FOLLOWERSHIP: A STUDY EXPLORING THE VARIABLES OF EXEMPLARY

FOLLOWERSHIP

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Graduate Faculty
of the
North Dakota State University
of Agriculture and Applied Science

By

Brian Wayne Rook

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Major Program:
Education
Option: Occupational and Adult Education

October 2018

Fargo, North Dakota

North Dakota State University
Graduate School

Title

FOLLOWERSHIP: A STUDY EXPLORING THE VARIABLES OF EXEMPLARY
FOLLOWERSHIP

By

Brian Rook

The Supervisory Committee certifies that this *disquisition* complies with North Dakota

State University's regulations and meets the accepted standards for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

SUPERVISORY COMMITTEE:

Dr. Brent Hill

Chair

Dr. Claudette Peterson

Dr. Nathan Wood

Dr. Tim Peterson

Approved:

11/16/2018	Dr. Chris Ray
Date	Department Chair

ABSTRACT

This dissertation investigates exemplary followership and multiple variables identified as possible predictors of exemplary followership. The study examines relationship between exemplary followership and: organizational citizenship behavior sub-factors of individual and organizational; psychological collectivism; and team player. The topic was chosen as it relates to the evolution of employees in the workplace wherein employees in a follower role are more accountable to the performance of the organization. Moreover, most of the existing research on followership are through the lens of leadership and based in theory with little contribution to empirical evidence. Organizations and leaders are more dependent on the performance of their followers than before, and the need for exemplary followers is higher than before to meet evolving organizational needs. This dissertation examines predictor variables of exemplary followership and how to develop those variables to improve exemplary followership behaviors.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following people who have helped me undertake this research:

- My Co-Chair Dr. Tim Peterson for his expertise, guidance, and enthusiasm for this project over multiple years of work.

- My wife, Margery Rook, for the inspiration to start this project, and the years of dedicated support and encouragement to complete the project.

- My Committee: Dr. Brent Hill (Chair/Advisor); Dr. Claudette Peterson; and Dr. Nate Wood for the commitment to the years of this project and continued growth.

- To my employers over the years for data collection, use of technology and equipment, and encouragement for completing this project.

- The team at Surveymonkey for helping align my study with a researcher to gather more participants.

- My parents and siblings for all the encouragement over the years.

- North Dakota State University EDP for equipping me with the skills to make this research a reality.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

viii

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

LMX...Leader-Member Exchange

OCB ....Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OCB-I.. Organizational Citizenship Behavior – Individual

OCB-O ....Organizational Citizenship Behavior – Organization

PC...Psychological Collectivism

PTPS .... Parker Team Player Survey

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Organizations vary in size and purpose and take form through a multitude of appearances such as a loose confederation of individuals, not-for-profit, for profit, or largely complex structures. They are entities developed to pursue a specific purpose or achieve a common mission wherein leaders and followers engage in different functions deemed necessary for the success of the entity. Although organizations are developed by leaders and followers, the successes are often attributed to the effectiveness of its leaders (Jordan, 2009). Leadership has been defined in multiple ways; however, most scholars generally define leadership as a process of influence to achieve a shared purpose (Bass, 1990; Hollander, 1985). The definition has evolved over history wherein early stages of leadership involved leader-follower patterns that emerged as a need of reaching consensus for timing group action. Later stages of leadership evolved to reflect modern definitions; however, the significance of group coordination has been constant throughout the evolution of leadership (Van Vugt, 2006).

The significance of group coordination among leadership, and its consistency throughout its evolution is implicative of the interdependence among leaders and followers. This interdependence involves the leader having an intimate knowledge of the follower's needs. Rath and Conchie (2008) discuss this interdependence through the lens of strength-based leadership wherein they suggest effective leaders surround themselves with the right people and design their teams based on individual strengths. Leaders who understand the needs of their followers' fare better at fostering cohesiveness among their group, and a higher level of shared accomplishments. Jordan (2009) suggested that the execution and goal achievement is primarily dependent upon the follower in the leader/follower relationship. Moreover, Kelley (1992)

reported that leaders, on average, contribute 20 percent of an organization's success, whereas followers, on average, contribute 80 percent of an organization's success.

