as defined by Greenleaf (1970) and Spears (1995, 1998b). Shriver dreamed big things for the Special Olympics with her holistic vision and her knowledge and understanding of the intellectually challenge community she added value and changed the world's perceptions and attitudes.

Foresight: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Foresight findings. Seven data items were coded under *foresight*: one primary source and six secondary sources. Two data items of foresight were found in same source (Shorter, 2000); and two other data items were found in a *Sports Illustrated* article (McCallum, 2009). The interraters reviewed and approved all data coded under *foresight*.

Despite the limitations faced by women in politics in the 1950s, Shriver had the foresight to lead the fight to make a difference in the lives of the intellectually challenged. In an interview with Shaprio (2007), Shorter noted that Shriver rejected the role of society woman and took over the family foundation: "She had the genius to see that she, in fact, was capable of major achievements helping these kids, and that's what she did. She dedicated her life to it" (as quoted in Shapiro, 2007, para. 19). Shorter added, "It was extraordinary of her to conceive that she, too, could play a role comparable to that of her brothers" (as quoted in Shapiro, 2007, para. 17). Shorter went on to say, "Her leadership role would be in the area of mental retardation rather than on the big political stage, because in the 1950s, she couldn't get on that political stage. Women weren't tolerated there" (as quoted in Shapiro, 2007, para. 17).

McCallum (2009) spoke of Shriver's foresight to conceive that the Special Olympics would grow exponentially. He stated, "While skeptics shook their heads and most of the press

ignored the unprecedented competition, Shriver boldly predicted that one million of the worlds intellectually challenged would someday compete athletically” (p. 1). McCallum that through her work with the Special Olympics, Shriver demonstrated the ability and prudence to perceive future events:

Shriver’s movement did nothing less than release an entire population from a prison of ignorance and misunderstanding. It did something else, too—create a cathartic covenant between competitor and fan that is unlike anything else in sport. You watch and what you see is nothing less than a transformation, the passage of someone who has been labeled unfortunate, handicapped, disabled or challenged to something else: athlete.

Eunice Kennedy Shriver knew this could happen. Fifty years ago she saw it all. (p. 6)

Shorter (2000) pointed out that Shriver had the foresight to make the connection between sports and psychological growth and pioneered the Special Olympics to make it happen:

Thus when Eunice said at the Soldier Field press conference on the morning of July 20 that “through sports they can realize their potential for growth,” she was enunciating a vision that has a solid scientific basis. Many scientists were aware of the relationship between psychological development and sports. Yet no one except Eunice Shriver acted on that knowledge to benefit the lives of the mentally retarded. (p. 139)

Shorter spoke of how Shriver raised awareness and dispelled fears through her insightful approach. Shriver’s prudence in perceiving the future may have been influenced by her past experiences with her father, her famous brothers in politics, and her husband, Sarge, an American statesman and activist (Shorter, 2000). Shorter (2000) provided evidence of Shriver’s foresight:

Here Eunice fell back upon an insight developed in long association with her father, her three elected brothers, and her high-energy husband; the secret to change lay in public opinion, and the secret to public opinion lay in the media. Said Stedman, “Eunice had an instinct that public attitudes were a major barrier, and one way to pierce them was to get people cheek to jowl with people who looked funny and who were retarded. She was right.” (p. 144)

Shorter (2000) spoke of Shriver’s distinct vision for the Special Olympians, that they develop pride in themselves. Shriver demanded that all athletes receive proper training to compete and win. She had the foresight to develop a strategy that prepared and protected her followers, the intellectually challenged, for the future (Shorter, 2000). Shorter noted,

In private, Eunice was even more emphatic: “I have been to races this year and I thought I was back in 1968! Don’t we understand that when children lose they are saddened? That when they run last if they are not saddened then they have lost hope and that is the worst.” Why was this so important? Why not just let them paddle about and pat them on the head? It was crucial, in Eunice’s overall scheme, for the kids to develop pride in themselves at the skills they had so courageously acquired. “We must not have any event in which Special Olympians, no matter how severely handicapped, are not demonstrating some skill acquired through training.” (as quoted in Shorter, 2000, p. 181)

