

Article type:
Original Research

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Article history:

Received 21 Feb 2025
Revised 14 May 2025
Accepted 24 June 2025
Published online 01 Sep 2025

How to cite this article:

Octavianne, H., Suhariadi, F., Mudzakkir, M. F., Amiati, M., Sarwestri, K. E., Adriansyah, M. A., & Trianto, D. (2025). The Impact of Servant and Women's Leadership on Organizational Performance in Indonesia's High Prosecutor's Office. *International Journal of Body, Mind and Culture*, 12(6), 22-34.



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Introduction

The performance of public legal institutions remains a central concern in the discourse of administrative reform and good governance (Tua et al., 2014). High Prosecutor's Offices (Kejaksaan Tinggi) in Indonesia function as provincial-level legal institutions with prosecutorial authority, tasked with upholding the rule of law through case handling, corruption prosecution, and legal supervision as regulated under Law No. 11 of 2021

The Impact of Servant and Women's Leadership on Organizational Performance in Indonesia's High Prosecutor's Office

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ABSTRACT

Objective: This study examines the influence of servant leadership and women's leadership on organizational performance within the High Prosecutor's Office, emphasizing their relevance in driving innovation and inclusiveness in the public sector.

Methods and Materials: Using a cross-sectional quantitative design, data were collected through structured questionnaires from 100 prosecutors under female Chief Prosecutors (Kajati) and analyzed with SmartPLS to test the structural model.

Findings: The results demonstrate that servant leadership significantly influences organizational performance (t -statistic = 4.579; $p < 0.001$; coefficient = 0.374), while women's leadership also contributes significantly (t -statistic = 3.569; $p < 0.001$; coefficient = 0.3578). Additionally, the interaction of both leadership styles showed a positive relationship with performance (coefficient = 0.225).

Conclusion: These findings underscore the strategic importance of implementing servant and women's leadership to enhance organizational outcomes in the prosecutorial system. Practical implications suggest the Attorney General's Office should invest in leadership development programs that emphasize service orientation, team empowerment, and inclusive practices to support sustainable performance improvement.

Keywords: Servant leadership, women leadership, organizational performance, leadership development.

(amending Law No. 16 of 2004). These institutions are pivotal in ensuring procedural justice and legal certainty for society. However, fulfilling these mandates efficiently and justly requires not only adherence to legal norms but also strategic and responsive organizational management (Trinidad & Normore, 2006).

Organizational performance within public legal institutions depends on the quality of leadership that guides internal structures and professional standards. Recent shifts in public sector innovation have

highlighted the need for leadership models that are both humanistic and performance-oriented. Servant leadership, a model conceptualized by (Slack et al., 2020), emerges as an alternative to authoritarian or bureaucratic leadership styles often prevalent in legal institutions. This approach positions leaders as facilitators of team growth and well-being, placing the needs of employees at the core of managerial practices (Setiawan, 2019). Servant leaders demonstrate empathy, foster community, and build organizational culture rooted in service, thus creating a conducive environment for productivity and ethical conduct. Within the complex, hierarchical, and high-pressure environment of the High Prosecutor's Office, the implementation of servant leadership has the potential to reduce procedural rigidity, promote accountability, and improve institutional trust (Setiawan, 2019).

The evolving role of women in leadership across public institutions further adds an important dimension to the discourse on leadership effectiveness. Leadership by women has been characterized by democratic, participatory, and collaborative tendencies (Richard et al., 2009). Studies have found that female leaders often exhibit higher levels of emotional intelligence, active listening, and inclusiveness in team management (Richard et al., 2004). These attributes can enhance motivation, workplace cohesion, and adaptive decision-making. In traditionally male-dominated environments such as prosecution offices, the presence of women in leadership roles can challenge hierarchical norms, promote gender equity, and introduce alternative strategies in case handling and organizational governance. For instance, the appointment of female Chief Prosecutors (Kajati) in East Java, though rare, has demonstrated symbolic and practical shifts in leadership culture, opening pathways for more inclusive legal institutions (Prastio et al., 2021).

Empirical studies in the context of legal institutions that examine the combined impact of servant leadership and women's leadership on organizational performance remain limited (Phipps, 2010). Most existing research isolates these leadership constructs, focusing either on public sector servant leadership or on gender-based leadership effectiveness in general public administration. Studies examining these models within the prosecutorial domain, particularly in Southeast Asian legal contexts, are still emerging. This gap provides a

compelling justification for the present study (Pettigrew, 1992).

