Servant Leadership and Passive Leadership: A Comparison of the Effects of Two Non-heroic Leadership Styles on Engagement, Burnout, and Performance

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Abstract

Leadership is a phenomenon that has fascinated the academic and corporate communities for decades. Its definition has evolved significantly over time and in recent decades it has become understood that there are many different leadership styles at play within the workplace. Typically, research has been focused on active or 'heroic' forms of leadership, primarily positive in nature. However, recently there has been a shift towards looking at 'non-heroic' leadership styles as well as an increasing interest in destructive leadership styles.

The present study looks at two distinct leadership styles; one positive in nature (servant leadership) and one negative in nature (passive leadership). This thesis examines the impact that these leadership styles have upon the work outcomes engagement, burnout, and performance over time. It was proposed that servant leadership would be positively related with engagement, and performance and negatively correlated with burnout at Time 1 and Time 2. Conversely, it was proposed that passive leadership would be negatively related with engagement, wellbeing, and performance and positively related with burnout at Time 1 and Time 2. It was also expected that these relationships would persist over time.

697 participants responded to the questionnaires administered at Time 1 with 331 responses to the same questionnaire administered four weeks later at Time 2 yielding a response rate of 47.5%. Following this, relationships between servant and passive leadership and the outcomes of engagement, burnout, wellbeing, and performance were investigated using a Pearson's *r* correlation, and regression analysis at Time 1 and Time 2. T tests were also carried out to test whether these relationships were stronger at Time 2 than Time 1 as post hoc analysis.

Findings suggest that servant leadership has a positive relationship with engagement, and a negative relationship with burnout and that these relationships persist over time. The relationship between servant leadership and performance was only significant at Time 1. A

regression analysis revealed that servant leadership is a positive predictor of engagement and a negative predictor of burnout but not a significant predictor of performance. These findings confirm that servant leadership is a 'good' leadership style and that although a servant leader's behaviours may not be observed, the positive effect upon employees is instrumental to organisational success.

A negative relationship was revealed between passive leadership and engagement, and burnout. These relationships persisted over time. However, the relationship between passive leadership and performance was insignificant at both Time 1 and Time 2. A regression analysis revealed that passive leadership is a negative predictor of engagement and a positive predictor of burnout but not a significant predictor of performance. These findings suggest that passive leadership is a 'bad' or destructive leadership style with detrimental implications for both employees and organisations.

Post hoc analysis revealed that servant leadership had greater statistically significant impact on engagement, than passive leadership did at both Time 1 and Time 2, whereas passive leadership had a more significant impact on burnout than servant leadership at Time 1 and Time 2. Furthermore, neither servant nor passive leadership was found to have a stronger influence on performance.

These results present important implications for leadership theory as it reveals that leadership behaviours do not necessarily need to be heroic and active or manifest in order to evoke change in followers' behaviours. Both 'good' leadership and 'bad' leadership of non-heroic nature impacts work outcomes albeit differentially. This research highlights a need to recognise 'good' and 'bad' leadership behaviours that currently go unnoticed. If left unaddressed, the cost to both employees and organisations is huge.

This study is the first of its kind to compare the effects of two non-heroic leadership styles and addresses a unique gap in the literature. Furthermore, this study contributes to the

growing body of literature by exploring the longitudinal relationship between two leadership styles and the work outcomes of engagement, burnout, and performance which have previously received little attention.

Future research should focus on continuing to explore non-heroic forms of leadership such as servant and passive leadership as this thesis highlights how behaviours or lack thereof can have significant effects on both employees and organisations.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Leadership is a phenomenon that has fascinated those within the corporate, academic, and social arenas for decades (Northouse, 2018). The body of literature that exists is vast and the facets of what make a 'good' leader are receiving increasing attention (Northouse, 2018). However, defining 'leadership' is a complex task attempted by many (Stogdill, 1974). Those who have attempted to do so have conceptualised the phenomena as a personality trait, an influence process, a position, behaviours, an instrument used to achieve certain goals, and as a result of interpersonal interactions. Early attempts described leadership as a form of control to elicit obedience from followers (Moore, 1927), with the main goal of leadership being that it must be effective by eliciting high performance and fulfilment of organisational goals (Northouse, 2018). In later attempts the focus switched to leadership as a process, one in which the leader influences the behaviours of their followers (Northouse, 2018; Rost, 1991). Leadership has been around since the age of Aristotle, and its definition continues to evolve (Northouse, 2018).

To define leadership specifically; it can be understood as the process (act) of influencing (motivating and engaging) followers to achieve a common goal (Stogdill, 1950). There are numerous iterations of this definition some of which include, "Leadership is the process of influencing others to achieve organizational goals" (Bartol & Martin, 1994, p. 408) and leadership is "the ability to influence a group toward achievement of goals" (Zaleznik, 1989). However, despite the vast and growing body of literature on the need for 'good' leadership; what it is (explained below), coupled with the growth in literature attempting to understand destructive or 'bad' leadership (again explained below), as well as implications; studies comparing the impacts of 'good' and 'bad' are few and far between.

Furthermore, this issue is complex due to the common perception of what leadership actually is. Many people confuse leadership with hierarchy, and until recently most research centred around the 'leader' and their influence style and characteristics – 'good' versus 'bad'. Predominantly, the focus of the literature has been on the leader as the 'hero'; individuals in a position of power or authority at the forefront of change (Higgs, 2009). Leaders are placed up on a pedestal and viewed as superiors with clear (hierarchical) division between leaders and followers. This 'heroic' perception of leadership has dominated leadership literature for some time and continues to hold influence. However, viewing leadership from a heroic and 'leader-centric' standpoint is limiting to our understanding of the phenomena and the resulting, conflicting findings (Higgs, 2009).

Again however, the landscape has changed. For example, recent growth in literature around leadership no longer focuses on the leader as a hero, nor does it focus on the leader's characteristics. Rather it is driven by 'follower' needs and perceptions and has come to be known as post heroic leadership (Higgs, 2009). It is not necessarily heroic, or leader centred. Two forms of this exist; one 'good' (servant leadership) and one 'bad' (passive leadership). Both of which are discussed further below. Servant leadership (a positive leadership style) is an active form of leadership in which the leader '*serves first*' (Greenleaf, 1970/1991, 1972/2009; Northouse, 2018) (a more comprehensive explanation is provided below). There are also destructive leadership styles considered to be non-heroic in nature. One leadership style which is growing in interest is passive leadership, typically described as the lack of leadership and involvement on the part of the leader characterised by a leader's tendency not to act (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2009; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Kelloway, Mullen, & Francis, 2006) (explained in depth below). There is limited information on non-heroic leadership – both good and bad – and much of this research is cross-sectional.

Drawing on existing literature, this thesis aims to examine the work and wellbeing outcomes for employees of two forms of 'non-heroic' leadership. One positive (servant leadership) and one destructive (passive leadership). In doing so this thesis hopes to unpack employee perceptions of both positive and negative leadership styles, which are similar in their non-heroic nature yet distinctly different in their supportive nature. Where servant leaders provide active support, passive leaders provide little to no support. First, this thesis will elaborate on positive leadership and describe the theoretical underpinnings of servant leadership with a summary of existing research regarding outcomes associated with the leadership style. Second this thesis will elaborate on destructive leadership and describe the theoretical underpinnings of passive leadership with a summary of existing research regarding outcomes associated with the leadership style. This literature will be used alongside the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R model) in relation to the job outcomes engagement, burnout, and performance in the crafting and justification of the hypotheses of the present study.

Positive Leadership - Servant Leadership

Positive leadership has a wide range of theories that support the importance of leader's positive behaviour. The paradigm shift away from traditional leadership approaches towards what is now understood as positive leadership began in the late 1970s (cf. Avolio & Gardner, 2005). This began with Burns (1978) introduction of transformational leadership to delineate an idealised relationship between political leaders and their followers. This was then adapted and developed by Bass (1985) to be applied within organisational contexts and became understood as "a leaders ability to achieve follower performance beyond ordinary limits" (p. xiii).

Recently there has been an increasing demand for leadership to not only be effective, but also ethical. Essentially this means that leadership must have good intentions and be driven by a sense of morality; it must be a positive experience for followers and is what is termed 'good' leadership (Ciulla, 1999). This explosion of research into positive leadership came following a number of high-powered corporate scandals that were extremely public (Enron, WorldCom, Tyco) (Higgs, 2009; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2016). This was due to a growing common perception that the cause of these scandals could be attributed to the unethical leadership behaviours practiced by senior leaders within these organisations (Woods & West, 2010). As a leader's directives and behaviours influence follower behaviours and well-being at work (Schmid, Pircher Verdorfer, & Peus, 2018), a leader's ability to be both effective and ethical is critical. Hoch et al. (2016) suggest that positive leadership styles are determined by their focus on both leader behaviours and interpersonal dynamics which increase followers' confidence as a result in positive outcomes beyond task compliance. For example; motivating followers to go beyond expectations, prosocial behaviours, and positive self-development (Hoch et al., 2016).

Of the various positive leadership theories that emphasize moral and ethical behaviours, Ethical, Authentic, and Servant leadership dominate the literature (Hoch et al., 2016). Ethical leadership, defined by Brown, Treviño, and Harrison (2005) is "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision making" (p. 120). Authentic leadership is also rooted in morality, and described as individuals who are "deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths" (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004, p. 802). Servant leadership (outlined below) is also grounded in ethics, focussing on serving followers first. Like ethical leadership,

servant leadership bears similarities in the sense that they both have a strong disposition to care for other people, and place high value on integrity, and trustworthiness. However, servant leaders place more importance on the development of followers than ethical leaders who emphasize more directive and normative behaviours (van Dierendonck, 2010).

Whilst these leadership theories are similar in nature, an extensive meta-analysis conducted by Hoch et al. (2016) revealed that although these three leadership styles do have some similarities, servant leadership is conceptually and empirically distinct. Servant leadership was also found to be more capable of explaining a wide range of outcomes.

Servant Leadership

The term 'servant' leadership is fundamentally misleading and inconsistent with the traditional perception of leadership outlined earlier. Leaders are supposed to be 'in charge' and in a position of authority or control (Northouse, 2018); typically, one would naturally associate the role of the King with a leader as opposed to a servant. This is because servants typically 'follow' the 'influence' of the leader (Northouse, 2018; van Dierendonck, 2010) therefore contradicting common perceptions of leadership. Nonetheless, Greenleaf (1970) proposed a form of leadership uniquely 'servant' like in nature. Throughout the body of literature his original definition of servant leadership has been used to illustrate its basic nature;

> "[servant leadership] begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. . . The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant – first to make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served. The best test… is: do those served grow as persons; do they, *while being served*, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants? *And,* what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or at least not be further deprived?" (p. 15).

To clarify this leadership style further, servant leaders typically care for their followers' interests before their own (Greenleaf, 1970; Northouse, 2018) and are morally and ethically driven in this endeavour. As leaders, they acknowledge the moral responsibility they have not only to the success of the organisation and the organisations stakeholders but to their subordinates (Ehrhart, 2004). Over recent decades the theory and operational definition of servant leadership has been reinvented and redefined by many researchers (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2016) however, no firm agreement has been reached.

For example, Spears (2002) identified ten characteristics of servant leadership within Greenleaf's writing. Originally these dimensions included: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community (Northouse, 2018; van Dierendonck, 2010).

van Dierendonck (2010) compares existing models of servant leadership and has identified six key characteristics of this leadership approach which they propose be used to operationally define servant leadership. These include empowering and developing people, humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, providing direction, and stewardship (van Dierendonck, 2010). There have also been numerous attempts to develop a measure of servant leadership (Barbuto Jr & Wheeler, 2006; Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Ehrhart, 2004; Laub, 1999; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Page & Wong, 2000; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). The measure developed by Ehrhart (2004) (used in the current study) came following an extensive review of existing servant leadership literature identifying seven critical leader behaviours, characterized by two hallmarks of servant leadership (ethical behaviour and prioritization of subordinates' concerns): forming relationships with subordinates, helping subordinates grow and succeed, empowering subordinates, putting subordinates first, having conceptual skills, behaving ethically, and creating value for those outside of the organization (Ehrhart, 1998).

Outcomes of servant leadership. Given that positive leadership was developed and evolved in order to incite ethical and positive outcomes for followers and organisations it makes sense that existing research confirms a positive relationship between positive leadership styles and positive work outcomes such as engagement and job satisfaction (Hoch et al., 2016). The original intended goals of servant leadership as outlined in Greenleaf (1970) initial work touts the growth of the followers, organisational performance, and the consequent positive impact upon society at large as a result of these (Northouse, 2018). Whilst emerging, the findings are promising, suggesting positive outcomes on employee engagement, job satisfaction (Chan & Mak, 2014; Hunter, Neubert, et al., 2013), and job boredom (Harju, Schaufeli, & Hakanen, 2018),

Studies have also found that servant leadership has a negative relationship with work outcomes such as reduced levels of burnout (Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2010). This is confirmed by Rivkin et al (2014) who found that servant leadership both relates to day level fluctuations in indicators of strain as well as contributes to additional variance in long-term indicators of strain (emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation) over and above job ambiguity.

Further studies investigating servant leadership and work related outcomes have revealed that this emerging leadership style has a positive impact on task performance (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Meuser, Liden, Wayne, & Henderson, 2011), organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB's), innovative behaviours, (Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne, & Cao, 2014; Zhao, Liu, & Gao, 2016) knowledge sharing, (Song, Park, & Kang, 2015) helping behaviours, creativity (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008b) and fulfilment of job descriptions. Meuser et al. (2011) suggest that employees under servant leadership are more likely to fulfil their job description and perform tasks to a higher standard. Jaramillo,

Grisaffe, Chonko, and Roberts (2009) also found a correlation of .24 between servant leadership and self-reported performance.

Servant leadership has been positively linked to OCB's (Northouse, 2018) with Chiniara and Bentein (2016) arguing that when a leader focusses on the needs to autonomy competences and relatedness as functions of servant leadership, there is a positive impact on follower task performance, OCB's towards specific individuals (OCB-I), and organisational citizenship behaviours that benefit the organization (OCB-O). Servant leadership is suggested to create a cooperative environment which increases individual's proclivity to help each other out, and thus engage in OCB's (Ehrhart, 2004; Hunter et al., 2013; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008a; Wu, Tse, Fu, Kwan, & Liu, 2013). Graham (1995) further argues that this positive relationship exists with OCB's because servant leadership inspires followers to pursue higher levels of moral reasoning. This was supported by Ng, Koh, and Goh (2008) who found that followers who operated under the leadership of an individual whose motivation was to serve first, exhibited more helping OCB's than under a leader whose motivation was not to serve first. Panaccio et al. (2014) also found that psychological contract fulfilment mediated the relationship between servant leadership and initiative and loyal boosterism forms of OCB's. Zhao et al. (2016) investigated a similar relationship finding that servant leadership elicits followers' identification with the leader and subsequently reduces follower's supervisor-specific avoidance helping to strengthen the follower's identification with the organisation thereby increasing follower OCB's. Zhao et al. (2016) also found that this also reduced turnover intentions.

Impact of servant leadership over time. As mentioned earlier, longitudinal studies are rare however existing studies show support for the positive impact of servant leadership on follower outcomes over time. The relationship between servant leadership and *job boredom* was explored longitudinally by Harju et al. (2018) who examined how job crafting at Time 2

mediated the cross-level effect of team level servant leadership at Time 1 on job boredom measured at Time 2. Their findings suggest that job crafting, and servant leadership may complement each other in promoting well-being and thus diminishing job boredom. These findings show promise for finding a relationship between servant leadership and outcomes longitudinally.

Building on existing research examining servant leadership and OCB's Wu et al. (2013) found that the relationship between servant leadership and customer OCB's as a direct result of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) were positive and findings were stronger over time. A positive relationship has also been found between servant leadership and both helping and creative behaviours (Neubert et al., 2008b), and knowledge sharing (Song et al., 2015) over time.

The findings outlined above reinforce the theory that servant leadership is a positive form of leadership with positive outcomes for both organisations and employees and further reinforce that these relationships persist over time. The present study investigates the relationship between servant leadership and work outcomes for employees over time, specifically focussing on engagement, burnout and performance. These constructs will be explained further below in alignment with the hypotheses summarised on pages 29-31.