Shriver demonstrated insight in that she could see the potential in the intellectually challenged and provided the opportunity for that possibility (Braddock, 2010). Her foresight contributed to the success of the Special Olympics. Braddock (2010) wrote,

Eunice Kennedy Shriver's personal qualities were just as important in her success and a key to understanding her achievements in the intellectual disability field and in leadership generally. To paraphrase her son Timothy Shriver, these qualities included a chemistry of political acumen nationally and internationally, coupled with celebrity pizzazz, and a deep respect for the role of scientific research on the one hand, delicately balanced with an even deeper appreciation of the inner beauty, courage, and potential competence of people with intellectual disabilities on the other. (p. 69)

These data, coded under *foresight*, provide evidence that Shriver demonstrated the servant leadership characteristic of foresight. Shriver exhibited insight, intuition, and prudence through her work with the intellectually challenged. These data indicate that Shriver interpreted past and current events to foresee future outcomes and prepared and protected her followers, the intellectually challenged, for that future.

Stewardship: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Stewardship findings. Seven data items were coded under *stewardship*: two primary sources (audio script and article) and two secondary sources (book and essay). Two data items coded under *stewardship* were found in the same source (Doughty et al., 2011), and three other data items were found in the same book (Shorter, 2000). Each piece of data provides a different finding of Shriver's stewardship. The two interraters reviewed and agreed with all coding of data under stewardship.

Shriver spent her education and career focused on serving the needs of others. She put her own interests aside to help others so they could become healthier and wiser. A biographical essay on the Special Olympics (2014b) website noted,

She received a Bachelor of Science degree in sociology from Stanford University in Palo Alto, California. Following graduation, she worked for the U.S. State Department in the Special War Problems Division. In 1950, she became a social worker at the Penitentiary for Women in Alderson, West Virginia, and the following year she moved to Chicago to work with the House of the Good Shepherd and the Chicago Juvenile Court. (para. 10)

Shorter (2000) wrote of Shriver's stewardship as evidence of her shared vision for the Special Olympics, a vision that encourages service to others:

The Special Olympics were an occasion for sharing. It was the energy of the by then enormous volunteer program that was being shared. "If we did not share a strong sense of common humanity with the mentally retarded we would not be here." (p. 140)

Shriver demonstrated a commitment to serving others throughout her life. Shorter noted evidence that Shriver believed that serving others was her life purpose:

What Ted and Eunice had in common was a commitment to public service. This is something Eunice Shriver was deadly serious about: she saw the point of her own life as public service and assumed that her brother shared this dedication. (p. 153)

Shorter noted that Shriver focused on the needs of her followers, the intellectually challenged, which spurred stewardship in the parents:

A sample of parents interviewed in 1987 strongly agreed that the Special Olympics constituted, "one of the finest experiences the child has had." Sixty-five percent of forty parents polled at random in 1993 had gone beyond being spectators to serving as "coaches, fundraisers, chaperones, and [in] other volunteer positions." (p. 184)

Dought et al. (2011) provided evidence of Shriver's commitment to public service in many arenas including the Special Olympics:

Eunice Shriver also carried on the family tradition of public service. She graduated in nineteen forty-three with a sociology degree from Stanford University in California. She worked for different organizations as a social worker before working for her family's foundation. Over the years, she also worked for the political campaigns of her brothers, John, Robert and Edward. (para. 14)

Arnold Schwarzenegger, Shriver's son-in-law, spoke of Shriver's stewardship, her selfless advocating, and her leadership of the movement for social and scientific changes worldwide to improve the lives of the intellectually challenged community (Doughty et al., 2011):

Eunice Kennedy Shriver died in August of two thousand nine after a series of strokes. California Governor Arnold Schwarzenegger said that she was the light of the family. And he said her pioneering work for social and scientific improvements changed the lives of millions of developmentally disabled people all over the world. (Doughty, 2011, para. 12)

Shriver chose to fight for the intellectually challenged as opposed to what was traditionally expected of a Kennedy woman: to support the ambitions of the Kennedy men, before their own aspirations (Shorter, 2000). Shapiro (2007) also noted Shriver's selfless pursuit to serve and improved the lives of the intellectually challenged:

She rejected the role of society woman and took over the family foundation. She had the genius to see that she, in fact, was capable of major achievements helping these kids, and that's what she did. She dedicated her life to it. (para. 7)

These data, coded under *stewardship*, provide significant evidence that Shriver exhibited the characteristic of stewardship, as defined by Greenleaf (1970) and Spears (1995, 1998b). Her life was dedicated to leading social and scientific change through a selfless focus on improving the body and minds of the intellectually challenged. She set the example for the world and believed it was her life's purpose to serve others, by doing so Shriver inspired others to serve.