The current research is confirmatory in nature and aims to statistically test the relationship between servant leadership, women's leadership, and organizational performance in High Prosecutor's Offices (Sofia et al., 2024). This study proposes a conceptual model in which both servant leadership and women's leadership act as independent variables influencing organizational performance directly (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2005). The model does not test for mediation or moderation but rather focuses on the unique and combined effects of these two leadership styles on institutional outcomes (Jafar et al., 2024). The objective is to assess whether servant leadership and women's leadership independently or synergistically contribute to enhanced performance within legal organizations (Liden et al., 2008).

A cross-sectional quantitative design has been adopted to provide empirical evidence. Data collection involves distributing structured questionnaires to prosecutors working under female leadership in provincial-level High Prosecutor's Offices. The analysis is conducted using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM), allowing for robust estimation of path coefficients and model fit. Three research questions guide this investigation:

(1) Does servant leadership have a statistically significant influence on organizational performance in High Prosecutor's Offices? (2) Does women's leadership significantly affect organizational performance? (3) Does the integration of servant leadership and women's leadership result in improved organizational performance compared to the implementation of each leadership style individually.

The results of this study are expected to generate both theoretical and practical contributions. Theoretically, it expands the application of servant leadership theory and gender-inclusive leadership frameworks in public legal organizations. Practically, it offers insights for leadership development programs and organizational reform strategies within the Attorney General's Office (Kejaksaan Agung), especially concerning leadership selection, training modules, and workplace inclusivity. The findings may inform national policies on leadership in the judiciary sector, particularly in efforts to increase institutional responsiveness, transparency, and public

trust. By addressing these objectives, the study aspires to strengthen the scholarly understanding of leadership-performance dynamics in prosecutorial institutions and to support the operationalization of ethical and effective public service leadership in Indonesia.

Methods and Materials

Study Design and Participants

This study employed a quantitative, cross-sectional research design to investigate the influence of servant leadership and women's leadership on organizational performance in the High Prosecutor's Office in Indonesia. The study design followed empirical inquiry that examines the relationships among variables using structured data collection and statistical analysis. The research targeted prosecutors working under female Chief Prosecutors (Kajati) during 2024. A purposive sampling technique was adopted with inclusion criteria specifying active prosecutors in provincial High Prosecutor's Offices led by women. While purposive sampling allows for focused examination of a specific population, it presents inherent limitations in terms of generalizability. The final sample consisted of 100 participants, which satisfies statistical adequacy for PLS-SEM analysis based on Hair et al.'s (2019) power analysis guideline indicating a minimum of 67 respondents for models with two predictors, assuming medium effect size and 80% power.

Instruments

Measurement instruments for the study were derived from validated scales adapted to the Indonesian prosecutorial context. Servant leadership was assessed using the Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) developed by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006), comprising five core dimensions: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organizational stewardship (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). These dimensions reflect the theoretical foundation of servant leadership, which prioritizes serving and empowering others. Women's leadership was measured using a modified version of the Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI), adapted to reflect collaborative and inclusive leadership attributes commonly associated with female leaders, such as

empathy, active listening, and participatory decision-making. Organizational performance was operationalized using an adapted version of the Organizational Performance Index (OPI) by Delaney and Huselid (1996), capturing components such as task efficiency, responsiveness, legal service quality, and case management effectiveness. All variables were measured using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Given the use of self-reported questionnaires and single-time-point data collection, the study addressed the risk of common method bias (CMB) through both procedural and statistical controls. Procedural strategies included psychological separation of items, anonymity assurance, and variation in scale presentation to reduce social desirability and consistency biases. Post-hoc statistical control was implemented through Harman's single-factor test. The results showed that no single factor accounted for more than 50% of the variance, indicating that CMB was not a significant threat to the validity of the data.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) with SmartPLS version 4.0. This approach was selected due to its suitability for small to medium sample sizes, as well as its capacity to model latent constructs and complex structural paths. The measurement model was evaluated for reliability using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability, and for convergent validity using Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Discriminant validity was assessed using the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio. The structural model was analyzed to test the significance of the hypothesized relationships through bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples. Model fit was assessed using the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) and R^2 values to determine both the adequacy of the model and its explanatory power.

Findings and Results

In this study, the researcher uses the PLS output approach technique to conduct model test analysis and testers on each hypothesis. The analysis process using PLS (Partial Least Square) consists of two parts, namely

the evaluation of the outer model and the inner model. The validity of the model was analyzed by evaluating the validity of convergence and discrimination. Meanwhile,

the reliability of the variable constructs in the model was analyzed using reliability tests that included composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha.