Destructive leadership

Whilst the research regarding leadership is extensive, as suggested above it predominantly focusses on constructive and positive forms of leadership and the consequent outcomes. There is much sparser research on the dark side of leadership and the destructive forms that it takes. However, it is becoming an increasingly popular area of interest. Destructive leadership is defined as the systematic, repeated behaviours that undermine the

effectiveness and/or motivations, well-being, and job satisfaction of subordinates as well as undermining organisational goals, tasks and resources (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007). Most research describing destructive leaders focuses on the actively destructive behaviours manifested as opposed to passive and indirect behaviours (Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007). These active behaviours are usually aggressive and abusive in nature and can include belittling followers, discouragement, self-aggrandizement, yelling, name calling, ridiculing, threatening job loss to name a few (Skogstad et al., 2007). As these behaviours are overt, they are more easily observed by followers.

Furthermore, Buss (1961) argues that aggressive leadership behaviours do not necessarily need to be active and manifest to be destructive and describes aggressive work behaviours across three principal axes: active versus passive, physical versus verbal, and direct versus indirect aggression. Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that passive behaviours such as a leader's lack of initiative, and inaction can have deleterious effects on follower's job satisfaction and efficiency (Frischer & Larsson, 2000). More scholars are beginning to include passive leadership as a destructive leadership behaviour (Aasland et al., 2009; Skogstad et al., 2007). One such study is that of Aasland et al. (2009) who investigated the prevalence of destructive leadership behaviours, including passive leadership finding that it was the most prevalent destructive leadership style. Passive leadership will be discussed in further detail in the section below.

Passive Leadership

Passive leadership is a broad term that can be interpreted in a number of ways. The term evolved out of research conducted on laissez-faire leadership and management by exception (active and passive) stemming from research regarding these types of passive leadership styles

within the full-range leadership theory/model (FRLT), one of the most prominent and influential leadership frameworks to date (Holtz & Hu, 2017) developed by Avolio and Bass (1991). Although difficult to identify overtly, passive leadership behaviours are extremely common and include a lack of communication, failing to model appropriate workplace behaviour, neglecting workplace problems, avoiding decisions (Holtz & Hu, 2017), lack of physical presence, lack of punishment and reward (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Holtz & Hu, 2017), and not stepping in when conflicts arise within the workplace (Dóci, Stouten, & Hofmans, 2015; Glambek, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2018). Furthermore, passive leaders abdicate responsibility, provide no feedback, and make little to no effort to help followers and subordinates satisfy their needs, with little attempt to help followers with personal and professional growth (Dóci et al., 2015).

Passive leadership includes a complete lack or absence of leadership behaviours. More specifically, the "avoidance of taking leadership responsibilities, decisions, and actions, even in dire circumstances." (Dóci et al., 2015, p. 2). Passive leadership can also imply the absence of leadership. In relation to its origins, the French phrase *laissez-faire*, '*let do'* suggests the leader takes a '*hands-off, let-things-ride*' approach (Northouse, 2018). A more specific definition by Bass and Avolio (1994, p. 4) explains laissez-faire leadership as ''. . . the avoidance or absence of leadership and is, by definition, the most inactive – as well as the most ineffective [leadership style]'' and it has been further characterized as 'non' leadership, 'absent' leadership, 'zero' leadership, and 'passive' leadership (Skogstad et al., 2014).

Employee exposure to passive leadership is not rare (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2010; Barling & Frone, 2017; Holtz & Hu, 2017). In fact, it is one of the more common styles of leadership that employees are exposed to according to Aasland et al. (2010). Aasland et al. (2010) revealed that 20 percent of employees are frequently exposed to passive leaders. Despite its prevalence, passive leadership has received considerably less

attention in literature than other leadership styles (Holtz & Hu, 2017; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). This thesis hopes to contribute to the growing body of literature on passive leadership.

Outcomes of passive leadership. Destructive leadership earnt its name primarily due to the negative, harmful and destructive effects that leadership styles nestled under this umbrella have on organisations and its followers. There has been a recent rise in the interest of destructive leadership styles, their effects and the number of empirical studies. Of the existing literature regarding passive leadership, the effects of this type of leadership have been found to be predominantly negative (Barling & Frone, 2017; Glambek et al., 2018; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008) specifically in relation to employee work motivation (Hetland & Sandal, 2003), engagement, (Glambek et al., 2018), job satisfaction (Bogler, Caspi, & Roccas, 2013) and performance (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

Furthermore, passive leadership has also been linked to increases in role ambiguity, role conflict, (Skogstad et al., 2007), role overload (Chênevert, Vandenberghe, Doucet, & Ben Ayed, 2013), higher levels of employee burnout, increases in emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation, decreases in personal accomplishment Kanste (2008), negatively impacting an employees work environment, employee mental health, and overall work attitude (Barling & Frone, 2017).

The relationship between passive leadership and employee perceptions and attitudes of health and safety has also been explored (Kelloway et al., 2006; Mullen, Kelloway, & Teed, 2011). Kelloway et al. (2006) found that passive leadership characteristics were associated with a higher number of safety related events as well as higher injury incidence. Additionally, they found that safety specific passive leadership characteristics have a negative effect on safety consciousness as well as safety climate. These findings were confirmed by Mullen et al. (2011) who found passive leadership reduced safety compliance and participation.

Passive leadership has also been found to represent a condition which allows bullying behaviours in the workplace to persist over time (Glambek et al., 2018). Passive leaders do not reward or punish followers for certain behaviours. Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008) found that omission of both reward and punishment negatively relates to employee satisfaction with supervision, and role clarity.

Impact of passive leadership over time. As alluded to earlier, longitudinal studies on the effects of passive leadership are scarce, however the existing empirical evidence suggests that the relationship between the elusive leadership style and work-related outcomes are similar in nature to existing cross-sectional studies. Similar to the findings mentioned above the negative relationship between passive leadership and role ambiguity over time is also supported by Anders Skogstad, Hetland, Glasø, and Einarsen (2014) who measured the relationship across three time points. Furthermore, Chênevert et al. (2013) also found passive leadership to be negatively related to long-term affective commitment. In addition to these findings, they also revealed passive leadership to be more strongly related to role conflict when role overload was high.

Passive leadership has also been linked to lower levels of trust (Holtz & Hu, 2017). Moreover, they discovered that trust mediated the relationship between passive leadership and perceived justice within the workplace. It has been established that those who are not trusted by others typically demonstrate a level of incompetence and ineffectiveness in carrying out their job responsibilities (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; McAllister, 1995; McEvily & Tortoriello, 2011). Lower levels of trust have been linked to decreased job satisfaction, job performance, OCB's, commitment, and increased turnover intentions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Holtz & Hu, 2017).

Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio, and Jung (2002) investigated the relationship between passive leadership and group potency finding a negative relationship at Time 2

meaning that group potency was weaker; when some groups are left alone, they become less effective over time. Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) also found passive leadership to be associated with work of low quality and quantity, which is likely influenced by lack of punishment and reward regardless of their outputs.

The findings outlined above suggest that passive leadership is a destructive form of leadership due to the detrimental effects to both organisations and employees. Given the argument that with regard to interpersonal relationships 'bad is stronger than good' (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001) it is important to investigate the effects of a destructive leadership style such as passive leadership. As whilst it is good to focus on 'good' leadership, this may not be enough to combat 'bad' leadership.

The present study investigates the relationship between passive leadership and work outcomes for employees over time, with a specific focus on engagement, burnout and performance. As mentioned above, these constructs will be explained further below in relation to the current study's hypotheses.

Job-Demands Resources (JD-R) Model

Leadership can be understood as a job resource or job demand within the Job Demand-Resources Model (JD-R model) depending on whether it is 'good' or 'bad' leadership. The JD-R model suggests that job demands, and job resources interact together working to increase or reduce job strain and motivation. Job demands refer to "physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs." (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). Comparatively, job resources refer to physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are functional in

helping to achieve work goals, reduce job demands and subsequent physical and psychological effects, and/or stimulate personal growth, learning and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Within the JD-R model 'support' (either from a supervisor or colleague) is regarded as a job resource. Job resources can be situated within interpersonal and social relationships in the form of support from a supervisor, and/or colleagues, as well as team climate. Central to this study is the support (or lack thereof) followers receive from one's supervisor. Support from a supervisor both emotionally and via adequate feedback increases the likelihood of followers fulfilling tasks and achieving work related goals. Furthermore, the presence of job resources leads to engagement. Absence of such support can also evoke a cynical attitude towards work. Additionally, social support has been proposed as one of the most well-regarded situational variables to buffer the effects of job strain (Haines, Hurlbert, & Zimmer, 1991; Johnson & Hall, 1988). Having a high-quality relationship with one's supervisor (leader) may mitigate the effects of job demands on job strain due to the nature of the leaders support changing how job demands are perceived. The supportive nature of a leader may improve followers' ability to cope better with job demands, protect against ill health and facilitate performance (Väänänen et al., 2003). Furthermore, social support protects followers against the consequences of stressful experiences (Cohen & Wills, 1985) as well as alleviating the effect of overload on job strain. Constructive feedback is one aspect of supervisor support, which helps reduce role ambiguity, allows followers the ability to complete work tasks more effectively, and improves communication between supervisors and followers. When leaders provide specific, accurate, and constructive feedback it allows both leaders and followers to alter their performance. Appraising good performance ensures that followers' motivation is maintained and that their performance continues in a positive direction (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Discussing bad performance in a positive light also affords followers the opportunity to improve their

performance as well as preventing work problems whereas a lack of support is likely to have the opposite impact.

Furthermore, it is important to note that 'bad' leadership is also considered a job demand in its own right. Given that leadership is associated with psychological, and social aspects of a job, when 'bad' leadership is exhibited, employees are required to employ sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort and/or skills in order to cope.

Servant and passive leadership differ significantly in the type and amount of support they provide, or demands they make, of and for, followers. Servant leadership is inherently supportive in nature, with leaders providing extensive feedback as well as emotional and psychological support. Alternatively, passive leadership is characterized by its lack of support, as well as lack of sufficient feedback. Furthermore, 'bad' leadership is considered a job demand. As outlined above, existing research places passive leadership under the umbrella of 'bad' leadership. The existing JD-R model currently excludes passive behaviours. Given the recent inclusion of passive leadership as a destructive leadership style and the negative outcomes of passive leadership discussed above, there is a plausible argument to adapt the current JD-R model to include such passive behaviours. The theoretical underpinnings of the JD-R model in relation to supervisor support as a job resource and 'bad' leadership as a job demand have helped to shape the hypotheses regarding these two non-heroic leadership styles and the work outcomes engagement, burnout and performance expanded on below.

Hypothesis Development

Engagement. Engagement at work has been a focus of research for some time and is defined by (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that

is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption... [and] refers to a persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focussed on any particular object, event, individual, or behaviour." (p. 295). Vigour involves an individual experiencing high levels of energy displaying mental resilience, persistence, and a willingness to invest in work related tasks. Dedication refers to an individual's sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride in their work, and willingness to rise to the challenge. The third-dimension absorption is distinguished by an individual's full concentration, immersion, and engrossment in their work. Individuals high in absorption may struggle to detach themselves from their work and experience the old adage '*time flies when you're having fun'*. These three dimensions were developed as part of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) developed by W. Schaufeli and A. Bakker (2004)

Servant leadership and engagement. There are very few studies which look specifically at the relationship between servant leadership and engagement. However, like ethical leadership (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009) and authentic leadership (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011; Wong, Laschinger, & Cummings, 2010), servant leadership (Chan & Mak, 2014; Hunter, Neubert, et al., 2013) has also been found to be positively related with engagement as well as constructs related to engagement such as job satisfaction (Hoch et al., 2016).

Although job satisfaction and engagement are distinctly different but related constructs (Alarcon & Lyons, 2011) Alarcon and Lyons (2011) found a large overlap between the two constructs. Given that positive leadership styles have consistently been found to have a positive relationship with job satisfaction and engagement despite being distinctly different constructs it is plausible to believe that servant leadership will positively relate to engagement at work.

Additionally, as servant leaders are inherently supportive in nature, based upon the JD-R model outlined above, which argues that when job resources are high, engagement increases,

we would expect that the more leaders exhibit behaviours associated with servant leadership such as feedback and emotional support, the more engaged followers are likely to become. Based on these assumptions, the following hypotheses were formulated regarding servant leadership and engagement in the present study.

> ***Hypothesis 1a***: Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Engagement at Time 1

> ***Hypothesis 1b*****:** Servant Leadership at Time 2 will be positively related to Engagement at Time 2

There is no existing empirical research which examines the longitudinal relationship between servant leadership and engagement. However, there are longitudinal studies which have explored the relationship between servant leadership and constructs related to engagement such as job boredom (Reijseger et al., 2013). The findings of the study conducted by (Harju et al., 2018) discussed above suggest that job crafting, and servant leadership may work together to reduce job boredom over time. Given that engagement and job boredom are related constructs the findings from this study over time, and cross-sectional data supports a positive relationship between servant leadership and engagement over time, leading to the formulation of the following hypothesis.

> ***Hypothesis 1c*****:** Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Engagement at Time 2

Passive leadership and engagement. Empirical evidence exploring the relationship between passive leadership and engagement is scant. Of the few studies which have explored the relationship, the results suggest that passive leadership has a negative effect on employee's levels of engagement (Nelson & Shraim, 2015). However, passive leadership has also been

linked to long-term affective commitment (one's emotional attachment to an organisation) (Chênevert et al., 2013). Moreover, role ambiguity was found to be a moderator of the relationship between passive leadership and long-term affective commitment (Chênevert et al., 2013). Whilst engagement and affective commitment are distinctly different, they are related constructs and it is therefore reasonable to expect that passive leadership would have a similar effect on engagement as a work outcome.

As mentioned earlier, engagement and job satisfaction have been identified as markedly separate but related constructs (Alarcon & Lyons, 2011). Based on the assumptions made regarding servant leadership (a 'good' leadership style) and engagement based on this information we would expect that given passive leadership is considered 'bad' leadership, that the relationship between passive leadership and engagement would be negative.

Again, drawing on the JD-R model, as passive leaders provide little to no support in regard to feedback and emotional support, we would expect engagement to decrease when leaders become more passive as this diminishes the interpersonal and social resources available to followers which allows them to engage completely. Furthermore, when employee's good performance is not rewarded, they may feel that their efforts are not making a difference and that they will get the same amount of recognition for less work. Therefore, they are likely to become disengaged. It is these assumptions along with the findings of Nelson and Shraim (2015) that helped to shape the following hypotheses.

> ***Hypothesis 2a:*** Passive leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Engagement at Time 1.

> ***Hypothesis 2b:*** Passive Leadership at Time 2 will be negatively related to Engagement at Time 2

Whilst a direct relationship between passive leadership and engagement has not been explored, based on the relationships established between passive leadership and negative outcomes above, as well as job satisfaction, this provides enough reason to expect that a negative relationship is likely to exist between passive leadership and engagement over time. These theoretical underpinnings helped to formulate the following hypothesis.

> ***Hypothesis 2c*:** Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Engagement at Time 2

Burnout. The concept of job burnout was recognised as an issue within the workplace by workers and social commentators well before it garnered focus in the research arena (Maslach, 2003). It is considered a psychological syndrome and is described as the "prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job" (Maslach, 2003, p. 189) or 'mental wariness' (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The most widely accepted conceptualisation of burnout is Maslach's three-dimensional model known as the Maslach Burnout Inventory scale (MBI) characterised by three important dimensions: emotional exhaustion, cynicism (depersonalisation), and sense of inefficacy (reduced personal accomplishment) (González-Romá, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006; Maslach, 2003; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Wright, 1997). Emotional exhaustion involves an individual feeling depleted of emotional resources and lacking energy (Wright, 1997). Moreover, individuals will often distance themselves from their work in an attempt to cope and feel unable to give themselves to the job on a psychological level. Cynicism or depersonalisation involves negative or cynical attitudes and feelings about the job, clients, and work colleagues essentially believing that others are experiencing what they deserve (Wright, 1997). The final dimension of burnout, inefficacy or reduced personal accomplishment, involves one's tendency to evaluate oneself negatively meaning they are increasingly dissatisfied with their personal performance and

accomplishments at work (Wright, 1997). More recently, scholars have begun conceptualising burnout as the negative antipode of engagement. That is, emotional exhaustion is the inverse of vigour, depersonalisation/cynicism the inverse of dedication, and inefficacy/reduced personal accomplishment the inverse of absorption (González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). However, there is some contention as to whether the MBI should be used as a dual measure of both burnout and engagement (González-Romá et al., 2006).