Commitment to the growth of people: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Commitment to the growth of people findings. Nine data items were coded under *commitment to the growth of people*: one primary source (audio script) and four secondary sources (article, blog, website, and book). Seven data items were coded under *foresight*: one primary source and six secondary sources (three from Shorter, 2000). Each data item provides a different example of Shriver's commitment to the growth of people. Cumulatively, the data items represent the meaning of commitment to the growth of people as defined by Greenleaf (1970) and Spears (1995, 1998b). The interraters reviewed and approved all data coded under *commitment to the growth of people* with the exception of five data items. The exceptions were clarified with the interraters and subsequently approved.

Shriver spoke of the reciprocal benefit of the Special Olympics, emphasizing growth of people, the intellectually challenged community. Shorter (2000) provided evidence of Eunice's commitment to the growth of people:

It was this quality of populism that led Eunice to the core of her vision of the Special Olympics—that through sports not only do we help the mentally retarded, but they also help us. She constantly emphasized growth: we grow as we help those with mental retardation grow. Only somebody intently attuned to the lives of the parents and their suffering would have understood that the Special Olympics was not just a classical act of noblesse oblige, handing something down patronizingly to the suffering poor, but of self-help as well. (p. 137)

Shriver fought for inclusion and demonstrated her commitment to the growth of people as evidence of her work to ensure that each Special Olympian had the proper training so they could win and gain a sense of pride. Shriver said,

“I have been to races this year and I thought I was back in 1968! Don’t we understand that when children lose they are saddened? That when they run last if they are not saddened then they have lost hope, and that is the worst.” Why was this so important? Why not just let them paddle about and pat them on the head? It was crucial, in Eunice’s overall scheme, for the kids to develop pride in themselves at the skills they had so courageously acquired. “We must not have any event in which Special Olympians, no matter how severely handicapped, are not demonstrating some skill acquired through training. (as quoted in Shorter, 2000, p. 181)

Shriver was committed to the growth of people as demonstrated by her personal involvement in the planning of the Special Olympics Games. As the games continued to evolve, Shriver had her hand in every detail to ensure the experience would spur development and growth of the intellectually challenged. Shorter (2000) cited evidence of her attention to detail in

working to ensure athletes were trained before the games, and the opening ceremonies were inspiring with music and celebrities, including a celebratory “Victory Dance” (p. 182). Shorter noted,

At opening ceremonies, often empty “except for a few parents,” Eunice had a Kennedy-style solution: bring in some “first-class entertainment.” . . . This attentiveness to detail paid off. The athletes were made to feel good about themselves, and the parents were tearful with pleasure and relief. (p. 182)

Shriver was committed to the growth of the intellectually challenged by raising awareness and promoting acceptance through the Special Olympics Games. Shriver worked to sharpen the image of the Games, which led to involvement and growth of the entire intellectually challenged community (Shorter, 2000). Shorter (2000) stated, “Thus the image of mental retardation in the eyes of the community changed. People become accepting of these young athletes—of these mentally retarded citizens in general—whose often distinctive appearances had once consigned them to the dustbin.” (p. 185)

Shriver demonstrated her commitment to the growth of people by using the Special Olympics as a tool to nurture, develop, and grow the intellectually challenged. In a biographical essay on the Special Olympics website, in which Shriver was cited,

In her remarks at the Opening Ceremony, she said the inaugural Chicago Special Olympics prove “a very fundamental fact”—that children with intellectual disabilities can be exceptional athletes and that “through sports they can realize their potential for growth.” She pledged that this new organization, Special Olympics, would offer people

with intellectual disabilities everywhere “the chance to play, the chance to compete and the chance to grow.” (as quoted in Special Olympics, 2014b, para. 7)

Wieckowski (2009) wrote of the mutual benefit of the Special Olympics, a strategy developed by Shriver. Her vision demonstrates commitment to the growth of people, as noted by Wieckowski: “What’s particularly remarkable about her vision is its promise of a reciprocal relationship: that through athletic competition, those with intellectual disabilities and those without could grow together, each learning from the other” (para. 1).