Although followers contribute a larger percent to an organization's success, the term "follower" is typically perceived under a negative connotation. Followership has elicited such concepts as docility, conformity, and weakness, wherein the general use of the term "follower" implies these negative constructs (Chaleff, 2009). The image of a follower being weak impacts the interdependent relationship between the leader and his/her group wherein followers may reject their identified role. The rejection of the follower role based on a negative connotation can have negative impact on an organization's success.

Although followers have a significant impact on the success of an organization, a cursory search through the Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) implies a lack of significance for the follower when compared to the leader. Results from a cursory search through ERIC reported that for every article on followership, there are 294 articles on leadership. Outside of peer reviewed journals, countless books and programs are dedicated to the discourse of leadership theory and leadership development. Moreover, the literature with different professions keeps pace with current literature, conferences, and institutes for emerging leaders (Currie, 2014). Followership has only recently emerged as a significant topic of research, and that has been in the last 30 years. Current literature on the tenets of followership primarily emphasize observations and theory; wherein empirical studies are few (Jordan, 2009).

While the tenets of followership are minimal in research, the importance of the interdependence between leaders and followers suggests more emphasis should be placed on the research of followership and its connection to leadership (Collinson, 2006). For those articles that do exist on followership, most are still centered on leadership whether it be through a

follower's perception of leadership, or a leader's perception of followership (Meindl, 1995; Baker, 2007). The purpose of this study is to add to the body of knowledge regarding followership.

Significance of the Study

The workplace in the twenty-first century involves more change driven by those in followership roles wherein followers have more of a say and role in decision making than ever before (Kellerman, 2008). This expanded role of followers with change is not limited to the workplace; however, this study is primarily focused on followers in the workplace. The evolution of today's workplace demands evolved alongside of the follower role wherein organizations with more agility seem to maintain a longevity of success. The need for agility in organizations pulls the traditional constructs of a team from being leader-centric regarding responsibilities to a broader focus of shared responsibilities. The evolving approach is implicative of a more sophisticated workplace wherein leadership/followership relationships are more complex than ever before.

Researchers have reported that organizations who use traditional leadership models in today's sophisticated workplace, typically underperform at best (Bennis, 1999; Bennis & Thomas, 2002). Traditional leadership models employ a more top-down tactic wherein decisions, actions, accountability, and responsibilities are handled solely by leaders (Olson & Eoyang, 2001), which is not conducive to most modern sophisticated workplaces. This has ultimately led organizations to believe that leaders are less effective; however, the underlying issue is the lack of empowerment and engagement (Kelley, 1992) among followers and their impact on leader's and organization's success. Moreover, Lundin and Lancaster (1990) found that leadership

effectiveness is primarily dependent on the loyalty and knowledge of followers. However, just as there are effective and ineffective leaders, there are effective and ineffective followers.

This shift in sophisticated workplaces include shared responsibilities among leaders and followers. This affords an opportunity to examine the constructs of followership with a higher level of importance and acceptance from organizations. Historically, followership has been overlooked and dismissed as less important to a group's success in reaching its shared purpose. With a renewed, and much more in-depth investigation of followership, organizations may better understand and appreciate the complexity of the relationship between leaders and followers. After all, if organizations don't truly understand followership, they arguably wouldn't fully understand leadership (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014).