Servant leadership and burnout. There is little empirical research examining the effects of servant leadership on job burnout. However, existing research suggests that servant leadership reduces job burnout (Babakus et al., 2010). Babakus et al. (2010) explored this further revealing that person-job fit mediated the relationship between servant leadership and burnout. As mentioned earlier, according to the JD-R model, increases in job resources such as supervisor support can help to reduce the impact of job demands on job strain (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Given that servant leadership has a strong focus on ensuring the needs of followers are met, and ensuring they have the emotional and physical resources to perform effectively, it is likely that servant leadership protects followers from experiencing job strain and in particular burnout. It is based on this assumption along with the findings of Babakus et al. (2010) which helped to shape the following hypotheses predicting that servant leadership will be negatively related to burnout.

> ***Hypothesis 3a:*** Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Burnout at Time 1

> ***Hypothesis 3b:*** Servant Leadership at Time 2 will be negatively related to Burnout at Time 2

Existing longitudinal literature on servant leadership and burnout is scarce. However, a study conducted by Rivkin et al (2014) found that servant leadership had a negative

relationship with both day level fluctuations in indicators of strain as well as long-term indicators of strain (emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation). Based on these findings and the assumptions made above between servant leadership and burnout based on the JD-R model outlined earlier, the following prediction that servant leadership is likely to reduce levels of burnout over time outlined in the hypothesis stated below.

> ***Hypothesis 3c*:** Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Burnout at Time 2

Passive leadership and burnout. The relationship between burnout and passive leadership has not been explored in extensive depth. However, one study conducted by Kanste (2008) revealed that passive leadership was positively related to the burnout dimensions emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation as well as negatively related to the burnout dimension personal accomplishment. These findings along with research regarding passive leaders' failure to protect followers from the effects of role overload, role ambiguity, and role clarity increases followers stress levels and consequent levels of burnout (Chênevert et al., 2013). It is these findings which have been instrumental in formulating the following hypotheses.

Passive leadership involves a lack of behaviours and a lack of support which means that the supportive resources of followers are lacking. Given existing findings revealing the destructive nature of passive leadership it is likely that passive leadership will be perceived by followers as 'bad' leadership. 'Bad' leadership is also considered a job demand based on the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and increased job demands have been linked to increases in job strain including exhaustion. As emotional exhaustion is one of the key factors of the burnout dimension it is plausible that passive leadership would increase employee burnout. Additionally, it has been found that a combination of both high effort with lack of

reward or recognition is linked to burnout (Van Vegchel, 2005). Therefore, the following hypotheses have been developed.

Hypothesis 4a: Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Burnout at Time 1.

Hypothesis 4b: Passive Leadership at Time 2 will be positively related to Burnout at Time 2

Studies exploring the relationship between passive leadership and burnout from a cross-sectional perspective are scarce and studies investigating this relationship from a longitudinal perspective are even scarcer. However, since the findings at a cross-sectional level have established a positive relationship between passive leadership and burnout, it is reasonable to expect that the results would be similar if a time lag was to be introduced. Therefore, the following hypothesis was conceived.

***Hypothesis 4c*:** Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Burnout at Time 2

Performance. Given that organisational profit and success is synonymous with performance, the concept of performance has been of interest for decades. As an individual construct it can be measured at an organisational level and an individual level in various different ways. For instance, at the organisational level it can be conceptualised in terms of organisational profit, return on investment, number of contracts signed, or customers obtained to name a few. However, performance can also be measured at the individual level. Essentially, this is how much revenue an individual brings into the organisation, how many products they sell, how many new clients they sign for an organisation, their speed and efficiency at

completing tasks, and/or the quality of their work. Additionally, it can be measured from the employee's perspective as a rating of their own performance at work.

Servant leadership and performance. Recently, there has been a narrowed focus within the literature on how servant leadership impacts organisational performance in which the results are predominantly positive (Northouse, 2018). First, servant leadership positively influences how teams' function. According to Hu and Liden (2011) team effectiveness was enhanced by servant leadership by increasing the shared confidence of the group; that is the confidence that the team is capable of working together effectively. Additionally, servant leadership further enhanced group process and clarity leading to positive team potency. Interest in job performance as an indicator of organisational performance has increased with a particular focus on task behaviours in relation to servant leadership (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016) and OCB's (Graham, 1995). Additionally, van Dierendonck (2010) argues that servant leadership enhances proactivity and adaptability by actively affecting self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation.

Again, drawing on the JD-R model to develop the hypotheses regarding servant leadership and performance, when there is a strong interpersonal relationship between a supervisor/leader and the followers the job resource 'support' is high. As mentioned earlier, high supervisor support can be characterized by constructive and positive feedback as mentioned earlier. If followers are knowledgeable about their strengths, they can continue to excel in these areas. Similarly, when made aware of their weaknesses, followers can begin to make efforts towards improving. Servant leaders are known for providing adequate, positive and constructive feedback to their followers via effective, efficient, and positive communication. Based on this theoretical understanding, along with findings suggesting a positive relationship between task performance, helping behaviours, and OCB's, the following

hypotheses were formulated regarding the relationship between servant leadership and performance.

Hypothesis 5a: Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Performance at Time 1

***Hypothesis 5b*:** Servant Leadership at Time 2 will be positively related to Performance at Time 2

How servant leadership impacts employee performance over time is largely unstudied and represents a significant gap in the research. This study hopes to shed some light on the relationship between servant leadership and performance. Based on the findings of cross-sectional studies investigating this relationship mentioned above it is reasonable to expect that servant leadership will be positively related to performance over time. These findings formulated the following hypothesis.

***Hypothesis 5c*:** Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Performance at Time 2

Passive leadership and performance. Empirical research on the effects of passive leadership specifically on performance at work is scarce. The present study investigates employee perceptions of their own job performance. Empirical evidence measuring performance from this angle in relation to passive leadership is lacking. However, Howell and Avolio (1993) report that management by exception (passive) – a form of passive leadership – is negatively related to business unit performance. Furthermore, existing evidence regarding the omission of punishment and reward and the impact on performance (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008) referred to above, indicate that it is likely that the relationship between passive leadership

and performance is negative. That is, that the more passive a leader is, the worse an individual or an organisation will perform.

Given servant leadership is 'good' and passive leadership is 'bad' when examining the relationship between passive leadership and performance through the JD-R model it is plausible to conclude that the relationship will be negative. As passive leaders provide no feedback and are usually ineffective in their communication, supervisor support as a job resource is low. When bad or ineffective performance remains unaddressed followers are unaware that their performance needs to improve. Therefore, they are unable to make effective and appropriate efforts to try and perform better. Moreover, when follower's good performance goes unrecognised, they may become cynical or resentful towards their work or to people around them and they may feel that their efforts are futile. This may cause them to reduce their efforts. Furthermore, as passive leadership is 'bad' and as mentioned earlier can be considered a job demand it is likely the relationship between passive leadership and performance will be negative. These findings have helped to construct the following hypotheses regarding passive leadership and performance.

> ***Hypothesis 6a:*** Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Performance at Time 1

> ***Hypothesis 6b***: Passive Leadership at Time 2 will be negatively related to Performance at Time 2

Longitudinal studies exploring the relationship between passive leadership and performance are even scarcer than existing cross-sectional research. Given that passive leadership has been identified as a 'bad' leadership style and that 'good' leadership styles have been found to have a positive impact on work outcomes such as performance it is reasonable to expect a negative relationship between passive

leadership and performance to exist. According to the JD-R model job demands require sustained effort to cope over time, if effort and skills are focussed more on coping rather than being directed towards the tasks associated with the job it is plausible that over time one's performance would become worse. The following hypothesis was conceived based on these premises.

> ***Hypothesis 6c*:** Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Performance at Time 2

Please refer to the following theoretical models, over the page.

Theoretical Models

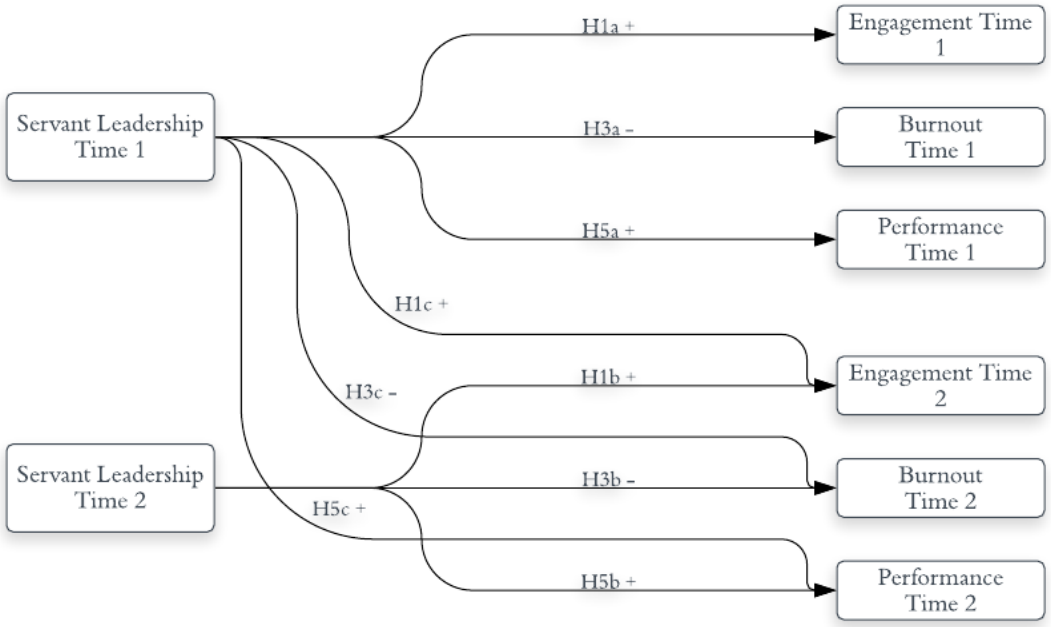

Figure 1. Theoretical framework of the research model with the hypothesised directions of the relationships between variables and servant leadership.

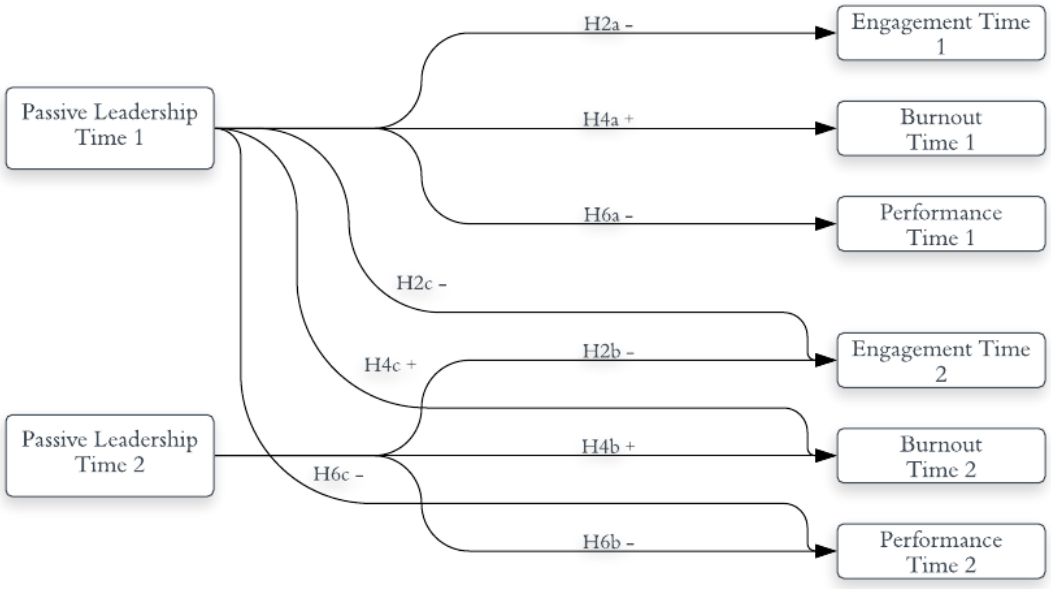

Figure 2. Theoretical framework of the research model with the hypothesised directions of the relationships between variables and passive leadership.

Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1a: Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be postively related to Engagement at Time 1

Hypothesis 1b**:** Servant Leadership at Time 2 will be positively related to Engagement at Time 2

Hypothesis 1c**:** Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Engagement at Time 2

Hypothesis 2a: Passive leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Engagement at Time 1

Hypothesis 2b: Passive Leadership at Time 2 will be negatively related to Engagement at Time 2

Hypothesis 2c**:** Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Engagement at Time 2

Hypothesis 3a: Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Burnout at Time 1

Hypothesis 3b: Servant Leadership at Time 2 will be negatively related to Burnout at Time 2

***Hypothesis 3c*:** Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Burnout at Time 2

Hypothesis 4a: Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Burnout at Time 1

Hypothesis 4b: Passive Leadership at Time 2 will be positively related to Burnout at Time 2

***Hypothesis 4c*:** Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Burnout at Time 2

Hypothesis 5a: Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Performance at Time 1

***Hypothesis 5b*:** Servant Leadership at Time 2 will be positively related to Performance at Time 2

***Hypothesis 5c*:** Servant Leadership at Time 1 will be positively related to Performance at Time 2

Hypothesis 6a: Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Performance at Time 1

Hypothesis 6b: Passive Leadership at Time 2 will be negatively related to Performance at Time 2

Hypothesis 6c**:** Passive Leadership at Time 1 will be negatively related to Performance at Time 2

Chapter Two: Method

The present study was approved by the Psychology Research and Ethics Committee within the School of Psychology at the University of Waikato. This study was funded by the University of Waikato 2018 Strategic Investment Fund – Research (Medium Grant). It is part of a larger study based on Fowles (2010) Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) who developed a measure of self-and -other identifying psychopathy in managers and how psychopathy may relate to a number of workplace outcomes such as engagement, burnout, and performance. The study was longitudinal in nature and required participants to complete a number of questionnaires within the wider survey including the Servant leadership questionnaire developed by Ehrhart (2004), a subset of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire used to measure passive leadership (this was included in an amendment to the original ethics application), the Utrecht Work Engagement Survey, the Maslach Burnout Inventory, and the World Health Organisation Health and Performance Questionnaire (See Appendix B, pp. 100-107). This survey was distributed to New Zealand managers and employees online via the company Research Now who were contracted for data collection purposes.

Participants

Participants were recruited between October and December 2018 by the sampling provider Research Now and completed a survey administered at two time points. A total of 697 New Zealand Employees completed the questionnaire administered at Time 1 and were assigned a personal identification number generated by the survey software. At Time 1, the sample consisted of 52 percent female and 48 percent male respondents. The Mean age of respondents was 38 years old (SD = 12.6 years) with 15.2 percent working in retail, trade, and

accommodation, and 14.8 percent working in health care, and social assistance. The Mean tenure for respondents in their current job was 5.83 years (SD = 6.45).

Four weeks after the completion of the Time 1 survey respondents were recontacted to complete an identical survey excluding demographic questions, using the personal identification numbers generated (Time 2) yielding a response from a total of 331 resulting in a retention rate of 47.5 percent. The personal ID's as mentioned above were utilised to match participants responses from Time 1 and Time 2. However, some participants failed to complete 90 percent or more of the total questionnaire or the individual scales. The results from these respondents were subsequently removed from the data set along with cases with a fast response time as well as a significant Mahalanobis distance (B. G. Tabachnick, Fidell, L. S., 2001) bringing the total sample size of 668 employees at Time 1 and 318 employees at Time 2. At Time 2 the sample consisted of 58 percent female and 42 percent male respondents. The Mean age of respondents at this time was 40.48 years old (SD = 12.5 years) with a similar proportion working across industries to Time 1.

Procedure

Approval to conduct the present study was given by the Psychology Research and Ethics Committee within the School of Psychology at the University of Waikato. Participants were provided with a digital information sheet (See Appendix A, pp. 97-99). Signed consent was not obtained for each participant as the survey was administered online. Consent was therefore implied as respondents were asked to click 'next' as a means of agreeing to participate in the research with the understanding that the questionnaire may engender psychological discomfort as questions may elicit memories of uncomfortable incidents participants may have experienced at work and that they could discontinue the study at any point by exiting the browser. Respondents were also given the contact details of the Psychology Research and

Ethics Committee in the event that they should have any concerns regarding the research. The study was entirely confidential, with no personal information gathered/obtained from participants except for the demographic questions included in the questionnaire administered at Time 1. In order to investigate these relationships longitudinal data was gathered via an independent panel survey administered to New Zealand employees. The survey was administered online via the sampling provider Research Now at two specific timepoints outlined above making it a longitudinal study. New Zealand employees completed other-report measures of servant leadership and passive leadership in relation to their manager or leaders predisposed leadership style as well as self-report measures of burnout, engagement, and performance at Time 1 and Time 2.