Shriver developed the Special Olympics strategy to ignite development and growth of the intellectually challenged community. Wieckowski (2009) provided evidence of Shriver’s focus and commitment to the growth of people:

Whether it was the story of a girl who had never left her home for the first twenty years of her life and then became one of the most productive workers at a workshop for the mentally disabled, or the tale of a cost-saving invention by another worker there, Shriver constantly played on the theme of mutual benefit, of growing together. (para. 6)

Shriver was the champion for the intellectually challenged demonstrated by her commitment to the Special Olympics to foster the growth of every member of the community (Braddock, 2010). Braddock (2010) wrote, “Shriver spoke with the force of millions in empowering the voices of people with intellectual disabilities and their families around the world. She lived by action, not adage.” (p. 23). Shriver is remembered for dedication to the growth of people with intellectual disabilities and the entire community (Braddock, 2010). Shriver brought the Special Olympics to the intellectually challenged community, which spurred growth in the form of pride and self-worth, as noted by Braddock:

Special Olympics athletes soon proved skeptics wrong by competing in athletic games throughout the country, and then throughout the world. However, this is another story, a glorious story of the triumph of one determined woman who led millions of Special Olympians into the modern era and gave them and their families pride to be alive, engaged, and active in body, mind, and spirit. (p. 69)

Shriver took over the Kennedy Foundation in the late 1950s and focused the organization on research and the Special Olympics for the intellectually challenged (Dought et al., 2011). It was because of Shriver's vision and leadership that the foundation continues to change the perception and attitudes towards the intellectually challenged:

Mrs. Shriver officially became involved in helping people with developmental problems when she became the executive vice-president of a family organization in nineteen fifty-seven. The Joseph P. Kennedy Junior Foundation was created in nineteen forty-six to honor her oldest brother, who died fighting in World War Two. Under her guidance, the foundation turned its attention to studying the causes of mental disabilities. It also sought to improve the way society treats people with such disabilities (Doughty et al., para. 4).

Shriver demonstrated *commitment* to the growth of people through her vision and actions with the Special Olympics. Her strategy changed the perceptions and attitudes towards the intellectually challenged and enabled the intellectually challenged to experience, joy, pride and self-esteem.

Building community: Eunice Kennedy Shriver.

Building community findings. Twelve data items coded under *building community* consist of two primary sources and six secondary sources. Two pieces of data were found in the

same audio script (Doughty et al., 2011); two pieces in Leamer (1994); and three pieces in Shorter (2000). The interraters reviewed and approved all data coded under *building community*.

Shriver displayed her commitment to building community by starting a summer camp, Camp Shriver, in her backyard; this was the beginning of the Special Olympic Games (Doughty et al., 2011, para. 11). Camp Shriver provided games for intellectually challenged children that fostered relationships by sharing common goals and interests in an inclusive and fun environment. Doughty et al. (2011) provided evidence of Shriver's intimate involvement in planning of the summer camp and how she worked side-by-side her followers, the intellectually challenged, nurturing a collaborative work environment. Doughty et al. wrote,

Ms. Shriver also opened a summer camp that was free of cost for mentally retarded children. The idea for it came when a mother told her that there were no summer camps where she could send her disabled child. So, Eunice Shriver did something about it. She started Camp Shriver at her home in Maryland to give disabled children a fun summer program filled with physical activities. Non-disabled children were also welcome to join the camp. She made sure there were a large number of workers to give the necessary attention to all the kids. And, she asked students from private schools to volunteer at the camp as helpers. Ms. Shriver was directly involved in all parts of the camp. She would often swim and play ball with the children. (para. 11)

Shriver traveled to engage the global community in the movement to improve the lives of the intellectually challenged community. She demonstrated collaboration and community by being directly involved elbow to elbow with her followers (Leamer, 1994). Leamer (1994) noted,