While most organizations continue to overlook the importance of the follower role, followers are evolving to define their role as a highly significant and controllable role wherein they are not just complying with rules and expectations, but they are volunteering their allegiance to a shared purpose. This is evident in some followers wherein their actions in the workplace far exceed others around them that share in title, responsibilities, and expectations. For example, a healthcare worker takes the time to learn about a patient's personal life and family, even though this takes that worker past their normal work hours. This isn't a requirement for the successful handling of the healthcare issue; however, it has a large impact on the healthcare system and the patient involved. Was this follower motivated by the success of the organization, or by their natural care for a patient's wellbeing? What are the factors that lead followers to perform as exemplars in their role and how can we concentrate organizational development on supporting those factors? The intent of this research study is to explore exemplary followership and investigate what factors contribute to exemplary followership. This

study particularly will examine four factors that I hypothesize will have some sense of predictability to exemplary followership. The conceptual map below is the frame in which I am building this study.
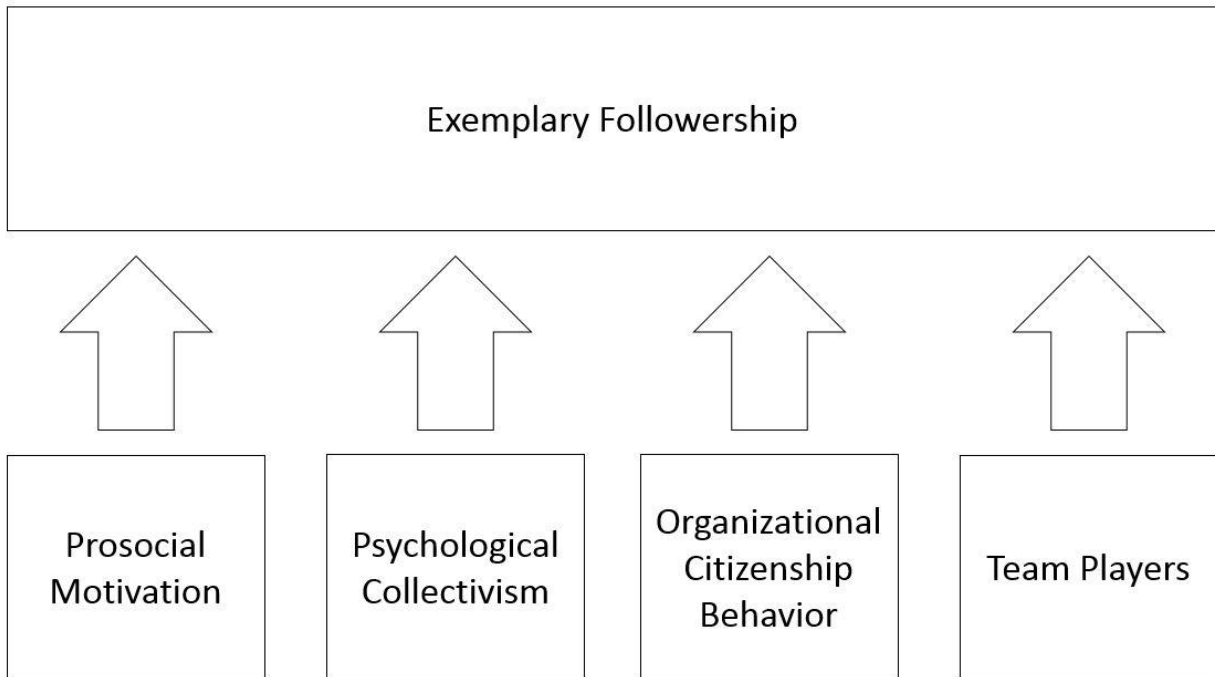
Figure 1. Proposed model for this investigation

Exemplary followership was first suggested by Kelley (1992) whereby he suggested that followers had different styles, and exemplary followership was the ideal followership style in which followers were engaged and independent thinkers. Similar thoughts were proposed by Collins (2001) wherein he suggested there are five levels of leadership, and the first two levels are aligned with exemplary followership. The first level charges that prior to being a great leader, and that person must be a highly capable individual. A highly capable individual contributes through talent, knowledge, skills, and good work habits. The second level suggests that great leaders are a contributing team member that uses their capabilities to benefit the team. Chaleff

(2009) combined these approaches when he suggested that both follower and leaders share in responsibilities through an exchange of influence.