Measures

The questionnaire (See Appendix B, pp. 100-107) examined participants perception of their immediate managers tendency to act in accordance with servant leadership and passive leadership styles, their own personal level of engagement, burnout, and performance at work. Initial questions also asked participants to provide demographic information. The questionnaire was comprised of multiple scales: Ehrhart's Servant Leadership Questionnaire; Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ); Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES); Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI); World Health Organisation Health and Work Performance Questionnaire (HPQ).

The Questionnaire was composed of 49 items including demographic items, which included a mix of 5-point (Servant Leadership/Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire), 7-point (Utrecht Work Engagement Survey/Maslach Burnout Inventory), and 10-point (Health Performance Questionnaire) Likert-type scales. Participants were informed that the

questionnaire was confidential and that no information collected would make them identifiable in any way in order to encourage honest and full participation.

Demographics. The questionnaire included questions that required participants to report their age, gender, tenure in current job, and industry sector (this was derived from the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC) 2006 categories). This data was collected at Time 1 only.

Servant Leadership. Servant leadership was assessed using a measure developed by Ehrhart (2004) consisting of fourteen items. This measure was specifically developed as an other-report measure which allowed employees to rate their managers servant leadership behaviours. An example item from Ehrhart's measure is "*My manager spends the time to form quality relationships with employees*." Employees were required to rate these statements on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = to a small extent, and 5 = to a very large extent. For the purposes of this study the original wording of 'department manager' was altered to simply 'manager'. Whilst there are a number of measures of servant leadership, this measure was selected for its simplicity, and for the fact that it contains an appropriate number of questions that would fit in to the wider questionnaire.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire – Passive leadership. Passive/avoidant leadership was measured using eight items derived from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The full Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is comprised of a measure of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, management by exception, and laissez-faire leadership. However, Hater and Bass (1988) suggested adapting the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire further by separating management by exception into management by exception active and management by exception passive. This provided a basis for which an argument to combine management by exception passive and laissez-faire as a single higher-order factor (See Den Hartog, Van Muijen, &

Koopman, 1997; Druskat, 1994; Yammarino & Bass, 1990) based on the results of a correlation of .42 between the two factors found by Den Hartog et al. (1997) which paralleled the original pattern of results reported by Bass. Furthermore, the results also correlated negatively with all other scales contained in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Based on these results for the purposes of this research the present study will use a measure of passive leadership which combines both management by exception passive and laissez-faire leadership as one single high-order factor. The other-report version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was used so as to allow employees in the sample to report on the passive leadership style of their managers. An example item from this survey is "*Fails to interfere until problems become serious.*" This measure includes a number of statements which employees are instructed to rate on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = not at all, and 5 = frequently, if not always. The scale has been shown to have good reliability (α = .82) in alternative studies. This measure of passive leadership as part of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has been widely used and validated within organisational psychology literature focussed on leadership and has therefore made it an appropriate selection for measuring passive leadership in the present study.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. A shortened version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003) consisting of nine items was used in the present study. This self-report measure assesses the three dimensions of vigour, dedication, and absorption using the nine items which employees were required to rate using a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = never, and 7 = always (everyday). An example item from the UWES is "*I am enthusiastic about my job*." This measure was selected for the present study as it has been widely used and validated within organisational psychology literature on work engagement.

Maslach Burnout Inventory. Burnout was assessed using an abbreviated version of the Maslach Burnout Inventory scale (McManus, Jonvik, Richards, & Paice, 2011). This was

a self-report measure of employee's levels of burnout. Similar to other measures used in this study, employees were required to rate a number of statements using a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = never, and 7 = everyday. An example item from the Maslach Burnout scale is "*I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job*." For the purposes of making the scale more applicable to the workplace the word 'patients' was altered to 'people' in each statement. However, a reverse scored factor analysis confirmed the expected three factors of burnout: emotional exhaustion, cynicism (depersonalisation), and professional efficacy (personal accomplishment) (McManus et al., 2011). This measure was selected for the present study as it has been widely used and validated within organisational psychology literature on workplace burnout.

Performance. Three items from the World Health Organisation Health and Work Performance Questionnaire (HPQ) (Kessler et al., 2003) were used to assess employees self-reported perceptions of their performance at work. Two of the three items or statements respondents are required to rate are used as internal anchors; they are first asked to rate the performance of an average worker (*The usual performance of most workers in a similar job to yours?*) as well as their own 'usual' performance (*Your own usual job performance?*). These items precede the final measure of performance; their own overall performance on the days they have worked in the past six months (*Your own overall job performance on the days you have worked during the past six months?*). This final item is utilised as a global index of subjective job performance. Respondents are required to rate this statement using a 10-point Likert scale where 1 = the worst performance anyone could have at your job, 5 to 6 = average level of performance, and 10 = the performance of a top worker. The Health Performance Questionnaire is shown to have good concordance with objective performance measures.

Data Analysis

Multiple data analyses were conducted on both Time 1 and Time 2 data sets in order to assess support for the hypotheses stated in the introduction. The data collected by Research Now was imported into IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 26) for data analysis.

Missing Data and Removal of Outliers. Missing data was accounted for by removing cases where > 10 percent of the responses were missing. In addition to this, outliers where removed using a combination of participants response time, and the Mahalanobis distance method, which is used to identify multivariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Mahalanobis distance was calculated for each case based on all items from the TriPM measure (49 items) and compared to a Chi-square distribution with the same degrees of freedom (df = 49). A conservative probability estimate of $p < .001$ suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) was used to identify possible outliers. In addition, a response time faster than 50 percent of the median time (Greszki, Meyer, & Schoen, 2014) was taken as an indication that the participants may not have given quality responses. This resulted in cases with a fast response time and a significant Mahalanobis distance being removed from the data set, bringing the total sample size to 668 employees at Time 1 and 318 employees at Time 2. The paired data set of matched responses from Time 1 and Time 2 were used for analysis.

Recoding of variables. Three scales in this study required recoding in order for accurate analyses to occur. The original scales for the Utrecht Work Engagement Survey and the Maslach Burnout Inventory were based on a Likert scale from zero to six. These were recoded one to seven for the purpose of data analysis.

Furthermore, the three questions associated with the personal accomplishment scale in the Maslach Burnout Inventory were reverse scored and were recoded to fit with the outlined hypotheses. These three questions were based on a 7 point Likert Scale where a value of 1

indicated ‘never’ and a value of 7 indicated ‘everyday’. These were recoded so a value of 1 indicated ‘everyday’ and a value of 7 indicated ‘never’. However, as outlined in the results section, an exploratory factor analysis yielded results that led us to remove personal accomplishment when conducting further analyses.

Gendered responses for Female, Male, Other (please specify), and Prefer not to say were recoded for analysis: Female = 1, Male = 2, Other (please specify) = 3, Prefer not to say = 4. For ‘Other (please specify)’ responses included ‘nonbinary’.

Exploratory Factor Analyses. Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) were carried out on four of the five scales used in the current study (Servant Leadership Questionnaire, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and Maslach Burnout Inventory) using principal axis factoring. Criterion for factor retention is typically accepted where eigen values are greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1960) or where data points are located above the point of inflexion in the corresponding scree plot (Yong & Pearce, 2013). In order to conduct an EFA the sample size must be adequate. According to Field (2013) this means between 10 to 15 participants per variable. The total number of participants for this study was 668 at Time 1 and 318 at Time 2 and means the sample size was more than adequate at both time points with a ratio of 133:5 (668 participants and 5 variables) for the Time 1 sample and 63:5 (318 and 5 variables) for the Time 2 sample.

Descriptive Statistics. Information on the frequencies, means, skew, and kurtosis of the data were obtained via descriptive statistical analyses. Examining the levels of skew and kurtosis before continuing with further data analysis is recommended in order to confirm whether the data needs to be transformed. Extreme skew is indicated by values greater than +/-3 and extreme kurtosis is indicated by values greater than +/-8. If skew and/or kurtosis values are extreme Kline (2011) suggests that the data be transformed. Skew and kurtosis values in

the present study were not indicated to be extreme and transformation of the data was therefore unnecessary (See Table 3 p. 48).

Reliability Analyses. Cronbach's alpha for both each item and scale were calculated in order to assess internal reliability. According to Field (2018) & Gliem and Gliem (2003) Cronbach's alpha values which lie between .7 and .9 indicate an acceptable or excellent level of internal reliability (.7 = acceptable; .8 = good; .9 = excellent). The present study revealed a Cronbach's alpha value of .96 and .96 for the Servant Leadership Questionnaire; .92 and .94 for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; .94 and .95 for the Utrecht Work Engagement Survey; .77 and .76 for the Maslach Burnout Inventory for Time 1 and Time 2 respectively. All of these alpha values indicate either acceptable reliability (Maslach Burnout Inventory), or excellent reliability (Servant leadership; Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; Utrecht Work Engagement Survey) (See Appendix B, pp. 100-107).

Correlation Analysis. A correlation analysis was carried out using Pearson's *r* product moment correlations to identify any significant correlations between variables as well as to determine whether there was any support for the hypotheses stated in the introduction. The correlation tables outlining correlation values for each sample are included in the following chapter (See Table 4 p. 53, and Figures 3 & 4 p. 54). Significance is determined by correlation *p*- values which fall within the range of .05, .01, or .001. Those that are significant are indicated by * ($p < .05$) or ** ($p < .001$).

Sample Size and Power. Friedman (1982) provides guidelines for determining adequate sample size and subsequent adequate power to avoid Type II (or beta (β) error), such that a true effect is found; the size of the expected effect, level of significance, and statistical power. Based on these guidelines a sample of 318 gives this sample's correlations a power of .80 at the .05 level ($r = .15$) therefore suggesting that there is an 80 percent likelihood of detecting a true relationship between the variables.

Regression Analysis. Simple linear regression was carried about to see whether servant leadership and passive leadership at Time 1 had a significant effect on employee engagement, burnout and performance at Time 2. Significance is determined by correlation *p*-values which fall within the range of .05, .01, or .001. Those that are significant are indicated by * ($p < .05$) or ** ($p < .001$) (See Tables 5 & 6 p. 56 & 57).

Chapter Summary

The methods used to examine the effects of servant and passive leadership on employee engagement, burnout and performance have been outlined within the current chapter. All methods used in the present study fit with current guidelines and have been approved by the ethics committee at the University of Waikato. Valid reasoning for each method has been outlined and discussed. A detailed report of the results will be included in the following chapter.

Results Chapter

The current chapter presents the statistical analyses of the present study's data and reports and describes the results. The results for servant leadership and passive leadership are explored separately. This chapter is composed of the following sections in the order listed; Exploratory Factor Analyses, Reliability Analysis, Descriptive Statistics, Servant Leadership Correlations, Passive Leadership Correlations, Post hoc analyses, and Summary.

Exploratory Factor Analyses

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted on four scales used in this study (Servant Leadership Questionnaire, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Utrecht Work Engagement Survey, Maslach Burnout Inventory). Each of these measures has been widely validated via previous factor analyses meaning each item has been found to load onto the appropriate factors. Therefore, it was decided that EFA would be carried out using a fixed number of factors for extraction. This fixed number was determined by the existing literature on each of the measures (Preacher, Zhang, Kim, & Mels, 2013).

Servant Leadership Questionnaire. Principal axis factoring was carried out on the 14 items on the SLQ. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .95 for the Time 1 sample and KMO = .94 for the Time 2 sample. All KMO values for individual items were greater than .85 which is well above the accepted limits of the KMO (.50) according to Field (2018). Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(91) = 4063.913$, $p < 0.001$ was significant for the Time 1 sample. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(91) = 4287.330$, $p < 0.001$ was also significant for the Time 2 sample. Using a fixed number of factors to retain, a single factor explained a cumulative variance of 64.07% at Time 1 and

63.81% at Time 2. All factor loadings were greater than .652 (Time 1) and .650 (Time 2) which is well above the accepted limit (.40).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Principal axis factoring was carried out on the 8 items in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Typically, the laissez-faire and Management by Exception Passive (MBEP) scales have been used as separate measures as part of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999) but recently there has been research using the two factors together as a single measure of 'passive leadership' (See Den Hartog et al., 1997; Druskat, 1994; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). Therefore, using the two factors of MBEP and laissez-faire as a one-factor (unidimensional) model is acceptable. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .91 for the Time 1 sample and KMO = .92 for the Time 2 sample. All KMO values for individual items were greater than .83 which is well above the accepted limits of the KMO (.50) according to Field (2018). Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(28) = 1919.940$, $p < 0.001$ was significant for the Time 1 sample. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(28) = 2331.069$, $p < 0.001$ was also significant for the Time 2 sample. A single factor in the Time 1 sample explained a cumulative variance of 62.06% and a single factor in the Time 2 sample explained a cumulative variance of 67.35%. All factor loadings were above .40 (Time 1) and .472 (Time 2) respectively and did not require rotation. Therefore, all factors were retained for the final analysis.

Utrecht Work Engagement Survey. Principal axis factoring was carried out on the 9 items in the Utrecht Work Engagement Survey. The Utrecht Work Engagement Survey scale is typically comprised of three contributing factors however whilst Schaufeli & Bakker (2004) state that a three-factor model is superior, using the 9 item Utrecht Work Engagement Survey as a one-factor model is acceptable. As there were inconsistencies with the factor loadings in this study the final EFA was conducted using one fixed factor. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for further analysis, KMO = .91 for the Time

Table 1

Pattern matrix of burnout for the Time 1 sample.

	Factor		
	1	2	3
I feel emotionally drained from my work	.817		
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	.944		
Working with people all day is really a strain for me	.489		
I feel I treat some people as if they were impersonal objects		.708	
I've become more callous towards people since I took this job		.465	
I don't really care what happens to some people at work		.785	
I deal very effectively with the problems I face at work			.354
I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work			.745
I feel exhilarated after working closely with people at work			.587

Note. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

1 sample and KMO = .90 for the Time 2 sample. All KMO values for individual items were greater than .85, which is well above the accepted limits of the KMO (.50) according to Field (2018). Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(36) = 2501.366$, $p < 0.001$ was significant for the Time 1 sample. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(36) = 2646.520$, $p < 0.001$ was also significant for the Time 2 sample. A single factor in the Time 1 sample explained a cumulative variance of 64.10% and a single factor in the Time 2 sample explained a cumulative variance of 66.27%.

Table 2

Pattern matrix of burnout for the Time 2 sample.

	Factor		
	1	2	3
I feel emotionally drained from my work	.781		
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	.954		
Working with people all day is really a strain for me	.459		
I feel I treat some people as if they were impersonal objects		.688	
I've become more callous towards people since I took this job		.631	
I don't really care what happens to some people at work		.799	
I deal very effectively with the problems I face at work			.232
I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work			.693
I feel exhilarated after working closely with people at work			.673

Note. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

All factor loadings were above .619 (Time 1) and .691 (Time 2) respectively and did not require rotation. Therefore, all factors were retained for the final analysis.

Maslach Burnout Inventory. Principal axis factoring was carried out on the 9 items in the Maslach Burnout Inventory using an Oblique 'Direct Oblimin' rotation. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for further analysis, KMO = .91 for the Time 1 sample and KMO = .90 for the Time 2 sample. All KMO values for individual items were greater than .85, which is well above the accepted limits of the KMO (.50) according

to Field (2018). Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(36) = 873.370$, $p < 0.001$ was significant for the Time 1 sample. Bartlett's test of sphericity, $X^2(36) = 877.895$, $p < 0.001$ was also significant for the Time 2 sample. Three factors in the Time 1 sample explained a cumulative variance of 51.55%. One factor in the Time 2 sample explained a cumulative variance of 66.27%. Tables 1 and 2 show the factor loadings for each sample after rotation. Items clustered on Factor One show emotional exhaustion (See Table's 1 & 2, p. 45). Items clustered on Factor Two show depersonalisation (See Table's 1 & 2, p. 45). And items clustered on Factor Three show personal accomplishment (See Table's 1 & 2, p. 45). The personal accomplishment item "I deal very effectively with the problems I face at work" produced factor loadings of .354 in the Time 1 sample and .232 in the Time 2 sample which is well below the accepted threshold (.40) according to Field (2018). Therefore, this item was removed along with the two items in the personal accomplishment factor for the final analyses.