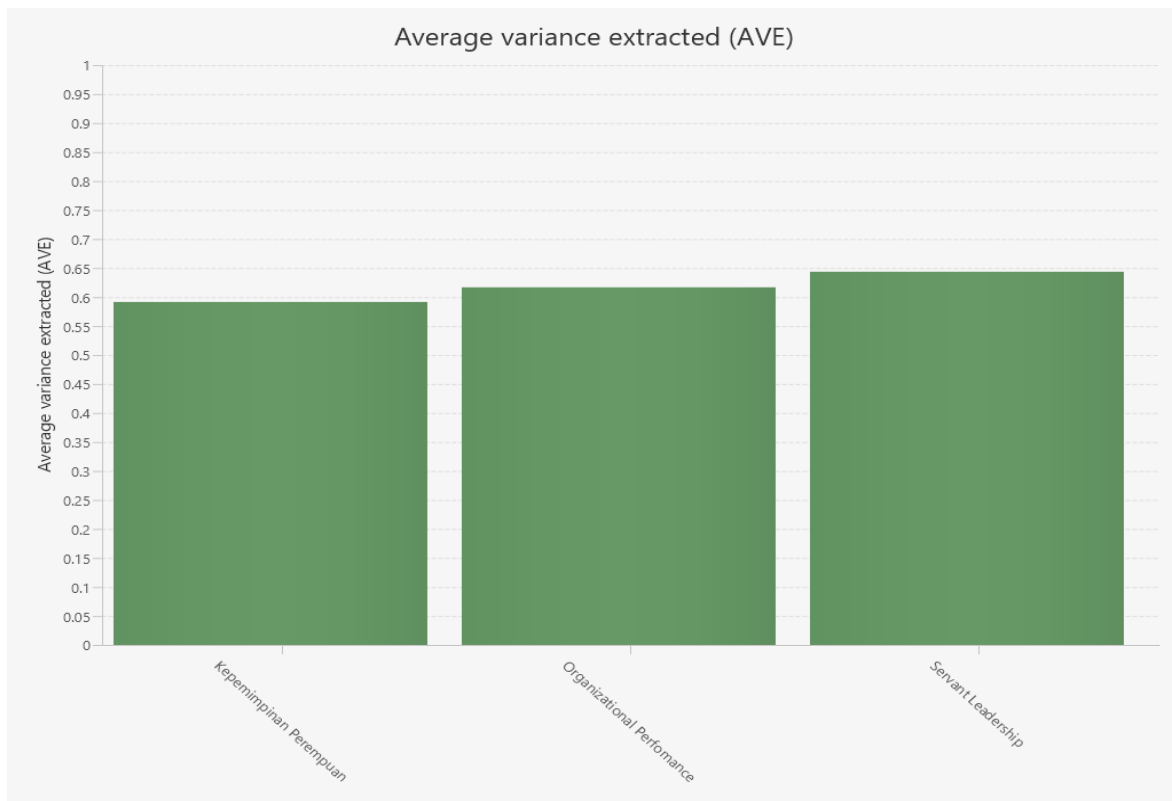
Table 1

Outer Loading Value

Variable	Indicator Code	Outer Loading Value	Information
Women's Leadership	KP 1	0.784	Valid
	KP 10	0.769	Valid
	KP 11	0.738	Valid
	KP 12	0.792	Valid
	KP 2	0.756	Valid
	KP 3	0.723	Valid
	KP 4	0.780	Valid
	KP 6	0.790	Valid
	KP 7	0.767	Valid
	KP 8	0.759	Valid
	KP 9	0.795	Valid
	OP 1	0.725	Valid
Organizational Performance	OP 10	0.802	Valid
	OP 11	0.796	Valid
	OP 12	0.745	Valid
	OP 13	0.825	Valid
	OP 14	0.834	Valid
	OP 15	0.832	Valid
	OP 2	0.737	Valid
	OP 3	0.746	Valid
	OP 4	0.786	Valid
	OP 5	0.787	Valid
	OP 6	0.799	Valid
	OP 7	0.734	Valid
	OP 8	0.786	Valid
	OP 9	0.832	Valid
Servant Leadership	SL 1	0.909	Valid
	SL 10	0.772	Valid
	SL 11	0.711	Valid
	SL 12	0.811	Valid
	SL 13	0.727	Valid
	SL 14	0.774	Valid
	SL 15	0.717	Valid
	SL 2	0.912	Valid
	SL 3	0.848	Valid
	SL 4	0.759	Valid
	SL 5	0.838	Valid
	SL 6	0.796	Valid
	SL 7	0.803	Valid
	SL 8	0.811	Valid
	SL 9	0.813	Valid

Convergent validity aims to determine the validity of each relationship between the indicator and its construct or latent variable by looking at each loading factor in the PLS software (Ghozali, 2022). An indicator can be said to

be valid or meets the requirements of convergent validity if it has loading factor > 0.7 . Table 1 explains that the value of outer loading All variable indicators are valid or have loading factor > 0.7 .