The discourse between these authors provides a reasonable approach to examining exemplary followership and the positioning of the four factors: prosocial motivation, collective psychosocial, organizational citizenship behavior, and team players.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is: (1) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and prosocial motivation; (2) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and psychological collectivism; (3) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and organizational citizenship behavior; and (4) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and team players.

This study will use regression analysis to examine whether exemplary followership has any relationship to prosocial motivation, collective psychosocial, organizational citizenship behavior, and team players. It is hoped that identifying these relationships could lead to identifying crucial factors that could predict exemplary followership. Moreover, if the proposed factors are predictors of exemplary followership, future practitioners could create organizational development material around those factors that promote the growth of exemplary followers.

CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research on followership has become somewhat of an emergent concept; however, most of the articles that address followership do so as a secondary, or subcategory to the focus of the article. The literature pieces that are focused primarily on followership are typically designed to establish the follower role as a position worth considering and exploring when reviewing job roles in organizations (Jordan, 2009). There is a large gap in the followership literature that centers on developing exemplary followers in an organization. This is in large part due to the relative newness of the dedicated research on followership. In fact, the term is still being vetted through definition in scholarly discourse.

Through this review, I will introduce the definition of followership, the theory, its evolution, and the current literature as it applies in the workplace. Next, the types of followers will be reviewed to provide a full understanding of the impact of different followers. Specifically, I will place a heavier focus on the review of exemplary followership, the dependent variable in this investigation. Next, I will review each independent variable: prosocial motivation, collective psychosocial, organizational citizenship behavior, and team player in that order. Following each review of an independent variable, I will submit a short statement of inference between that independent variable and the dependent variable.

I am choosing to include a proposition statement after each independent variable section in the literature review to map the thought process as I prepare for the methods chapter and data collection. A proposition (or inference), is defined by Beers (2003) as "the ability to connect what is in the text with what is in the mind to create an educated guess" (p. 61-62). Throughout the literature review, an inference will be derived through the text and presented as the starting point to establishing a hypothesis. An a priori hypothesis will be presented in chapter 3, and a

posteriori hypothesis in the final chapter. Propositions in this chapter will be connecting the independent variables to the followership variable.

Definitions of Followership

The definition of followership has evolved over the years wherein examinations of followership have molded the definition through a lens of leadership dynamics; however, through the evolution, the definition of followership has been separated from the context of leadership to shift from leader-centric to follower-centric. Katz and Kahn (1978) first introduced the concept of followership in modern literature when they defined followership as a role, whether formal or informal, that existed under the context of direction from a leader. Robert Kelley (1988) expanded upon Katz and Kahn's work to define followership as a pursuit of a shared purpose through participation. This was one of the first times I have found followership to be used in a context of participation or shared responsibilities.

Chaleff continued with Kelley's definition throughout his discourse on followership during the early 21st century in defining followership as an exchange of influence between people that shared a common purpose (Chaleff, 2009; Riggio, Chaleff, & Lipman-Blumen, 2008). Other definitions have varied from the traditional paradigms by using a follower-centric definition to explain followership as an approach to influence leader attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes (Shamir, 2007). Shamir's definition is close to Chaleff's in that it recognizes the shared influence; however, it differs in that it is centered on a role whereas Chaleff postulates that follower and leader relationships center on a shared purpose.

Kean, Haycock-Stuart, Baggaley, et. al (2011) offered a different definition outside of followership being a role wherein they suggested that followership is an active stance in which followers courageously commit to collaborate. The unique thing about Kean et.al and their

research is the connection to Chaleff's perspective of courage as a primary characteristic of exemplary followership. Uhl-Bien, et. al (2014) combined definitions of followership with modern interpretations wherein they identified two lenses of followership: a position or role identified in a hierarchy, and a social process that followers and leaders engaged in willingly.

A qualitative approach to defining followership was investigated in which Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, and McGregor, (2010) recorded social constructs of followership from multiple workers at different workplace locations and with varying backgrounds. One worker defined the concept as:

"I would say it's my leader giving me direction, but also me giving [my leader] direction. I give [my leader] updates on what we are doing… and if [my leader] sees strategic things happening in a different direction, then I would be expected to change my plans, move around, and do whatever is necessary to incorporate [those] ideas" (p. 551).