Eunice was running her own campaign, not for political office, but to minimize the number of babies born with mental retardation and to improve the lives of those with the condition. In July, after her summer camp at Timberlawn, Eunice flew to Sweden and England to learn about European methods of treating those with mental retardation. She donned on a bathing suit, jumped into the pool, and taught swimming strokes. Eunice believed that the mentally retarded needed the same physical training and exercise as everyone else. It was a lesson she had learned from Rosemary. (p. 607)

In addition to the Special Olympics, Shriver embraced community by creating the Community of Caring organization to address the needs of teens. By supporting teens and providing education, the organization helps build community (Doughty et al., 2011). Doughty et al. (2011) recounted, “Eunice Kennedy Shriver continued to work for the disabled in other ways. She created an organization called Community of Caring. It works to reduce teenage pregnancies and educate students about creating caring and respectful communities” (para. 27).

Shriver developed an enduring movement that not only builds community but integrates communities (Braddock, 2010). It was Shriver’s leadership that brought change to communities worldwide, as noted by Braddock (2010): “Eunice Shriver’s most catalytic and lasting contribution to the community integration and institutional reform movement was her leadership in 1961 in championing the creation of the President’s Panel on Mental Retardation.” (p. 65)

Evidence of Shriver’s building and demonstrating community was found in a biographical essay on the Special Olympics website (2014b). The essay notes Shriver’s establishment of multiple educational programs for teens that spanning the United States.

In the 1980s, she pioneered the “Community of Caring” concept as a character-education program for teens; this idea led to the creation of 16 “Community of Caring” Model Centers and the establishment of “Community of Caring” programs in 1,200 public and private schools across the United States. (para 13)

Shriver expanded the Special Olympics to the national community and then the International community.

The event could really have been called the Eunice Shriver World Games. For 40 years she has traveled the planet, to every continent except Antarctica, doing the hard labor of rousing governments, schools, corporations, volunteers and families to include “the special people” in all parts of life. (McCarthy, 2009, para. 1)

Leamer (1994) provided evidence of Shriver’s intimate involvement in building and demonstrating community. Leamer noted the following examples:

Eunice didn’t sit up with the V.I.P.s but walked down on the field. At her own home at Timberlawn, she had seen what these young people could do, how they could swim, and run, so much more that almost anyone realized, and she cheered the athletes on, lost in the excitement of the moment. At the end of the day she stood saluting the Special Olympians as they marched around the field a final time. (p. 638–639)

Through the Special Olympics, Shriver started an inclusive cooperative environment for the intellectually challenged community:

As Eunice said at one point, Special Olympics teaches “that all human beings are created equal in the sense that each has the capacity and a hunger for moral excellence, for courage, for friendship and for love. Whatever the speed of our feet or the power of our

arms, each of us is capable of these highest virtues. Intelligence does not limit love, nor wealth produce friendship.” (as quoted in Shorter, 2000, p. 137)

Shorter (2000) spoke of how Shriver experienced great joy building community by sharing the common interest of sports and working side-by-side her followers, the intellectually challenged. He said,

Eunice was an intensely serious, even dour individual. Yet her face would invariably light up as she attended MR [mentally retarded] sports events, hopping into the pool with the Olympians or hugging them as they finished their races. She experienced at a profound level this joy that she articulated as a vision, and she choreographed the Special Olympic to make sure that each event mirrored this joy and celebration of achievement, for in the sports events each participant was a winner. (p. 140)

Shriver’s strategy for the Special Olympics promoted a collaborative environment as evidence of the family members of the intellectually challenged that transform from spectators into volunteers, serving the community (Shorter, 2000).

A sample of parents interviewed in 1987 strongly agreed that the Special Olympics constituted, “one of the finest experiences the child has had.” Sixty-five percent of forty parents polled at random in 1993 had gone beyond being spectators to serving as “coaches, fundraisers, chaperones, and [in] other volunteer positions.” (as cited in Shorter, 2000, p. 184)

Shriver understood the needs of the community. She provided evidence of the mutual benefit and growth that the Special Olympics have to offer. She promoted the development of

relationships by providing a shared benefit for the community (Wieckowski, 2009). Wieckowski (2009) noted,

Whether it was the story of a girl who had never left her home for the first twenty years of her life and then became one of the most productive workers at a workshop for the mentally disabled, or the tale of a cost-saving invention by another worker there, Shriver constantly played on the theme of mutual benefit, of growing together. (para. 6)