Reliability Analysis

A reliability analysis was carried out on the Servant Leadership Questionnaire, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Utrecht Work Engagement Survey, Maslach Burnout Inventory, and the WHO Health and Performance Questionnaire. Using Cronbach's alpha (α), each of these measures was tested for internal reliability. According to Field (2018), scales that produce a Cronbach's alpha value equal to or greater than .7 are deemed reliable (.7 = acceptable, .8 = good, .9 = excellent). Reliability at time 1 was reported as α = .96 for Ehrhart (2004) SLQ, α =.92 for the MLQ, α = .94 for the UWES (vigour α = .89, absorption α = .85, dedication α = .90), α = .77 for the MBI (emotional exhaustion α = .82, depersonalisation α =.75, personal accomplishment α = .57), and α = .76 for the HPQ. Reliability at time 2 was reported as α = .96 for Ehrhart (2004) SLQ, α = .94 for the MLQ, α = .95 for the UWES (vigour α = .87, absorption α = .89, dedication α = .91), α = .76 for the MBI (emotional

exhaustion α = .81, depersonalisation α =.78, personal accomplishment α = .52), and α = .79 for the HPQ. For the reliabilities of these scales at both Time 1 and Time 2 (See Appendix C, pp. 108-109).

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics including the Mean, Standard Deviation, Skew, and Kurtosis for all the variables at Time 1 and Time 2 are displayed in Table 3 below. The mean for servant leadership was measured on a scale of one to five (1 = to a small extent, and 5 = to a very large extent). The mean for passive leadership was measured on a scale of one to five (1 = not at all, and 5 = frequently, if not always). The mean for engagement was measured on a scale of one to seven (1 = never, and 7 = always (everyday)). The mean for burnout was measured on a scale of one to seven (1 = never, and 7 = everyday). The mean for performance was based on one question and was measured on a scale of one to ten (1 = the worst performance anyone could have at your job, 5 to 6 = average level of performance, and 10 = the performance of a top worker).

At Time 1 means across the variables ranged from 2.07 to 7.62, as indicated in Table 3. For servant leadership respondents indicated that their manager exhibited behaviours commonly associated with servant leadership to a moderate extent (*M* = 3.01, *SD* = 1.03). For passive leadership respondents indicated that their managers exhibited behaviours commonly associated with passive leadership occasionally (*M* = 2.07 *SD* = .92). On average participants reported ‘sometimes’ as relating to their personal feelings of engagement towards their job (*M* = 4.87, *SD* = 1.27). On average participants reported feelings of burnout associated with their

Table 3

Descriptive statistics for each sample (Time 1 & Time 2).

	N	Mean	St. Dev.	Skew	Kurtosis
Time 1					
SLQ	318	3.01	1.03	-.13	-.81
MLQ	318	2.07	.92	.81	-.23
UWES	318	4.87	1.27	-.42	-.06
MBI	318	3.23	1.07	.09	-.39
HPQ	315	7.62	1.56	-.81	.98
Time 2					
SLQ	318	3.04	1.04	-.15	-.80
MLQ	318	2.10	.98	.80	-.23
UWES	318	4.81	1.30	-.32	-.24
MBI	317	3.19	1.06	.08	-.31
HPQ	317	7.52	1.64	-.57	.07

**Note. SLQ = Servant leadership Questionnaire; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Passive leadership); UWES = Utretcht Work Engagement Scale; MBI = Maslach Burnout Inventory; HPQ = Health and Work Performance Questionnaire (World Health Organisation).*
***Note. The results reported for the MBI are the results after the factor Personal Accomplishment was removed.*

job once a month or less (*M* = 3.22, *SD* = 1.07). Participants also indicated that their overall job performance over the past six months was above average (*M* = 7.62, *SD* = 1.56).

At Time 2 means across the variables ranged from 2.10 to 7.52, as indicated in Table 3. For servant leadership respondents indicated that their leaders exhibited behaviours commonly associated with servant leadership to a moderate extent (*M* = 3.04, *SD* = 1.04). For passive leadership respondents indicated that their managers exhibited behaviours commonly associated with passive leadership occasionally (*M* = 2.10 *SD* = .98). On average participants reported 'sometimes' as relating to their personal feelings of engagement towards their job (*M* = 4.81, *SD* = 1.30). On average participants reported feelings of burnout associated with their

job once a month or less (M = 3.21, SD = 1.06). Participants also indicated that their overall job performance over the past six months was above average (M = 7.52, SD = 1.64).

Correlational Analysis

Pearson's product moment correlations were carried out to explore correlations between the variables at both Time 1 and Time 2 and to determine whether there was any support for the hypotheses stated in the Introductory chapter. Based on Friedman (1982) guidelines, a sample of 318 gives this sample's correlations a power of .80 at the .05 level (r = .15) therefore suggesting that there is an 80 percent likelihood of detecting a true relationship between the variables. Table 4 (p. 50) presents the correlation coefficients between all variables in the present study at both Time 1 and Time 2 indicating those which are significant at the $p < .05$ and $p < .001$ levels. The results will be reported according to the outcomes engagement, burnout, and performance in that order.

Hypothesis 1 a servant leadership and engagement. It was hypothesized that servant leadership at Time 1 would be positively associated with engagement at Time 1. The correlational analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between servant leadership and engagement at Time 1 (r = .343, $p < .001$). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1 b servant leadership and engagement. It was hypothesized that servant leadership at Time 2 would be positively associated with engagement at Time 2. The correlational analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between servant leadership and engagement at Time 2 (r = .411, $p < .001$). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1 c servant leadership and engagement. It was hypothesized that servant leadership at Time 1 would be positively associated with engagement at Time 2. The

correlational analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between servant leadership and engagement at Time 2 (r = .250, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2 a passive leadership and engagement. It was hypothesized that passive leadership at Time 1 would be negatively associated with engagement at Time 1. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between passive leadership and engagement at Time 1 (r = -.212, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2 b passive leadership and engagement. It was hypothesized that passive leadership at Time 2 would be negatively associated with engagement at Time 2. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between passive leadership and engagement at Time 2 (r = -.196, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2 c passive leadership and engagement. It was hypothesized that passive leadership at Time 1 would be negatively associated with engagement at Time 2. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between passive leadership and engagement at Time 2 (r = -.135, p < .05). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3 a servant leadership and burnout. It was hypothesized that servant leadership at Time 1 would be negatively associated with burnout at Time 1. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between servant leadership and burnout at Time 1 (r = -.221, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3 b servant leadership and burnout. It was hypothesized that servant leadership at Time 2 would be negatively associated with burnout at Time 2. The correlational

analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between servant leadership and burnout at Time 2 (r = -.241, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3 c servant leadership and burnout. It was hypothesized that servant leadership at Time 1 would be negatively associated with burnout at Time 2. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between servant leadership and burnout at Time 2 (r = -.189, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4 a passive leadership and burnout. It was hypothesized that passive leadership at Time 1 would be positively associated with burnout at Time 1. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between passive leadership and burnout at Time 1 (r =.371, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4 b passive leadership and burnout. It was hypothesized that passive leadership at Time 2 would be positively associated with burnout at Time 2. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between passive leadership and burnout at Time 2 (r = .303, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4 c passive leadership and burnout. It was hypothesized that passive leadership at Time 1 would be positively associated with burnout at Time 2. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between passive leadership and burnout at Time 2 (r = .258, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5 a servant leadership and performance. It was hypothesized that servant leadership at Time 1 would be positively associated with performance at Time 1. The correlational analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between servant leadership and engagement at Time 1 (r = .141, p < .05). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5 b servant leadership and performance. It was hypothesized that servant leadership at Time 2 would be positively associated with performance at Time 2. The

correlational analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between servant leadership and engagement at Time 2 (r = .155, p < .001). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5 c servant leadership and performance. It was hypothesized that servant leadership at Time 1 would be positively associated with performance at Time 2. The correlational analysis showed that there was a positive relationship between servant leadership and engagement at Time 2 (r = .086, p > .05). This was not significant and thus did not support the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 6 a passive leadership and performance. It was hypothesized that passive leadership at Time 1 would be negatively associated with performance at Time 1. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between passive leadership and performance at Time 1 (r = -.137, p < .05). This was significant and provides support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 6 b passive leadership and performance. It was hypothesized that passive leadership at Time 2 would be negatively associated with performance at Time 2. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between passive leadership and performance at Time 2 (r = -.069, p > .05). This was not significant and thus does not provide support for the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 6 c passive leadership and performance. It was hypothesized that passive leadership at Time 1 would be negatively associated with performance at Time 2. The correlational analysis showed that there was a negative relationship between passive leadership and performance at Time 2 (r = -.102, p > .05). This was not significant and thus does not provide support for the hypothesis.

Table 4

Pearson's product moment correlations for all variables.

Variable	***N***	***M***	***SD***	**T1**	1	2	3	4	5	**T2**	6	7	8	9	10
Time 1 (T1)															
1. Servant Leadership	318	3.01	1.03		--										
2. Passive Leadership	318	2.07	.92		-.583**	--									
3. Engagement	318	4.87	1.27		**.343****	**-.212****	--								
4. Burnout	318	3.23	1.35		**-.221****	**.371****	-.484**	--							
5. Performance	315	7.62	1.56		**.141***	**-.137***	.329**	-.274**	--						
Time 2 (T2)															
6. Servant Leadership	318	3.04	1.04		.721**	-.449**	.318**	-.221**	.178**		--				
7. Passive Leadership	318	2.10	.98		-.457	.727**	-.148**	.343**	-.080		-.530**	--			
8. Engagement	318	4.81	1.30		**.250****	**-.135***	.761**	-.413**	.362**		**.411****	**-.196****	--		
9. Burnout	317	3.19	1.36		**-.189****	**.258****	-.478**	.694**	-.273**		**-.241****	**.303****	-.439**	--	
10. Performance	317	7.52	1.64		.086	-.102	.364**	-.235**	.622**		**.155****	-.069	.403**	-.295**	--

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

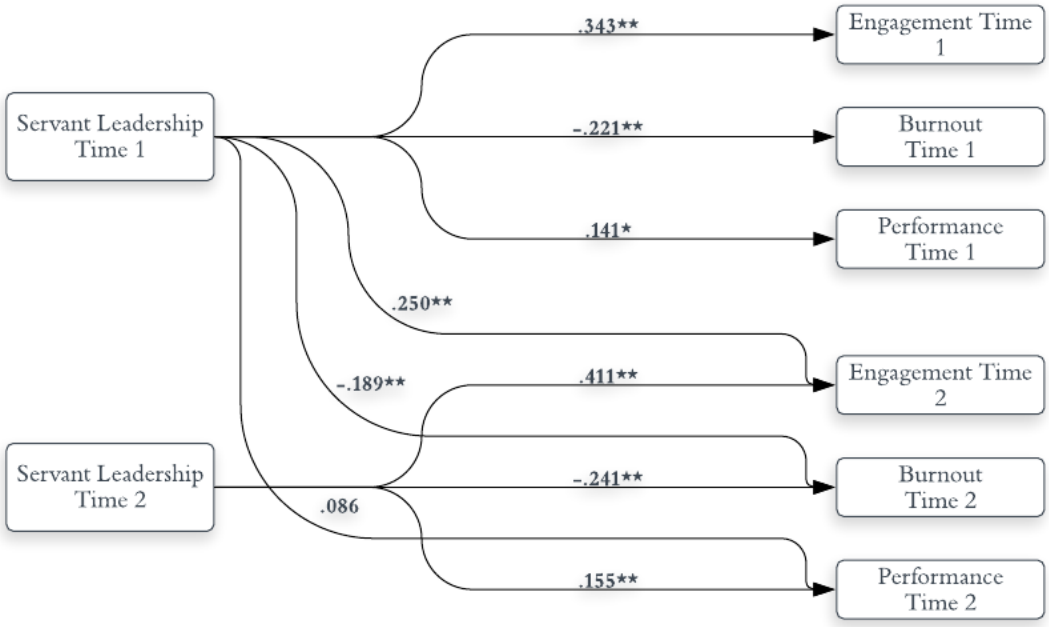

Figure 3. Correlation results for hypotheses regarding servant leadership.

*Note: ** p<.001, * p<.05*

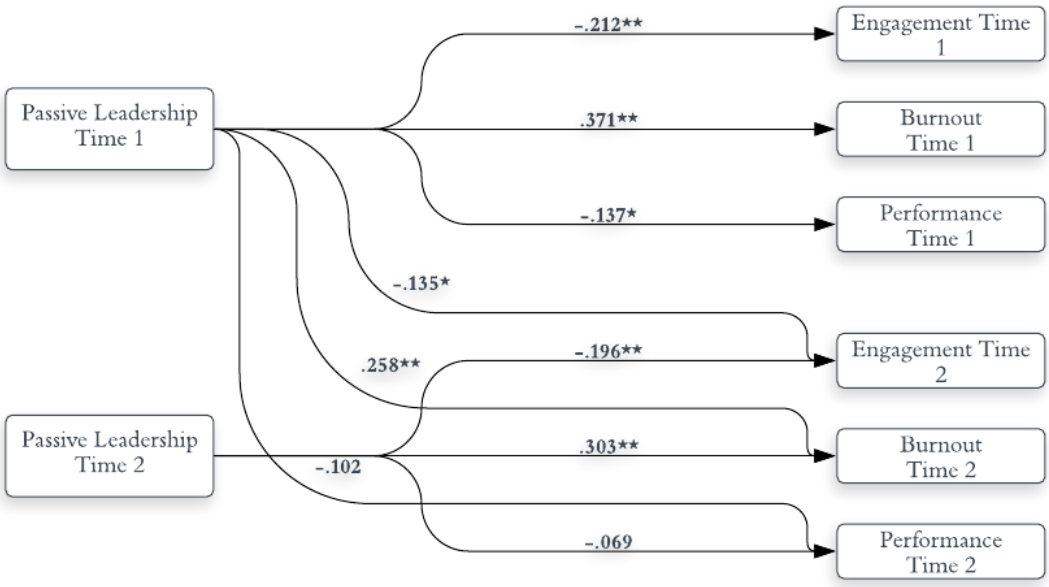

Figure 4. Correlations for all hypotheses regarding passive leadership.

*Note: ** p<.001, * p<.05*

Regression

Simple linear regression. Simple linear regression was carried out to test whether servant leadership and passive leadership at Time 1 significantly predicted employee engagement, burnout, and performance at Time 2. The results of this analysis will be explained below.

Hypothesis 1 c servant leadership and engagement. The results of the regression indicated that the predictor servant leadership explained 6.3% of the variance (R^2= .063, $F(1,316) = 21.12$, $p < .001$, adj.). It was found that servant leadership at Time 1 predicted higher levels of engagement at Time 2 (β = .250, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis 2 c servant leadership and burnout. The results of the regression indicated that the predictor servant leadership explained 3.6% of the variance (R^2= .036, $F(1,315) = 11.64$, $p < .001$, adj.). It was found that servant leadership at Time 1 predicted lower levels of burnout at Time 2 (β = -.189, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis 3 c servant leadership and performance. The results of the regression indicated that the predictor servant leadership explained .7% of the variance (R^2 = .007, $F(1,315) = 2.374$, $p > .05$, adj.). It was found that servant leadership at Time 1 did not significantly predict performance at Time 2 (β = .086, $p > .05$).

Hypothesis 4 c passive leadership and engagement. The results of the regression indicated that the predictor passive leadership explained 1.8% of the variance (R^2 = .018, $F(1,316) = 5.83$, $p < .001$, adj.). It was found that passive leadership at Time 1 predicted lower levels of engagement at Time 2 (β = -.135, $p < .001$).

Table 5

Linear model of servant leadership as a predictor.

Servant Leadership Time 1	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Engagement Time 2	.317	.069	.250	4.596	.000
Burnout Time 2	-.248	.073	-.189	-3.412	.001
Performance Time 2	.138	.089	.086	1.541	.124

Note. N = 318 (work engagement), 317.

Hypothesis 5 c passive leadership and burnout. The results of the regression indicated that the predictor passive leadership explained 6.6% of the variance (R^2 = .066, $F(1,315)$ = 22.41, $p < .001$, adj.). It was found that passive leadership at Time 1 predicted higher levels of burnout at Time 2 ($\beta = .258$, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis 6 c passive leadership and performance. The results of the regression indicated that the predictor passive leadership explained 1% of the variance (R^2 = .01, $F(1,315)$ = 3.308, $p > .05$, adj.). It was found that passive leadership at Time 1 did not significantly predict performance at Time 2 ($\beta = -.102$, $p > .05$).

Post Hoc Analysis

Hypothesis 1 a and 2 a (Time 1). In order to test the hypothesis that servant leadership (b = .32) and passive leadership (b = -.19) standardized beta weights for engagement at Time 1 were statistically significant from each other, their corresponding 95% confidence intervals were estimated via bias corrected bootstrap (1000 re-samples). In the event that the confidence intervals overlapped by less than 50%, the beta weights would be considered statistically significant from each other ($p < .05$; (Cumming, 2009)). As can be seen in Figure 5, there appeared to be no overlap in the confidence intervals (p. 59). As the passive leadership upper

Table 6

Linear model of passive leadership as a predictor.