Figure 1*Average Variance Extracted (AVE) Values*

Construct validity It is a validity that shows the extent to which a latent variable test is used to measure the theoretical construct on which the test is based. A construct is said to have good construct validity if Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is above 0.5 as an indication that all constructs meet the convergent validity requirements. An AVE value of > 0.5 means that

the probability of an indicator in a construct entering another variable is lower (less than 0.5) so that the probability of the indicator converging and entering the construct in question (Ghozali & Latan, 2015). Figure 1 shows that the AVE value of the three research variables > 0.5 , so that the probability of the indicator converges and is included in the construction in question.

Table 2*Fornell-Larcker Cross Loading Values*

Variable	Women's Leadership	Organizational Performance	Servant Leadership
Women's Leadership	0.769		
Organizational Performance	0.383	0.785	
Servant Leadership	0.193	0.199	0.802

Based on Table 2, each indicator has a certain construct correlation value with the indicator higher than other constructs. Thus, it can be said that the indicators used in this study have good discriminant validity with their respective variables.

The correlation results revealed that health anxiety was positively correlated with chronic fatigue ($r = .51$, $p < .001$) and negatively correlated with spiritual vitality ($r = -.42$, $p < .001$), social support ($r = -.38$, $p < .001$), and lifestyle ($r = -.46$, $p < .001$). All correlations were

significant at the .01 level, suggesting strong linear relationships among the variables (Table 2).

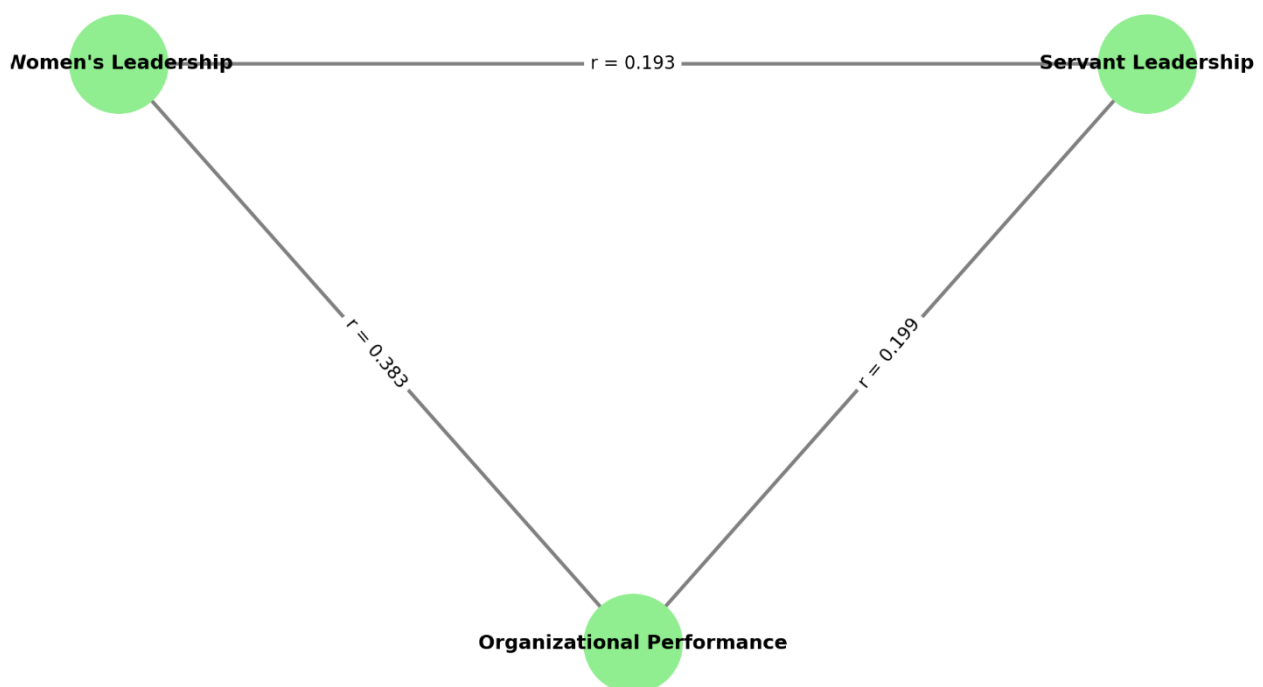
Table 3

Composite Reliability Values

Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability (rho_a)	Composite reliability (rho_c)
Women's Leadership	0.938	0.945	0.946
Organizational Performance	0.956	0.963	0.960
Servant Leadership	0.960	0.964	0.964