In remembrance, president and chief operating officer of the Special Olympics, Brady Lum spoke of continuing Shriver's inclusive vision of transforming the lives of the intellectually challenged by building community and developing relationships; thereby cultivating collaboration. Lum said,

Today we celebrate the life of a woman who had the vision to create our movement. It is an enormous loss, but I know we can rest assured that her legacy will live on through her family, friends, and the millions of people around the world who she touched and transformed. In her memory, we will continue to work to bring her powerful vision to life to change the lives of those with intellectual disabilities, their families and communities, using sports as the catalyst for respect, acceptance and inclusion. (as quoted in Suto, 2009, para. 3)

These data provide sufficient evidence that Shriver exhibited the servant leadership characteristic of building community with her life's work with the intellectually challenged. Shriver created the Special Olympics, a model that embodies all elements of building community—cooperative and collaborative environment, working side by side, and demonstrating and building community (Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 1995, 1998b).

Chapter Summary

The 76 data items cover all 10 aspects of the servant leadership characteristics cumulatively represent Shriver as a servant leader. Chapter 5 summarizes the evidence found, analyzed, and coded from the detailed analysis in Chapter 4, including the answer to the research question, a discussion of significant findings, and conclusions.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

This chapter provides a summary of the outcomes in Chapter 4 of the servant leader characteristics in Shriver's life, an answer to the research question, significant findings, and conclusions. The first section in this chapter contains a summary of the evidence found, analyzed, and coded under one or more of the 10 servant leader characteristics as determined in Chapter 4.

Summary of the Servant Leadership Characteristics of Eunice Kennedy Shriver

Collectively, the 76 data items coded to the 10 servant leadership characteristics holistically reflect the findings of a servant leader. Therefore, the researcher concludes that Shriver embodied all 10 characteristics of servant leadership. This study identified strong characteristics of building community, commitment to the growth of people, conceptualization, and persuasion; and to a lesser degree, although noteworthy, evidence was found in the characteristics of listening, empathy, healing, awareness, foresight, and stewardship.

Shriver changed the world through servant leadership and left an enduring legacy, the Special Olympics. Shriver was motivated to launch the Special Olympics in part due to her love of sports and her enormous empathy for her sister Rosemary, and from the knowledge she gained in her visits to mental institutions. Findings indicate that empathy for her sister drove Shriver to become an expert and a champion of the intellectually challenged. Shriver interacted with the intellectually challenged and listened to their needs. Shriver heard not just what was being said, but what was not; and used that knowledge to improve the lives of millions. Shriver healed the intellectually challenged through support and nurturing—the servant leaders method for healing (Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 1995, 1998b).

Shriver raised awareness and promoted acceptance and understanding. Leading by example, Shriver raised the consciousness around the world. She used persuasion through consensus, not through positional power to bring about change. Shriver was an inspiration to women of her time and today. She persuaded by example and through stories that aroused the hearts around the world. Her holistic, inclusive strategic vision demonstrates her knowledge and understanding of the intellectually challenged community. Shriver's conceptualization added value to so many lives and changed the world's perceptions and attitudes toward the intellectually challenged. Her intelligent strategy provides "self-help" as she clearly understood that "we grow as we help those with mental retardation grow" (as quoted in Shorter, 2000, p. 137).

These data provide significant evidence that Shriver had the intuition, insight, and used prudence to interpret past and current events, which enabled her to foresee future outcomes. Through sports and education, Shriver prepared and protected her followers, the intellectually challenged, for that future. It was through Shriver's stewardship that millions were inspired to also serve. By her actions, she spurred volunteerism, which results in a greater sense of commitment and service to everyone involved (Shorter, 2000). Shriver developed a strategic, reciprocal, enduring vision that changed the perceptions and attitudes towards the intellectually challenged and enabled the intellectually challenged to experience, sincere joy, pride, and self-esteem.

Lastly, the strong evidence found in the building community category reveals that Shriver transformed her followers and the entire intellectually challenged community. She promoted volunteerism and implemented formidable changes in the fields of education, medicine, sports,

public policy, civil rights, and community service. Shriver never sat on the sidelines; instead she worked with her followers side by side, engaged in every aspect of the Special Olympics.