Passive Leadership Time 1	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*
Engagement Time 2	-.19	.079	-.135	-2.417	.016
Burnout Time 2	.377	.080	.258	4.734	.000
Performance Time 2	-.181	.100	-.102	-1.819	.015

Note. N = 318 (work engagement), 317.

bound estimate of .11 did not exceed the lower bound estimate for servant leadership of .22, the difference between the servant leadership and passive leadership standardised beta weights (Δb = .52) was considered statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis 3 a and 4 a (Time 1). In order to test the hypothesis that servant leadership (b = -.01) and passive leadership (b = .37) standardized beta weights for burnout at Time 1 were statistically significant from each other, their corresponding 95% confidence intervals were estimated via bias corrected bootstrap (1000 re-samples). In the event that the confidence intervals overlapped by less than 50%, the beta weights would be considered statistically significant from each other ($p < .05$; (Cumming, 2009)). As can be seen in Figure 5, there appeared to be no overlap in the confidence intervals (p. 59). As the servant leadership upper bound estimate of .13 did not exceed the lower bound estimate for passive leadership of .24, the difference between the servant leadership and passive leadership standardised beta weights (Δb = .37) was considered statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis 5 a and 6 a (Time 1). In order to test the hypothesis that servant leadership (b = .09) and passive leadership (b = -.08) standardized beta weights for performance at T1 were statistically significant from each other, their corresponding 95% confidence intervals were estimated via bias corrected bootstrap (1000 re-samples). In the event that the confidence

intervals overlapped by less than 50%, the beta weights would be considered statistically significant from each other ($p < .05$; (Cumming, 2009)). As can be seen in Figure 5, there appeared to be approximately 50% overlap in the confidence intervals (p. 59). To evaluate the hypothesis more precisely, half of the average of the overlapping confidence intervals was calculated (.07) and added to the servant leadership beta weight lower bound estimate (-.06), which yielded .01. As the passive leadership upper bound estimate of .05 exceeded the value of .01, the difference between the servant leadership and passive leadership standardised beta weights ($\Delta b = .18$) was not considered statistically significant ($p > .05$).

Hypothesis 1 b and 2 b (Time 2). In order to test the hypothesis that servant leadership ($b = .43$) and passive leadership ($b = .03$) standardized beta weights for engagement at Time 2 were statistically significant from each other, their corresponding 95% confidence intervals were estimated via bias corrected bootstrap (1000 re-samples). In the event that the confidence intervals overlapped by less than 50%, the beta weights would be considered statistically significant from each other ($p < .05$; (Cumming, 2009)). As can be seen in Figure 6, there appeared to be no overlap in the confidence intervals (p. 60). As the passive leadership upper bound estimate of .16 did not exceed the lower bound estimate for servant leadership of .33, the difference between the servant leadership and passive leadership standardised beta weights ($\Delta b = .40$) was considered statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis 3 b and 4 b (Time 2). In order to test the hypothesis that servant leadership ($b = -.01$) and passive leadership ($b = .37$) standardized beta weights for burnout at Time 2 were statistically significant from each other, their corresponding 95% confidence intervals were estimated via bias corrected bootstrap (1000 re-samples). In the event that the confidence intervals overlapped by less than 50%, the beta weights would be considered statistically significant from each other ($p < .05$; (Cumming, 2009)). As can be seen in Figure 6, there

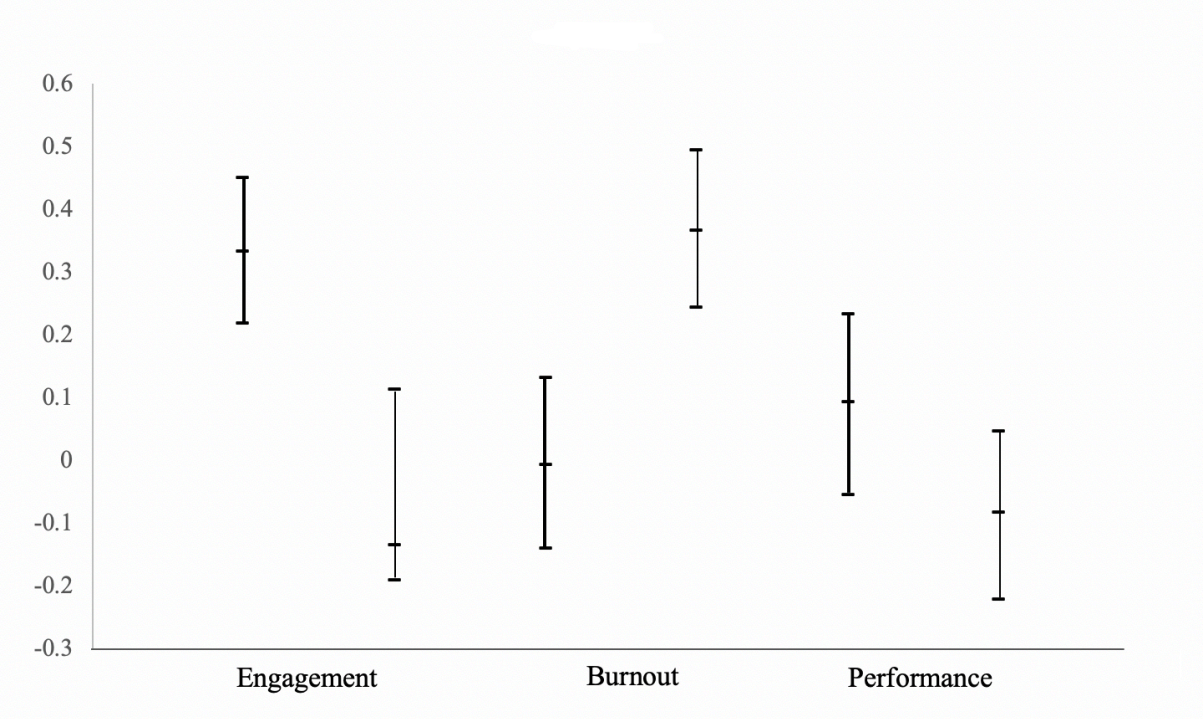

Figure 5. Confidence intervals comparing engagement, burnout, and performance levels for servant and passive leadership at Time 1.

Note. Servant Leadership = ——— Passive Leadership = ———

appeared to be no overlap in the confidence intervals (p. 60). As the servant leadership upper bound estimate of .04 did not exceed the lower bound estimate for passive leadership of .12, the difference between the servant leadership and passive leadership standardised beta weights (Δb = .36) was considered statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Hypothesis 5 b and 6 b (Time 2). In order to test the hypothesis that servant leadership (b = .17) and passive leadership (b = .02) standardized beta weights for performance at Time 2 were statistically significant from each other, their corresponding 95% confidence intervals were estimated via bias corrected bootstrap (1000 re-samples). In the event that the confidence intervals overlapped by less than 50%, the beta weights would be considered statistically significant from each other ($p < .005$; (Cumming, 2009)). As can be seen in Figure 6, there appeared to be approximately 50% overlap in the confidence intervals (p. 60). To evaluate the hypothesis more precisely, half of the average of the overlapping confidence intervals was

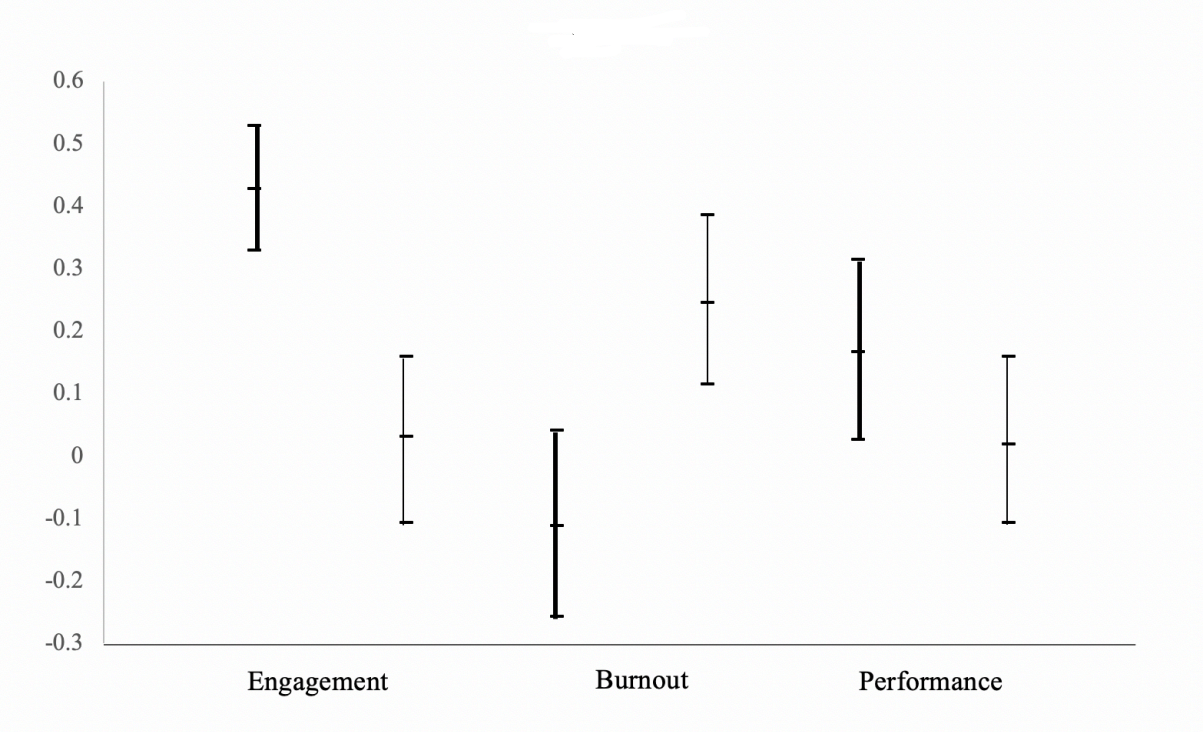

Figure 6. Confidence intervals comparing engagement, burnout, and performance levels for servant and passive leadership at Time 2.

Note. Servant Leadership = ——— Passive Leadership = ———

calculated (.07) and added to the servant leadership beta weight lower bound estimate (.03), which yielded .10. As the passive leadership upper bound estimate of .16 exceeded the value of .10, the difference between the servant leadership and passive leadership standardised beta weights (Δb = .15) was not considered statistically significant ($p > .05$).

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a detailed report of the results of statistical analyses carried out on the data obtained at both Time 1 and Time 2. Hypotheses 1a/b/c, 2a/b/c, 3a/b, 4a/b, 5a/b/c were strongly supported. Hypotheses 3a, 6a and 4c were moderately supported by the results. See figure's 1 and 2 for a detailed diagram of the theoretical model and the results (p. 28). The following chapter aims to discuss these results in more depth.

Discussion Chapter

The current study was designed to explore the influence two non-heroic or non-observable leadership styles have on employee self-reported work outcomes including engagement, burnout, and performance at two time points. Existing literature looking at the effects of both servant leadership and passive leadership on specific outcomes such as engagement, burnout, and performance is minimal.

This study aims to contribute to the growing body of literature regarding these two leadership styles within industrial/organisational psychology literature and further add to the dialogue regarding non-heroic or non-observant leadership. It also highlights the importance of how underlying, unobservable behaviours can have a significant impact both positively and negatively depending on the specific behaviours that are practiced by a leader.

In exploring this relationship, the present study found that servant leadership at both Time 1 and Time 2 was positively related to engagement and performance, and negatively related to burnout at both Time 1 and Time 2. The findings also revealed that servant leadership at Time 1 was related to engagement and burnout at Time 2. However, an insignificant relationship was found between servant leadership at Time 1 and performance at Time 2.

Passive leadership at Time 1 was found to be negatively related to engagement and performance, and positively related to burnout at Time 1. At Time 2 the findings were similar with the exception of an insignificant relationship between passive leadership and performance. The relationship between passive leadership at Time 1 and engagement at Time 2 was negative. Further, the relationship between passive leadership at Time 1 and burnout at Time 2 was also negative. However, the relationship between passive leadership at Time 1 and performance at Time 2 was found to be insignificant.

The following chapter has been divided up into a number of distinct sections; an examination of the direct relationships between servant leadership, passive leadership and the work outcomes of engagement, burnout and performance; discussion and interpretation of post hoc analysis findings; discussion of the practical implications of the current study; strengths and limitations of the study; suggestions for the direction of future research; and concluding remarks.

Direct Relationships - Engagement

Servant leadership. Existing literature has found a positive relationship between the emerging leadership style known as servant leadership and the work outcome engagement (Chan & Mak, 2014; Hunter et al., 2013). The present study corroborates this research with findings demonstrating a positive relationship between servant leadership and engagement. Additionally, the findings of the present study are in line with that of the JD-R model discussed in chapter one. According to the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), employee engagement is higher when job resources are high. Servant leadership at both Time 1 and Time 2 was found to be positively related to engagement at Time 1 and Time 2. Results for this analysis were significant at both Time 1 and Time 2. This further supports the idea that forms of positive leadership, in particular that of servant leadership, have a positive impact on employee engagement and provides support for Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c. As servant leaders provide emotional support as well as feedback, the emotional needs of employees are met resulting in better role clarity and they are capable of immersing themselves in work related tasks. Moreover, it highlights how ‘good’ leadership behaviours do not necessarily need to be overt or ‘heroic’ in order to have a positive impact on employee engagement. This is an important revelation as it challenges the traditional definition of leadership referred to in chapter one.

The relationship between servant leadership and engagement over time has not yet been explored. However, one study exploring the longitudinal relationship between servant leadership and job boredom - a construct related to engagement (Reijseger et al., 2013) - found a positive relationship to exist over time (Harju et al., 2018). The present study found servant leadership to have a positive relationship with engagement over time with a regression analysis suggesting that servant leadership at Time 1 predicted higher levels of engagement at Time 2. These findings provide further support for Hypothesis 1c.

Passive leadership. An exploration of the literature to form Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c revealed minimal studies investigating the relationship between passive leadership and engagement. However, one study revealed that passive leadership was related to lower levels of employee engagement (Nelson & Shraim, 2015). The present study's findings supported these findings revealing a negative relationship between passive leadership at both Time 1 and Time 2, with engagement at Time 1 and Time 2 demonstrating support for Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c. These findings support the idea that passive leadership can significantly decrease employee engagement. Furthermore, they are supported by the JD-R model referred to in chapter one. The JD-R model suggests that absence of support from a leader can elicit a cynical attitude towards work. The detriment of this cynical or resentful attitude can also have an indirect effect on followers' psychological health resulting in anxiety and depression. Furthermore, a lack of punishment or reward for good or bad performance negatively relates to employee satisfaction with supervision and role clarity (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Passive leaders do not reward or punish followers for certain behaviours. When role ambiguity is high, engagement is likely to be lower as employees are unsure of the parameters of the tasks at hand. As lack of feedback and support are two central characteristics of passive leadership the results from the present study were not surprising.

Studies exploring the relationship between passive leadership and engagement over-time were non-existent at the time of the present study. Hypothesis 2c was formulated based on cross-sectional research investigating this relationship (see above). In the present study a regression analysis revealed that passive leadership at Time 1 significantly predicted lower levels of employee engagement at Time 2. These findings are important as it demonstrates that passive leadership, if prolonged, can have detrimental effects long term.

Direct Relationships - Burnout

Servant leadership. Past research into the relationship between servant leadership and burnout has been found to be negative (Rivkin, Diestel, & Schmidt, 2014). More specifically, servant leadership has been found to relate to both day level indicators of strain as well as long term indicators of strain in regard to emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation (Rivkin et al., 2014). The results from the present study confirm these findings as servant leadership at both Time 1 and Time 2 was found to be negatively related with burnout at Time 1 and Time 2 demonstrating a negative relationship. These findings support the idea that servant leadership can help to reduce the effects of negative work outcomes such as burnout for employees in the workplace and supported Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c. Furthermore, these findings can be supported by the JD-R model outlined in chapter one which suggests that when job resources are high this helps to reduce the impact of job demands on job strain. The job resource central to this argument is supervisor support. Exhaustion (as mentioned in chapter one) is a key characteristic of job strain. Emotional exhaustion is one of three factors (along with depersonalisation and personal accomplishment) included in the burnout scale. When servant leaders provide emotional support and followers receive instrumental help, the effects of job demands on job strain are buffered due to the a high quality relationship between the leader and follower that is maintained by the behaviours exhibited. Furthermore, when servant leaders

provide feedback to followers this affords them the necessary information to maintain their performance and subsequently remain healthy.