Figure 2

Fornell-Larcker Cross Loading Values



Based on Table 3, each variable has a Cronbach's alpha value of > 0.6 or composite reliability > 0.7. Thus, it can be said that all constructs are reliable, meaning that the variables used in this study have good and consistent composite reliability.

The coefficient of determination can be seen in the R-square table. The way to find out how much the value of

the determination coefficient is by multiplying the R-square value by 100%, if the result is more than 67% then it indicates a good determination coefficient, if it is less than 67% but more than 33% indicates a moderate determination coefficient, and if it is less than 33% but more than 19% indicates a weak determination coefficient (Figure 2).

Table 4

Coefficient of determination

Variable	R-Square
Servant Leadership	0.755
Organizational Performance	0.896

Based on Table 4, it is known that the R-Square value above has been multiplied by 100%, resulting in a determination coefficient value for the organizational performance variable of 89.6% and has a strong determination coefficient. This value shows that organizational performance can be influenced by the variables of servant leadership and female leadership by 89.6%. While the remaining 11.4% was influenced by other variables outside this study. Meanwhile, the R-square value for the servant leadership variable is 75.5% and has a strong determination coefficient. This value shows that servant leadership can affect the organizational performance variable by 75.5%. While the remaining 24.5% was influenced by other variables outside this study.

Predictive relevance is used to measure how well the observation value produced by the model. The value of predictive relevance can be determined through the calculation of Q-square as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} Q \text{ Square} &= 1 - (1 - R_1^2) \times (1 - R_2^2) \\ &= 1 - (1 - 0.755) \times (1 - 0.896) \\ &= 1 - (0.245) \times (0.114) \\ &= 1 - 0.02793 \\ &= 0.97207 \end{aligned}$$

Based on the results of the Q-square calculation above, the model has a predictive relevance value of 0.97207 or 97.2%. This means that the analysis model has good predictive relevance.

Goodness of fit is a test of compatibility or conformity between certain observation results (observation frequency) and frequencies obtained based on their expected value (theoretical frequency). The evaluation by calculating goodness of fit (GoF) using the GoF measurement reference is the average value of AVE, with the average value of R-Square. The value is determined based on three criteria, namely goodness of fit < 0.10 (GoF) is small, goodness of fit < 0.25 (GoF) is medium, goodness of fit > 0.36 (GoF) is large.

Table 5

AVE and R-Square

Variable	AVE Scores	R-Square Value
Servant Leadership	0.644	0.755
Organizational Performance	0.617	0.896
Average	0.6305	0.8255

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Goodness of Fit} &= \sqrt{AVE \times R^2} \\ &= \sqrt{0.6305 \times 0.8255} \\ &= \sqrt{0.52047} \\ &= 0.72143606 \end{aligned}$$

Based on the results the Goodness of Fit (GoF) value obtained in this study is 0.7214, calculated from the average AVE of 0.6305 and the average R-square of 0.8255. A GoF value of 0.72 indicates a strong model fit, meaning that the structural model demonstrates a high level of consistency between the empirical data and the theoretical framework. This level of fit exceeds the threshold of 0.36, which is commonly interpreted as the cutoff for a large or strong model fit. Therefore, it can be concluded that the model used in this study is both well-specified and robust in explaining the variance in the observed variables.

After evaluating the validity, reliability, and knowing the results of goodness of fit, the next step is to evaluate the hypothesis. The results of the hypothesis testing of this research are based on the significance value or Tstatistic value. The variable used can be said to be significant if the significance value of >1.96 at the significance level (p-values) is less than 5%. This means that there is an influence between variables and hypotheses are acceptable. Ghazali (2015) revealed that in hypothesis testing, three conditions are needed that must be met to show the full mediation effect in the research, including the following:

1. There is a significant relationship between independent and dependent variables.
2. There is a significant relationship between two independent and dependent variables.