The sum of the data items provide clear evidence that confirms Shriver embodied all 10 characteristics of servant leadership as defined by Greenleaf (1970) and Spears (1995, 1998b)—(a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community—and restated in Chapter 2.

Significant Findings

There are several significant implications of the findings of Shriver's servant leadership:

1. The study of Shriver's servant leadership supports and adds to the study of leadership theory, specifically, servant leadership theory. The researcher confirmed the 10 characteristics of servant leadership as correct attributes to identifying servant leaders.

2. Shriver succeeded in an era when women were suppressed from leadership positions.

This study is the first study of the servant leadership of Eunice Kennedy Shriver and may be the first in-depth study of any woman icon and her servant leadership characteristics as defined by Greenleaf (1970) and Spears (1995, 1998b).

3. This study provides a detailed account of the servant leadership behaviors of Shriver with detailed accounts of her enduring contributions to the intellectually challenged community and the entire world. This account is significant in that this leadership approach can be used as a model for implementing social change.

4. The findings overwhelmingly indicate that Shriver was strongest in the characteristic of building community, with 16% of the data items representing this specific dimension of

servant leadership. This finding is consistent with Shriver's efforts to develop and support a global community to improve the lives of the intellectually challenged. Servant leaders build community by creating an inclusive cooperative work environment within their organization (Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 1995, 1998b).

5. Shriver spent almost 5 decades advocating for the intellectually challenged. She not only changed the minds and hearts of the world, she also made significant strides in providing opportunities and improving health care, education, public policy, and discrimination in employment.

Conclusion

One woman, Eunice Kennedy Shriver, changed the world through her courageous leadership. Arguably, no other woman has contributed so much and affected so many. This study contributes to the field of servant leadership and provides researchers and organizations a methodology to accurately identify servant leader characteristics. This study and future studies can aid employers in selecting new leadership candidates with the characteristics that are shown to increase productivity, employee engagement and satisfaction (Block, 1993; Wheatley, 2005).

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APPENDIX A

Eunice Kennedy Shriver Timeline

July 10, 1921: Eunice Kennedy born in Brookline, Mass

1943: Earned a bachelor's degree in sociology from Stanford University

1953: Marries Robert Sargent Shriver Jr.

1954: Son Robert Sargent Shriver III is born

1955: Daughter Maria Owings Shriver is born

1957: Takes over Joseph P. Kennedy Jr. Foundation

1959: Son Timothy Perry Shriver is born

1962: Begins a summer day camp at her home in Maryland for developmentally disabled

1963: President Kennedy, 46, is killed in Dallas

1964: Son Mark Kennedy Shriver is born

1965: Son Anthony Paul Kennedy Shriver is born

1968: Robert Kennedy, 42, is killed in California while campaigning for president

1968: 1st International Special Olympics Summer Games at Soldier Field in Chicago

1977: 1st International Special Olympics Winter Games held in Steamboat Springs, CO

1984: Awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom by President Reagan

1986: The United Nations launches the International Year of Special Olympics

1988: The International Olympic Committee signs a historic agreement officially endorsing and recognizing Special Olympics.

1995: Mother Rose Kennedy dies at age 104

2002: Awarded the Theodore Roosevelt Award by the National Collegiate Athletic Association

2003: Her husband, Sargent, discloses he is suffering from Alzheimer's disease

2005: Sister Rosemary Kennedy, the inspiration for the Special Olympics, dies at age 86