Longitudinal research into the relationship between servant leadership and burnout over time is scarce. However, the study conducted by Rivkin et al. (2014) also looked at servant leadership and burnout over time suggesting that servant leadership reduces the impact of long-term strain (emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation). Findings from the present study confirm this, revealing that servant leadership at Time 1 significantly related to lower levels of burnout at Time 2 supporting Hypothesis 3c. The findings demonstrate how servant leadership can reduce the effects of negative work outcomes such as burnout. This has important implications for employees and organisations as the cost of burnout can lead to physical and psychological health issues such as anxiety and depression, and in turn, lead to higher absenteeism and turnover. Reducing burnout will therefore have the opposite impact.

Passive leadership. Only one study has investigated the direct relationship between passive leadership and burnout revealing that the leadership style is directly related to the emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishment dimensions of burnout (Kanste, 2008). Kanste (2008) found passive leadership to increase emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation and decrease personal accomplishment. Based on the findings from Kanste (2008) we predicted that a positive relationship would be found between passive leadership at both Time 1 and 2 and burnout at both Time 1 and 2. The results confirmed this positive relationship suggesting that passive leadership increases the level of burnout that employees experience, supporting Hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c. However, the present study explored the relationship using the dimensions of burnout 'emotional exhaustion' and 'depersonalisation' as one higher order factor with the exclusion of the 'personal accomplishment' dimension due to low reliability of 'personal accomplishment'. As discussed above, servant leadership – a 'good' leadership style – is suggested to buffer the effects of job strain on employees according

to the JD-R model. Given that passive leadership is considered a 'bad' leadership style it was hypothesized in the present study that passive leadership would increase levels of burnout. The findings of the present study support this hypothesis as employees do not have the required resources in order to cope with added job demands. Abdicating responsibility is also a characteristic central to passive leadership (Dóci et al., 2015). This can contribute to role overload as when an overwhelming degree of responsibility is given to followers, in conjunction with a lack of sufficient information, followers may not have enough time (physical resources) or knowledge (psychological: mental and emotional resources) to fulfil the requirements of a task. An increase in role overload also means that the job demands have increased, therefore increasing job strain. Furthermore, 'bad' leadership is also considered a job demand itself. Passive leadership behaviours have until now been excluded from the JD-R model. As the effects of passive leadership are becoming more widely explored empirically and its recent inclusion in the destructive leadership domain, perhaps it is time to consider reconceptualising the JD-R model to include passive behaviours as job demands.

Regardless, the findings of the present study corroborate existing research on the relationship between passive leadership and burnout and reveal the importance of recognising passive behaviours within the workplace and that 'no behaviour' can have deleterious effects upon followers. This highlights the need to start addressing passive behaviours exhibited by leaders in order to reduce the costs of such leadership to both employees and organisations. Given that passive leadership has been found to be one of the most prevalent leadership styles, there is arguably a need for a shift from focussing on positive heroic leadership styles towards the non-heroic under the radar leadership styles as it presents an issue where a significant portion of the workforce is currently being affected.

Hypothesis 4c was formulated based on the cross-sectional studies exploring the relationship between passive leadership and burnout as the longitudinal relationship is yet to

be explored empirically. Results from the regression analysis supported Hypothesis 4c revealing that passive leadership at Time 1 significantly predicted higher levels of burnout at Time 2. These findings are important as it confirms that when passive leadership is prolonged, the effects are lasting. Given the negative consequences of passive leadership in the present study in accordance with the literature at a cross sectional level it is important to consider the implications of increased levels of burnout on both employees and organisations over extended time periods. Based on the present study's findings it is likely that passive leadership may be indirectly related to physiological and psychological outcomes associated with burnout such as anxiety and depression. Furthermore, organisations may also be negatively impacted by increased burnout levels as it is possible that absenteeism, turnover, and reduced productivity (this relationship will be discussed further below) will increase as a result of passive leadership over time. Thus, it is important to understand passive leadership behaviours as a reference point to begin reducing passive leadership behaviour occurring.

Direct Relationships - Performance

Servant leadership. Findings from the present study corroborate existing research which suggests that servant leadership has a positive relationship with performance (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Northouse, 2018). Servant leadership at Time 1 and Time 2 was found to be positively related to performance at Time 1 and Time 2 providing support for Hypotheses 5a and 5b. Although a positive relationship was found between servant leadership at Time 1 and performance at Time 2 this was not significant (Hypothesis 5c).

Similar to engagement and burnout the JD-R model is also applicable to the relationship between servant leadership and performance which is supported by these findings. Servant leaders provide support particularly via providing timely, positive, and constructive feedback which provides employees with the intellectual and psychological resources needed to fulfil

required tasks. As suggested in chapter one, when employees are made aware of the areas in which they excel they can be more intentional about ensuring they continue to perform within these areas. Conversely, if made aware of areas which require improvement, they can target these areas leading to improvements in general performance. Furthermore, when support from supervisors is high, the interpersonal relationship between the leader and follower is stronger. The stronger this relationship is, the more likely employees feel engaged (as discussed above) and committed to the organisation. This makes sense given existing research regarding the positive relationship between servant leadership and OCB's (outlined in chapter one). When people (followers') feel that they are cared for personally, they have more positive feelings towards their leader van Dierendonck (2010) proposes a model of servant leadership that highlights the reciprocal nature of the leader-follower relationship. That is that the behaviour of servant-leaders influences the behaviour and job attitudes of followers; the behaviour of the followers then influences how they are treated by the servant leader. This is what is termed an upward spiral, introduced into models of servant leadership by Farling, Stone, and Winston (1999) which stems from the work of Burns (1978) who emphasizes how leaders and followers raise each other to higher levels of motivation and morality (van Dierendonck, 2010). Ultimately, a proposal was put forward suggesting that servant leadership influences organisational climate which consequently influences employee attitudes and performance and vice versa (Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2010). The present study's findings provide support for these arguments and also reveal a new area for future research into how followers' influence a leader's behaviours.

Empirical research regarding the longitudinal relationship between servant leadership and performance is lacking. This study addresses the gap in the literature revealing that servant leadership at Time 1 did not significantly predict performance at Time 2, and therefore did not support Hypothesis 5c. Given the findings at Time 1 and Time 2 were significant, these findings

suggest that this relationship needs to be explored further. The measure utilised in this study does not come without its limitations which may have contributed to the present study's findings. This will be elaborated in the limitations section below (pp. 79 – 80).

Passive leadership. The present study's results provide support for Hypothesis 6a revealing a significant negative relationship between passive leadership at Time 1 and performance at Time 1. These findings are in line with previous research by Howell and Avolio (1993) who found passive leadership (MBEP only) to be negatively related to business unit performance. It would make sense that this relationship exists between passive leadership and performance as characteristics of passive leadership referred to in chapter one such as failure to provide feedback (Dóci et al., 2015), lack of punishment and rewards (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008), and failure to satisfy followers' needs within the workplace (Dóci et al., 2015), are all contributing factors to an individual's ability to complete the required tasks to the best of their ability. The JD-R model was also used to formulate the hypotheses regarding passive leadership and performance. Without feedback, how is one supposed to improve? When a followers' immediate needs are not met, they may not have the sufficient emotional and physical resources to perform tasks as efficiently and effectively as they are capable of. Furthermore, when not punished for poor performance, followers are more likely to continue performing at the same level, and when a followers' high performance is not recognised, they may feel as though their efforts are pointless and therefore reduce their levels of performance. However, the present study's results also contradict the existing research showing an insignificant relationship between passive leadership at Time 2 and performance at Time 2 (Hypothesis 6b).

While some studies have found significant relationships between passive leadership and performance, they cease to acknowledge the effects of passive leadership on employee's performance over time. The present study contributes to addressing this gap in the literature

showing that passive leadership at Time 1 was not a significant predictor of performance at Time 2 (Hypothesis 6c). Theories as to why these results may have occurred are discussed further under the limitations.

Summary of Direct Relationships

The present study appears to be the first of its kind to investigate how employees perceive non heroic or non-active leadership – whether it be positive or 'good' (servant leadership) or negative or 'bad' (passive leadership). The general findings of this thesis confirm that servant leadership is positive in influence, and passive leadership distinctive and negative in influence. Ultimately, the findings suggest that non heroic or non-active behaviours are identifiable by employees, which depending upon the nature of the leadership style can have positive and negative impacts on employee outcomes. Furthermore, as discussed above, these outcomes can have a subsequent impact upon wider organisational outcomes. The positive nature of servant leadership was supported by the positive impact upon engagement and reduction in burnout. Additionally, this study shows that employees are able to identify passive leadership behaviours, and the outcomes of such leadership behaviour support the detrimental, long term, destructiveness of passive leadership. Furthermore, this thesis highlights servant leadership as a leadership style with huge growth potential.

Post Hoc Findings

Indeed, given the above outcomes for servant leadership and passive leadership, it was decided to explore the strength of these relationships using *t*-tests. The findings indicated that servant leadership and passive leadership scores for engagement, and burnout at both Time 1 and Time 2 were significantly different from each other. Moreover, post hoc analysis found that servant leadership had a more positive effect on engagement than passive leadership and

passive leadership had a more positive effect on burnout than servant leadership. Although the post hoc analysis observed that servant leadership had a more positive impact on performance than passive leadership, the difference was not significant.

At both Time 1 and Time 2, the direction of the effect is positive for servant leadership. Employee engagement increased more as a servant leader exhibited stronger servant leadership/more servant leadership behaviours. Conversely, it was found that the direction of the effect of passive leadership on engagement was negative meaning that employees became less engaged the more passive their leader behaved.

The direction of the effect of servant leadership on burnout was found to be negative meaning that the more a leader exhibited servant leadership behaviours the less burnt out employees felt. Alternatively, the direction of the effect on burnout was positive for passive leadership at both Time 1 and Time 2, meaning the more passive a leader was, the higher the level of burnout experienced by employees.

Whilst the direction of the relationship was as expected for both servant leadership and passive leadership's effect on performance at both Time 1 and Time 2 (positive for servant leadership and negative for passive leadership), neither servant nor passive leadership appeared to influence increases or decreases in the self-reported performance for employees at significantly different rates.

Overall, the results suggest that both servant and passive leadership have a significant effect on employee engagement and burnout over time. Under servant leadership, employees are likely to be more engaged and less burnt out whereas under passive leadership employees are likely to be less engaged and more burnt out.

As mentioned above, the results of the post hoc analysis confirm that servant leadership and passive leadership are distinctly different despite the similarity of their non-heroic nature. Making this distinction is critical as there is a growing interest in providing followers with

autonomy. Confusing supportive autonomy with complete autonomy (passivity) poses a number of issues. Whilst almost all research regarding passive leadership has found negative consequences for the organisation and employees a recent study by Yang (2015) takes a more positive approach to passive leadership, arguing that it may not necessarily be the absence of leadership but instead a leader's strategic choice to improve followers' self-determination, self-competence, and autonomy, and to decrease their dependency. Essentially, Yang (2015) suggests that passive leadership is a strategic choice implemented to empower their followers. Whilst Yang's arguments have significant merit, there are also some questions to ask ourselves; perhaps it is a lack of understanding of the expectation to be autonomous on the followers' part, or that autonomy and support can coincide with theories like Self Determination (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). While discussion of other theoretical models is beyond this thesis, these finding suggest that passive and servant leadership are different in their support (or otherwise) not 'just' autonomy. Perhaps support is part of feeling comfortable with autonomy, is knowing that there is a support system to revert to when necessary. This aligns with the JD-R model which states supervisory support as a significant job resource. Therefore, servant leadership can be distinguished from passive leadership as it affords followers both autonomy and support, whereas passive leadership potentially only provides followers with autonomy.

While this proposition requires further testing, this thesis highlights that unobservable leadership behaviours can be both good and bad – and employees are able to detect the difference. As such this reveals a need to be able to recognise good and bad (non-heroic) leadership within the workplace as the cost of ignoring passive leadership are detrimental to both employees and organisations. Furthermore, the cost of missing out on increased productivity enhanced by good leadership is also deleterious to an organisational growth.

Practical Implications

This research explored the subjective (self-report) work outcomes for employees under both servant leadership and passive leadership within the workplace. Specifically, the outcomes of engagement, burnout and performance. These relationships were also explored over time. The findings from the present study suggest that non-heroic and non-observable forms of leadership such as servant leadership and passive leadership should not be ignored or considered null forms of leadership. These findings suggest that leadership does not necessarily need to consist of actively visible behaviours in order to be effective/ineffective or constructive/destructive. Underlying behaviours or lack of behaviours that occur behind the scenes (in the background) can also be instrumental in influencing employee engagement, burnout, and performance.

Most existing literature on destructive leadership excludes passive leadership from destructive leadership styles. The present study revealed that passive leadership reduces employee engagement and increases employee burnout which suggests that passive leadership behaviours threaten the motivations, job satisfaction and well-being of followers. Given these are defining factors of a destructive leadership style, labelling passive leadership as destructive would be the natural conclusion. This is supported by scholars who have begun to advocate for its inclusion as a destructive leadership style (Harold & Holtz, 2015) and it has been found as one of the most prevalent leadership types employees are exposed to (Merethe Schanke. Aasland et al., 2009; Barling & Frone, 2017). Perhaps labelling passive leadership as a destructive leadership style will draw more attention to the detrimental effects of avoidant or non-heroic/unobservable behaviours to both followers and organisations.

Additionally, this research explored the impact of passive leadership on employee engagement, burnout, and performance. Most of these relationships remain largely

unaddressed within the literature. Within many industries there appears to be a growing number of individuals appointed as managers suddenly burdened with positional power yet lacking the skills to lead. Without the skills to display good leadership *and* good management, they are less likely to succeed within their role, and at achieving organisational goals. Furthermore, they are likely to behave destructively both actively or passively. The impacts upon employees and organisations have been found to be predominantly negative and the present study confirms this as findings revealed a negative relationship between passive leadership and engagement, and performance, as well as a positive relationship with burnout. Furthermore, as aforementioned, passive leadership has been revealed by some scholars as the most prevalent leadership style (Aasland et al., 2010). As a leader's directives and behaviours influence follower behaviours and well-being at work (Schmid et al., 2018), an individual's ability to lead and manage is critical. The present study highlights how un-observable or passive behaviours can be detrimental, drawing attention to the need to shift focus towards leadership styles that are characterized by their non-heroic nature.

The present study looks specifically at the relationship between employee's perception of their current leader's leadership style and their own levels of engagement burnout and performance. This presents an interesting observation as the results may have been different given the employees self-reported levels of engagement, burnout and performance were rated against their leader's actual (observable) leadership style. However, determining and measuring a leader's actual performance would be complex (discussed further below). Bogler et al. (2013) make an important observation about leadership and its influence on follower outcomes suggesting that it is not necessarily a leader's actual behaviours or tangible benefits which influence the followers but the follower's perception of the leader's behaviours. Whilst a passive leader may not believe that they are being passive it may be that their followers are perceiving them to be absent and inactive which is causing this dissatisfaction. Alternatively,

although servant leadership behaviours may not be overt, they are recognized positively by followers. Using the theoretical underpinnings of Bogler et al. (2013), the findings of the present study may therefore be more accurate in detecting a relationship between these leadership styles and work-related outcomes such as engagement, burnout and performance.

Strengths of the Current Study

The present study has a number of notable strengths which should be considered when interpreting the results. Firstly, within the body of literature, longitudinal studies are rare. This study uses a time lag of four weeks, which is albeit a short time lag, however longitudinal, nonetheless. Use of a longitudinal design made it possible to substantiate a plausible causal direction between servant leadership, passive leadership and the work outcomes engagement, burnout and performance. The majority of existing research on these two leadership styles and work outcomes for employees is cross-sectional. Therefore, the present study is making an important contribution to the leadership field. Additionally, comparing a destructive and constructive leadership style within a longitudinal design such as this is even rarer. Studies have yet to be conducted to compare servant leadership and passive leadership and the impact they have on engagement, burnout, and performance of employees. This study adds new information to the existing body of literature in the field of leadership.

Servant leadership is also an emerging leadership style gaining traction within both the corporate and research arenas. It is more distinct than transformational leadership (Ehrhart, 2004; Panaccio et al., 2014) and is more compatible with the contemporary perspectives of organisations operating in today's labour market primarily due to its focus on the community. The findings of the present study reveal that it has positive outcomes for employee engagement and performance, as well as aiding the reduction of employee's levels of burnout. This study

therefore provides an important contribution to the servant leadership literature showing that it is a leadership style deserving of further attention.