Table 6

Hypothesis Test

Path	Coefficient Value	T statistics	P values	Information	Conclusion
<i>Servant Leadership -> Organizational Performance</i>	0.347	4.579	0.000	Significant	H1 accepted
<i>Women's Leadership -> Organizational Performance</i>	0.358	3.569	0.000	Significant	H3 accepted
<i>Servant Leadership → Women's → Leadership Organization Performance</i>	0,425	3.032	0.000	Significant	H4 accepted

Based on Table 6, the t-statistical value >1.96 or p-value <0.05 . Thus, the results of the hypothesis test of the direct influence on this study can be explained as follows:

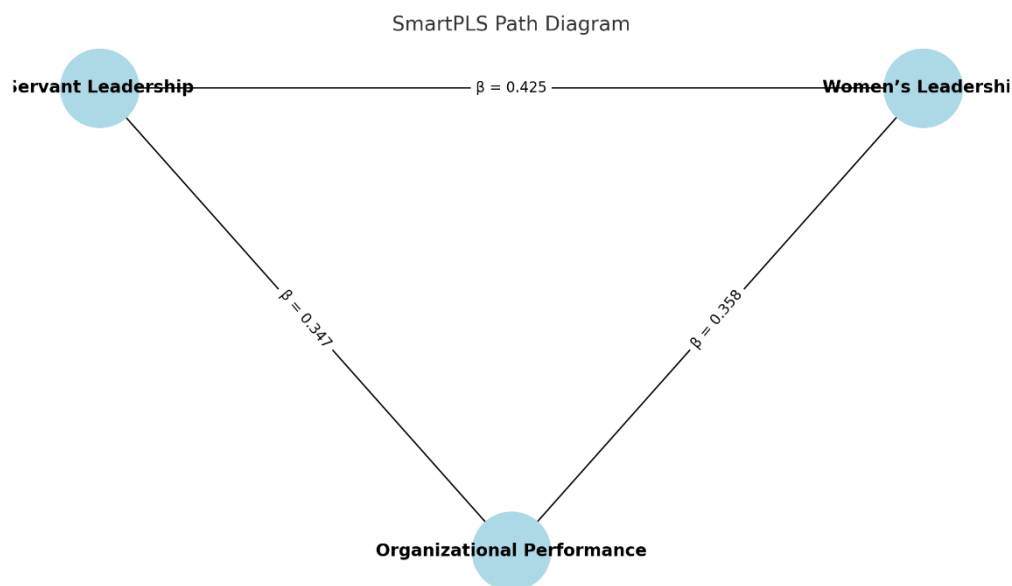
1. The t-statistical value between the servant leadership variable and organizational performance was 4.579; the p-value was 0.00; and the coefficient value was 0.347. Because the t-statistical value >1.96 or p-value <0.05 , it can be concluded that there is a (positive) and significant influence between the servant leadership variable and organizational performance.
2. The t-statistical value between the female leadership variable and organizational performance was 3,569;

p-value is 0.000; and the coefficient value is 0.358. Because the t-statistical value >1.96 or p-value <0.05 , it can be concluded that there is a positive and significant influence between the female leadership variable and organizational performance.

The t-statistical value >1.96 or p-value <0.05 , and the coefficient value of 0.425 between the variables of servant leadership and women's leadership on organizational performance. Thus, it can be concluded that the variables of servant leadership and women's leadership have a positive and significant influence on organizational performance (Figure 3).

Figure 3

Final Model of the Study



Discussion and Conclusion

Leadership in legal institutions represents a complex interplay between hierarchical structures, legal mandates, and interpersonal dynamics (Tua et al., 2014). In highly formalized environments such as Indonesia's High Prosecutor's Office, leadership is not merely a

function of rank or authority but a construct that evolves through cultural norms, institutional expectations, and relational practice (Slack et al., 2020). The role of leadership in these environments extends beyond task delegation into realms of ethical stewardship, trust-building, and psychological safety, making it an essential factor in institutional cohesion and public legitimacy

(Turner, 2015). Understanding leadership through this multidimensional lens is critical when analyzing its effectiveness and relevance within public legal systems that are often resistant to change (Setiawan, 2019).

Leadership discourse within bureaucratic systems has traditionally been dominated by top-down models characterized by command, compliance, and administrative rigidity (Richard et al., 2009). However, these models often fail to address the humanistic and moral responsibilities of leaders in contexts where institutional trust is fragile and public accountability is paramount (Richard et al., 2004). Alternative frameworks such as servant leadership offer a counter-narrative to this conventional paradigm (van Dierendonck, 2011). Servant leadership challenges traditional power hierarchies by centering the needs of subordinates, promoting empathy, and encouraging participatory engagement. This paradigm shift can reorient the cultural fabric of legal institutions by fostering inclusive decision-making and reinforcing ethical professionalism (Prastio et al., 2021).