2006: Sister Patricia Kennedy Lawford dies at age 82

2009: Eunice Kennedy Shriver died at age 88

2011: Her husband, Sargent Shriver, dies at age of 95

APPENDIX B

The leadership continuum of Eunice Kennedy Shriver

Year	Leadership activity of Eunice Kennedy Shriver
1950s	Employed by Department of State to work on programs in the Special War Problems Division A social worker at the Penitentiary for Women, the House of the Good Shepherd (woman's shelter), and Chicago Juvenile Court.
1957	Selected to lead the Joseph P. Kennedy Foundation. The Foundation's goals were to help prevent mental disabilities by identifying its causes, and to improve the societal treatment of intellectually disabled.
1961	Established the President's Committee on Mental Retardation.
1962	Established the National Institute for Child Health and Human Development—aimed at reducing the numbers of infant deaths, and the treatment and prevention of intellectually disabled. Launched a summer camp in her backyard—the start of the Special Olympics
1966	Awarded Eunice and Sargent Shriver with the Philip Murray-William Green Award
1967	Formed a network of university-affiliated facilities and mental retardation research centers at major medical schools across the United States.
1968	Launched the first International Special Olympics Summer Games, in Chicago's Soldier Field, where 1,000 athletes with intellectual disabilities from 26 states and Canada competed.
1971	Established centers for the study of medical ethics at Harvard and Georgetown Universities.
1973	Awarded the French Legion of Honor—France's highest distinction.
1973	Received the Mary Lasker Award and the American Association on Mental Deficiency (AAMD) Humanitarian Award
1974	Honored with the Priz de la Couronne Francaise
1981	Established the "Community of Caring" concept for the reduction of intellectual disabilities among babies of teenagers—programs in 1200 public and private schools.
1982	Received the Nation's highest Civilian award, the Presidential Medal of Freedom—
1984	awarded by Ronald Reagan.
1988	Awarded the Laetare Medal of the University of Notre Dame, the Order of the Smile of Polish Children,
1990	Received the Eagle Award, the United States Sports Academy's highest international honor.
1993	Received the Franklin D. Roosevelt Four Freedoms Freedom from Want Award
1998	Inducted into National Women's Hall of Fame.
2000	Honored with the Laureus World Sports Award- The Sport for Good Award
2001	Honored with the Surgeon General's Medallion
2002	Received the Theodore Roosevelt Award, the highest honor bestowed by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA).

	Honored with the Olympic Order Award from the International Olympic Committee (IOC)
2003	Special Olympics World Summer Games, held in Dublin, Ireland, where more than 6,500 athletes with intellectual disabilities from 150 countries.
2005	George W. Bush held a Birthday dinner at the White House dinner in her honor for her work with the Special Olympics and its unprecedented growth over the past five years. One of the first recipients of a sidewalk medallion on The Extra Mile Point of Light Pathway in Washington D.C.
2007	The National Institute of Child Health and Human Development renamed after Eunice Kennedy Shriver by the United States Congress. Honored with the National Recreation & Park Association Service (NRPAS) National Voluntary Award
2008	Awarded the first <i>Sports Illustrated</i> Sportsman of the Year Legacy Award
2009	The U.S. National Portrait Gallery unveiled a portrait of Eunice Kennedy Shriver- the first portrait the gallery has ever commissioned of an individual who has not served as a U.S. President or First Lady.

Adapted from <http://www.jfklibrary.org/JFK/The-Kennedy-Family/Eunice-Kennedy-Shriver.aspx>

APPENDIX C

Pepperdine Institutional Review Board Approval

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board

April 16, 2014

Michelle Spain

Protocol #: N0214D02

Project Title: Change the World through Servant Leadership

Dear Ms. Spain:

Thank you for submitting your application, *Changing the World through Servant Leadership*, for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB). The IRB appreciates the work you and your faculty advisor, Dr. Dellaneve, have done on the proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations (45 CFR 46 - <http://www.nihtraining.com/ohsrsite/guidelines/45cfr46.html>) that govern the protections of human subjects. Specifically, section 45 CFR 46.101(b)(4) states:

(b) Unless otherwise required by Department or Agency heads, research activities in which the only involvement of human subjects will be in one or more of the following categories are exempt from this policy:

Category (4) of 45 CFR 46.101, Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens, if these sources are publicly available or if the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit a **Request for Modification Form** to the GPS IRB. Because your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the GPS IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite our best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the GPS IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the GPS IRB and the appropriate form to be used to report this information can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* (see link to "policy material" at <http://www.pepperdine.edu/irb/graduate/>).

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all further communication or correspondence related to this approval. Should you have additional questions, please contact Kevin Collins, Manager of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at gpsirb@pepperdine.edu. On behalf of the GPS IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Thema Bryant-Davis".

Thema Bryant-Davis, Ph.D.
Chair, Graduate and Professional Schools IRB

cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives
Mr. Brett Leach, Compliance Attorney
Dr. James Dellaneve, Faculty Advisor