Due to the ability to employ an online research services company (Research Now) to gather the data, it was possible to obtain a large sample of full-time employees across two time points. This therefore improved the power of the sample and consequently, aided the study's ability to reveal significant findings.

Limitations and Future Research

Whilst the current study had a number of strengths, there were also a number of limitations which include the self-report measure, a short time lag, shortened scales for a number of the constructs measured, homogeneity of the ethnic make up of the sample, reactivity, and the lack of a universal measure of servant leadership, along with a number of other limitations.

One limitation of the current study is the variance associated with the measurement method used known as Common Method Variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) as it may produce misleading results. As the current study involved self-report for the outcomes of engagement, burnout, and performance, participants' responses may vary due to the halo-effect, and social desirability (when participants respond to questions in such a way that portrays them in a positive light). Although the survey was anonymous in order to encourage honest participation, it is possible that participants may not have responded to all the questions in an honest manner. However, it is important to note that engagement and burnout is in the 'eye of the beholder' and it is important to acknowledge that the responses obtained from participants are a representation of their personal thoughts and feelings at work. We can acknowledge that this may not be the same for performance. However, it is important to consider how employees feel regarding their performance levels. It would also be interesting

to compare employee perceptions of their performance with their actual performance within the context of this study. It is therefore important to keep this in mind when interpreting the results.

Whilst this study is of a longitudinal design, the time lag is short (four weeks). Although this time lag was the most convenient given the nature of the study to examine the true long-term effects of both servant and passive leadership a longer time lag is desirable. Future studies should look at a time lag of at least six months. However, ideally a time lag of two years would be appropriate as employee attitudes may change over longer periods of time. Therefore, longitudinal studies using several measurement points over an extended period of time would be beneficial in adding to the body of literature/knowledge on how both servant and passive leadership impacts work outcomes for employees both short- and long-term. Good and bad leadership may impact employee work outcomes differently over time. Therefore, this may also help us to dissect the argument that 'bad is stronger than good'.

Some of the scales and questionnaires used within the broader survey to measure some of the constructs were shortened versions of the original scales. Although the scales proved to be reliable and factorially discriminant, further evidence of their validity is required. As the questionnaires and scales used in the current study were only a small subset of the questionnaires and scales used in the wider questionnaire it would likely be beneficial to replicate the current study with only the questionnaires and scales used presently however adapted to include the full scales. This would help us gain a more accurate understanding of how servant leadership and passive leadership impact employee engagement, burnout, and performance.

The participants in the study were recruited from organisations within New Zealand. Unfortunately, the demographic information regarding participants' ethnicity was not obtained preventing us from procuring a fuller picture of the sample's homogeneity in regard to

ethnicity. Whilst it is likely that the sample was predominantly white due to the westernized context, we cannot confirm this. Despite this, it would be beneficial to replicate this study within both other westernized contexts as well as non-westernized contexts in order to ascertain as to whether these findings are consistent across different cultures and contexts.

The survey used in the present study was distributed to participants online. This meant that researchers had no control over the environment in which each participant completed the surveys. Participants could have been at work in an office, or at home. Depending on the psychological climate of the environment, if the participants were feeling particularly stressed or relaxed, connected or disconnected with their work, this could have impacted how they responded to the sub scales and questionnaires within the wider questionnaire. Whilst it is assumed that the participant was filling it out themselves, the possibility that a co-worker or spouse may have filled out the survey on their behalf must be considered. This is important to keep in mind whilst interpreting the results.

The present study was longitudinal, meaning the survey was administered twice. Therefore, it needs to be acknowledged that participants responses in the second questionnaire may be influenced by their responses in the first questionnaire due to reactivity. Furthermore, participants may have discussed the questionnaire with colleagues, further influencing their responses.

Servant leadership remains an elusive leadership style with no universal operational definition or concrete theory. Spears (2002) never formulated a model following the development of 10 characteristics attributed to the servant leadership style referred to in Chapter 1, which differentiated between intrapersonal, interpersonal, and outcomes of servant leadership (van Dierendonck, 2010). A number of variations of these ten dimensions have been developed by scholars over the decades since (Barbuto Jr & Wheeler, 2006; Dennis &

Bocarnea, 2005; Laub, 1999; Northouse, 2018; Sendjaya et al., 2008; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Wong & Davey, 2007).

The current study used the measure of servant leadership developed by Ehrhart (2004) as it fitted in well with the wider questionnaire. This was primarily based on the fact that it was a relatively short questionnaire and it had previously shown to have good reliability and validity. It was therefore a convenient choice. However, whilst it appears to measure servant leadership (face validity) as mentioned in the introduction chapter, servant leadership has not yet been operationally defined and a universal measure of the leadership style has not yet been developed. This is partially due to the lack of agreement on the specific constructs that make up servant leadership which therefore make it difficult to ascertain whether it is in fact measuring servant leadership itself (content validity). It is therefore important to consider that a different measure of servant leadership may have elicited differing results from those found in the present study.

Further investigation into whether this measure of servant leadership correlates with other measures of servant leadership to improve the validity of the current study's findings (concurrent validity) is necessary. The lack of a consistent and universal operational definition of the leadership style means there is also no universal measure (van Dierendonck, 2010). Such a lack of operationalisation of servant leadership has hindered and continues to hinder, the progress of empirical research. To gain a proper understanding of how servant leadership impacts employee outcomes a universal operational definition and theory of servant leadership needs to be developed.

The nonsignificant finding of performance may reflect the questionnaire used. The World Health Organisation Health and Performance Questionnaire (HPQ) was utilised to measure the construct 'performance' investigated in the present study and presented a number of issues. This questionnaire consisted of three questions, only one of which was used to

measure an individuals performance (*Your own overall job performance on the days you have worked during the past six months*?). This was also self reported. Given participants' performance was based on just one question as opposed to a more holistic view via responses to a number of questions this may have compromised the accuracy of participants' actual performance. Additionally, considering that the time lag was only four weeks and the question asked for individual's perceptions of their performance over a six month time period it is understandable that perceptions of performance would be almost identical at both Time 1 and Time 2 which effectively renders the longitudinal findings regarding the performance outcome useless. However, measuring performance is difficult, and this measure was the most convenient method for the current study's research purposes given it was part of a wider questionnaire. Regardless, these results must therefore be interpretted with caution and it is recommended that a longer time lag (minimum of six months) be employed should a replication of this study be conducted.

Concluding Remarks

To conclude, the present study explored the relationship between two non-heroic leadership styles (servant leadership and passive leadership) and the work outcomes engagement, burnout, and performance both cross-sectionally and longitudinally. The findings suggest that both leadership styles have a profound impact on engagement and burnout. However, whilst a positive relationship was revealed between servant leadership and performance, the relationship between passive leadership and performance was found to be insignificant. Longitudinal relationships also revealed that servant leadership positively predicted employee engagement and negatively predicted employee burnout. The reverse was found for passive leadership revealing that passive leadership negatively predicted employee engagement and positively predicted employee burnout. However, the longitudinal

relationships between servant leadership and passive leadership and performance were insignificant. The present study draws the focus away from active and manifest leadership behaviours and highlights the importance of recognising and addressing leadership behaviours that are non-heroic or nonobservable. Being one of the first studies to compare the effects of two such leadership styles, it contributes a unique perspective to the body of leadership literature providing a springboard for future research to explore these relationships further.

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Appendix A: Information sheet and Consent form

Information Sheet

Research Project: How bad is bad leadership?

Thank you for showing interest in being a part of this research study, your contribution is much appreciated.

Different leadership approaches can have a large effect on employees' performance and well-being and this research project aims to identify some of these effects for both the employees and the leaders themselves. The study is being conducted by Dr Maree Roche (maree.roche@waikato.ac.nz) and Dr Anna Sutton (anna.sutton@waikato.ac.nz) in the School of Psychology at the University of Waikato, New Zealand.

This research project has been approved by the School of Psychology Research and Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of Waikato. Any questions about the ethical conduct of this research may be sent to the convenor of the Research and Ethics Committee (e-mail ethics@waikato.ac.nz).

What is involved?

Should you choose to continue, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire about your experience of, as well as thoughts and feelings about your work. The questionnaire will take about 20-30 minutes.

This is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers: we are interested in discovering your true views, feelings and encounters in the workplace. Please be as honest as you can.

Confidentiality/ Anonymity

The data we collect does not contain any personal information about you. You do not need to provide your name. All your responses go directly to the researcher via a licensed software survey platform provided by the University of Waikato, and will not go through your

organisation. Therefore, you can be assured that your responses cannot be traced back to an individual for any appraisal or other human resource decisions. Results collected are solely for research purposes.

The researchers will keep all study records, and no one else will have access to the records. At the conclusion of this study, the researcher will publish the findings in an aggregated form and your data will not be personally identified.

Potential risks and questions

There may be potential but minimum psychological discomfort if you recall an uncomfortable incident that happened at work. You are welcome to discontinue the study at any point, simply by closing your browser.

If you have any questions about the study either before, during or after completing this questionnaire, please contact one of the researchers, we are happy to help. (For any technical help with completing the survey, please contact Qualtrics direct). If you would like to receive a report on the study's findings, please contact either of the project leaders using their email addresses.

Summary

By proceeding with the online survey, you are agreeing that:

(1) you have read and understood this information

(2) questions about your participation in this study have been answered satisfactorily

(3) you are aware of the potential risks

(4) you are taking part in this research study voluntarily

(5) anonymised data may be shared in public research repositories.

Consent form

School of Psychology

THE UNIVERSITY OF WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

CONSENT FORM

Research Project: How bad is bad leadership?

Please complete the following checklist. Tick (✓) the appropriate box for each point.	**YES**	**NO**
1. I have read the Participant Information Sheet and I understand it.		
2. I have been given sufficient time to consider whether or not to participate in this study		
3. I am satisfied with the answers I have been given regarding the study and I have a copy of this consent form and information sheet		
4. I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary (my choice) and that I may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty		
5. I have the right to decline to participate in any part of the research activity		
6. I know who to contact if I have any questions about the study in general.		
7. I understand that the information supplied by me could be used in future academic publications.		

Declaration by participant:
By clicking "next", I agree to participate in this research project and I understand that I may withdraw at any time. If I have any concerns about this project, I may contact the convenor of the Psychology Research and Ethics Committee (Dr Colin McLeay, Tel: 07 837-9174, email: c.mcleay@waikato.ac.nz)

Appendix B: Survey Items

(Note: *titles of the questionnaires and references were not shown to participants on the online questionnaire*.)

Demographics

	Item	Responses
1	What is your age (years)?	
2	Which gender do you most identify with?	1 = Male 2 = Female 3 = Other (Please specify) 4 = Prefer not to say
3	How many direct reports do you have?	
4	Tenure in current job (years)	
5	Which industry sector are you in?	1. Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing 2. Mining 3. Manufacturing 4. Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services 5. Construction 6. Wholesale Trade 7. Retail Trade and Accommodation 8. Transport, Postal and Warehousing 9. Information Media and Telecommunications 10. Financial and Insurance Services 11. Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services 12. Progressional, Scientific, Technical, Administrative and Support Services 13. Public Administrative and Safety 14. Education and Training 15. Health Care and Social Assistance 16. Arts, Recreation and Other Services
6	Have you ever undertaken any formal leadership training?	1 = Undergraduate university qualification (e.g. BA Management) 2 = Postgraduate university qualification (e.g. MBA) 3 = In-house training 4 = Formal mentorship programme 5 = Other (please specify)

Servant-Leadership Items

Ehrhart, M. (2004). Leadership and procedural justice climate citizenship behavior as antecedents of unit-level organizational. *Personnel Psychology*, *57*(1), 61-94.

Instructions: Please rate the following statements in terms of how true they are of your manager. There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer as honestly as possible.

Response scale (*Likert*): 1 to 5:

1 = "To a small extent"

2 = "To some extent"

3 = "To a moderate extent"

4 = "To a large extent"

5 = "To a very large extent"

1. My manager spends the time to form quality relationships with employees.
2. My manager creates a sense of community among employees.
3. My manager's decisions are influenced by employees' input.
4. My manager tries to reach consensus among employees on important decisions.
5. My manager is sensitive to employees' responsibilities outside the work place.
6. My manager makes the personal development of employees a priority.
7. My manager holds employees to high ethical standards.
8. My manager does what she or he promises to do.
9. My manager balances concern for day-to-day details with projections for the future.
10. My manager displays wide-ranging knowledge and interests in finding solutions to work problems.

11. My manager makes me feel like I work with him/her, not for him/her.
12. My manager works hard at finding ways to help others be the best they can be.
13. My manager encourages employees to be involved in community service and volunteer activities outside of work.
14. My manager emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community.

Passive Leadership Items

Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). *Mind Garden.*

Instructions: Please rate the following statements in terms of how true they are of your manager. There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer as honestly as possible.

Response Scale (*Likert*):

1 = "Not at all"

2 = "Once in a while"

3 = "Sometimes"

4 = "Fairly often"

5 = "Frequently, if not always"

(Passive Management By Exception)

1. Fails to interfere until problems become serious.
2. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.
3. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."
4. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.

(Passive Leadership - Laissez-faire)

5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise.
6. Is absent when needed.
7. Avoids making decisions.
8. Delays responding to urgent questions.

Engagement Items: Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

Schaufeli, W., & Bakker, A. (2003). *Utrecht work engagement scale: Preliminary manual*. Utrecht: Occupational Health Psychology Unit, Utrecht University

Instructions: The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, choose the "0" (zero). If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by choosing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

Response Scale (*Likert*):

0 = "Never"

1 = "Almost never (A few times a year or less)"

2 = "Rarely (Once a month or less)"

3 = "Sometimes (A few times a month)"

4 = "Often (Once a week)"

5 = "Very often (A few times a week)"

6 = "Always (Every day)"

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous
3. I am enthusiastic about my job
4. My job inspires me
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely

7. I am proud of the work that I do
8. I am immersed in my work
9. I get carried away when I’m working

Burnout Items: Abbreviated Maslach Burnout Scale

Adapted from:

McManus, I. C., Jonvik, H., Richards, P., & Paice, E. (2011). Vocation and avocation: Leisure activities correlate with professional engagement, but not burnout, in a cross-sectional survey of UK doctors. *BMC Medicine, 9(*1), 100. https://doi.org/10.1186/1741-7015-9-100

Instructions: The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, choose the "0" (zero). If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by choosing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

Response Scale (*Likert*):

0 = "Never"

1 = "A few times a year"

2 = "Once a month or less"

3 = "A few times a month"

4 = "Once a week"

5 = "A few times a week"

6 = "Everyday"

1. I deal very effectively with the problems I face at work
2. I feel I treat some people as if they were impersonal objects
3. I feel emotionally drained from my work
4. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job
5. I've become more callous towards people since I took this job

6. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work
7. Working with people all day is really a strain for me
8. I don't really care what happens to some people at work
9. I feel exhilarated after working closely with people at work

Appendix C: Reliability Analysis Results Table

Table 7

Cronbach's alpha for servant leadership, passive leadership, engagement, burnout, and performance questionnaires and the appropriate sub factors within those questionnaires.

Factors	Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Cronbach's Alpha based on number of standardised items	Number of items
Servant Leadership			
Servant Leadership T1 (t)	.96	.96	14
Servant Leadership T2 (t)	.96	.96	14
Passive Leadership			
Passive Leadership T1 (t)	.92	.92	8
Passive Leadership T2 (t)	.94	.94	8
Management by Exception T1	.85	.85	4
Management by Exception T2	.88	.88	4
Laissez-faire Leadership T1	.92	.92	4
Laissez-faire Leadership T2	.93	.93	4
Engagement			
Engagement T1 (t)	.94	.94	9
Engagement T2 (t)	.95	.95	9
Vigour T1	.89	.89	3
Vigour T2	.87	.87	3
Absorption T1	.85	.85	3
Absorption T2	.89	.89	3
Dedication T1	.90	.90	3
Dedication T2	.91	.91	3
Burnout			

Burnout T1 (t)	.77	.76	9
Burnout T2 (t)	.76	.75	9
Emotional Exhaustion T1	.82	.82	3
Emotional Exhaustion T2	.81	.82	3
Depersonalisation T1	.75	.75	3
Depersonalisation T2	.78	.78	3
Personal Accomplishment (PA) T1	.57*	.56*	3
Personal Accomplishment (PA) T2	.52*	.51*	3
Burnout PA Removed T1	.83	.83	6
Burnout PA Removed T2	.83	.83	6
Performance			
Performance T1 (t)	.76	.78	3
Performance T2 (t)	.79	.80	3

Cronbach's $\alpha > .7$ = reliable (.7 = acceptable; .8 = good; .9 = excellent) * = removed from scale for final analyses.