Cultural dimensions profoundly shape how leadership is interpreted, enacted, and received. In Indonesia, a country marked by regional and cultural diversity, leadership expectations are mediated by social norms related to age, gender, authority, and collectivism (Phipps, 2010). Legal institutions, as extensions of state authority, often reflect broader societal values. In many regions, these values are rooted in patriarchal ideologies that influence how leadership roles are distributed and judged (Firmansyah & Fakhrudin, 2024). This dynamic complicates the operationalization of leadership approaches that rely on relational and egalitarian values, particularly when female leaders challenge traditionally masculine codes of authority (Pettigrew, 1992).

The intersection of gender and leadership in public institutions must be viewed through a culturally situated lens (Jafar et al., 2024). Women leaders in the legal sector often face the dual burden of professional expectations and gender role stereotypes (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2005). Their leadership may be evaluated not solely on performance but also on their ability to conform to or resist dominant gender norms (Liden et al., 2008). The tension between professionalism and femininity, assertiveness and empathy, creates a space where female leadership becomes both a site of innovation and vulnerability (Abbas et al., 2023). These

tensions are magnified in conservative bureaucracies, where structural and symbolic barriers persist despite formal policies promoting gender equity (Kaplan & Norton, 1996).

Regional differences within Indonesia also contribute to the heterogeneity of leadership experiences. In matrilineal societies such as the Minangkabau in West Sumatra, female leadership may be culturally normalized and publicly embraced (Hurley & Hult, 1998). In contrast, in more patriarchal regions such as parts of Java or eastern Indonesia, women in authority may face skepticism, marginalization, or symbolic exclusion (Irpan et al., 2022). These cultural variations affect not only the visibility of women leaders but also the internal dynamics of their leadership practice, including how authority is exercised, trust is negotiated, and dissent is managed within teams (Hartono, 2021).

The integration of gender-sensitive leadership with ethical and humanistic values presents both opportunities and contradictions (Akhilele, 2023). While servant leadership emphasizes empathy and relational depth, these very traits are often gendered in societal perception (Hartono, 2021). Women who demonstrate servant-like traits may be praised for their emotional intelligence but criticized for lacking assertiveness (Harter et al., 2002). Men, on the other hand, may receive accolades for adopting the same behaviors under the guise of transformational or visionary leadership (Fadli et al., 2022). This gendered double standard highlights the necessity of critically interrogating how leadership behaviors are socially constructed and differently rewarded (Harini, 2019).

Legal institutions carry unique pressures that influence leadership behaviors, including high-stakes decision-making, procedural constraints, and political scrutiny (Greenleaf, 2019). These pressures can suppress relational leadership tendencies in favor of performance metrics, efficiency mandates, and legal compliance (Appelbaum et al., 2003). Leaders who wish to prioritize ethical and inclusive practices must navigate institutional tensions between short-term productivity and long-term cultural transformation (Greenleaf, 1977). The bureaucratic context also discourages vulnerability and reflection, qualities often associated with emotionally intelligent leadership, thus making the practice of servant or collaborative leadership more difficult to sustain.

Organizational cultures within legal settings are deeply influenced by the historical role of law enforcement in maintaining state authority. As such, legal professionals are often socialized into hierarchical norms and procedural orthodoxy (Gah & Syam, 2022). Challenging these norms through alternative leadership approaches requires not only individual transformation but also structural accommodation (Farrington & Lillah, 2022). Without supportive institutional infrastructure, even the most competent and visionary leaders may find their efforts diluted or undermined by resistance from peers, subordinates, or upper management (Farrington & Lillah, 2019).

Leadership in prosecutorial institutions is also influenced by the symbolic dimension of authority (Eva et al., 2019). Legal leaders are expected to embody both technical expertise and moral clarity. This expectation creates a paradox when leaders adopt non-traditional approaches that deviate from authoritative or punitive norms (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Relational and service-oriented leadership may be interpreted as weakness in environments that valorize decisiveness and command (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Bridging this perception gap requires a reconceptualization of leadership legitimacy that includes emotional labor, collaborative negotiation, and reflective practice as core components of effective institutional leadership (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

Understanding leadership in legal institutions, particularly within the Indonesian context, necessitates a multilayered analysis that accounts for structural, cultural, and interpersonal variables (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Leadership effectiveness cannot be assessed solely through output metrics or hierarchical status but must be grounded in the leader's ability to navigate complexity, embody ethical values, and foster inclusive organizational climates (Eagly & Carli, 2003). The challenge lies in developing frameworks that honor cultural specificity while promoting leadership models that prioritize dignity, equity, and service over dominance and control (Amiati & Yendra, 2020). Such frameworks must be flexible enough to accommodate regional diversity yet robust enough to uphold a consistent commitment to justice-oriented leadership (Daft, 2016).

This study revealed that servant leadership and women's leadership significantly influence

organizational performance in the High Prosecutor's Office. Servant leadership was shown to have a positive and statistically significant effect on organizational performance, with a t-statistic value of 4.579, a p-value of 0.000, and a path coefficient of 0.374. These results indicate that the stronger the implementation of servant leadership principles—such as empathy, empowerment, and service orientation—the better the organizational performance achieved by the institution. Women's leadership was also shown to contribute significantly to organizational performance, supported by a t-statistic value of 3.569, a p-value of 0.000, and a coefficient of 0.3578. This highlights how the collaborative, inclusive, and emotionally intelligent leadership style typically exhibited by female leaders can enhance internal motivation, job satisfaction, and team commitment. The interaction between servant leadership and women's leadership also demonstrated a positive impact on performance, with supporting statistical significance, suggesting that their integration creates a synergistic effect in improving organizational outcomes. These findings confirm that adopting a leadership model that incorporates both servant and gender-responsive principles is a strategic approach to increasing institutional effectiveness within the prosecutorial system. Forward-looking efforts should therefore focus on institutionalizing these leadership styles through structured leadership development initiatives, including mentoring programs, gender-responsive capacity-building, and continuous leadership training tailored to the context of public legal institutions.

This study has several limitations that should be acknowledged for proper interpretation of its findings. The research employed a cross-sectional design, which captures relationships between variables at a single point in time. As such, it cannot provide insight into causal directions or changes in leadership impact over time. The absence of longitudinal data limits the ability to assess whether the influence of servant leadership and women's leadership on organizational performance is sustained, evolves, or fluctuates in the long term. Furthermore, the institutional focus of this study is confined to the High Prosecutor's Office, which restricts the generalizability of findings across other public sector organizations or institutions with different structural, cultural, or operational contexts.

Cultural specificity presents another important limitation. The expression and reception of women's leadership in Indonesia, particularly in public legal institutions, is heavily influenced by sociocultural norms and gender roles that vary across regions. In certain areas, deeply rooted patriarchal values may affect how female leaders are perceived and how their leadership practices are implemented and interpreted by subordinates. These cultural dynamics may moderate the impact of leadership styles on organizational outcomes but were not explicitly addressed in the current study. Additionally, regional variation in leadership expression—such as the influence of Javanese hierarchical traditions or matrilineal values in parts of Sumatra—may also shape how servant or inclusive leadership manifests in practice.

The use of self-report measures via structured questionnaires introduces the potential for social desirability bias and common method bias, which can affect the validity of the results despite procedural and statistical controls. Respondents' subjective interpretations of leadership behaviors may also reflect personal or cultural biases that are not easily disentangled through quantitative analysis alone. The study did not include qualitative insights that could enrich understanding of how leadership is experienced and enacted within specific cultural and institutional settings.

Future research is encouraged to adopt a longitudinal design to capture temporal dynamics and long-term impacts of leadership practices on organizational performance. A mixed-methods approach may also provide deeper contextual understanding by combining statistical analysis with qualitative insights from interviews, observations, or document analysis. Further studies should also examine leadership in diverse regional and institutional contexts, particularly in relation to cultural constructions of gender, authority, and professionalism within Indonesia's public sector. These directions would enhance the explanatory power and applicability of leadership research in complex sociocultural environments.

Acknowledgments

The authors express their gratitude and appreciation to all participants.

Declaration of Interest

The authors of this article declared no conflict of interest.

Ethical Considerations

The study protocol adhered to the principles outlined in the Helsinki Declaration, which provides guidelines for ethical research involving human participants. Ethical considerations in this study were that participation was entirely optional.

Transparency of Data

In accordance with the principles of transparency and open research, we declare that all data and materials used in this study are available upon request.

Funding

This research was carried out independently with personal funding and without the financial support of any governmental or private institution or organization.

Authors' Contributions

All authors equally contribute to this study.

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