Even through this follower's lens, leadership and followership are interdependent, and the follower is not passive, rather engaged in giving the leadership role its sense of leadership. Thus, followership is a state of being, and not an assigned role. This interpretation, although conducted through the research of Carsten et al. (2010), is comparative to Chaleff's (2009) definition of an exchange of influence to meet a shared objective.

Followership is defined in this study through the synthesizing of previous definitions and modern social constructs. For the purposes of this study, I will use Chaleff's (2009) definition of followership wherein he defined followership as a state of being wherein a person or persons share a specific purpose with leaders, and influence is exchanged to leverage strengths necessary to meet the purpose. The leader and follower roles change as the influence exchanges among the

9

group. To further operationalize followership in this study, I am specifically looking at adult followers in the workplace. Malcolm Knowles (1990) defined adult through 4 different ways.

Biological, the first definition, defines an adult as a person who is biologically able to reproduce.

Legal, the second definition, defines an adult as a person at an age where they can have a driver's license, vote, or get married without consent.

Social, the third definition, defines an adult as a person who has taken on adult responsibilities such as raising a family, full-time worker, spouse, parent, a voting citizen and the like.

Psychological, the fourth definition, defines an adult as a person who arrives at a self-concept of being responsible for one's own life.

I will be using Knowles definition of *social* and *psychological* adult along with Chaleff's (2009) definition of followership to establish clear parameters around the context of this study as it relates to followers in the workplace. Based on this definition, this study will be looking at followers in the workplace who are aware of their responsibilities for their own lives and engage in sharing responsibilities with other people in working towards a shared purpose. The reason I have chosen the word purpose, is because the word goals, objectives, and missions imply different time intervals.

The identification of shared responsibility between followers and leaders implies an important characteristic around engagement and contribution. Recent researchers have identified different levels of effectiveness in followers wherein exemplary followers recognize their contribution to the organization and are actively engaged in supporting the mission and purpose of that organization (Currie, 2014; Kean, et. al, 2011). Moreover, Ohrberg (2014) suggested that

exemplary followers understand the organization's mission and how their unique strengths impact the mission therein resulting in higher levels of productivity. Mission is one way of expressing purpose. I am going to use purpose in this document to establish a consistent meaning.

Theory of Followership

The varying definitions of followership are indicative of the evolutionary construct of followership along with the evolutionary construct of leadership. Bass (1990) suggested that anthropological evidence indicate that leader and follower relationships occur naturally when groups of people come together for a mutual purpose. Bass suggested that historically, behaviors began as a form of dominance, wherein one individual gained influence over another individual, or a group of individuals, by owning important knowledge such as where to find food.

Tooby and Cosmides (1992) expanded upon Bass's research suggesting that the emergence of leader and follower relationships evolved into a more complex phase of coordination. Tooby and Cosmides argument was that leaders only emerged out of a group if the benefits of coordinating multiple efforts were greatly desired by a group. Chagnon (1997) provided an example to this thought through explaining that ancestral humans who faced threats from other tribe members would endorse a leader as the peacekeeper or a defense leader for protection. McCann (1992) further suggested that the varying needs of tribesmen and groups of people determined the types of leadership needed for their purpose. This is implicative of an interdependence between the leaders and followers, quite like leader-member exchange.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) refers to relationships built between leaders and followers which is grounded in social identity and social exchange theories (Lindsey Hall, Baker, Andrews, Hunt, & Rapp, 2016). Researchers with LMX have reported followers' performances

11

to be significantly dependent upon a leader's relationship with their followers (Gerstner & Day 1997; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson 2007).

The theory behind LMX provides reasonable arguments that both leaders and followers share a need for each other; however, the established need, as suggested by Chaleff (2009) is a shared purpose. Moreover, Van Vugt (2006) suggested that followers are more willing to follow if the benefit of achievements are greater as a group than individual. Conversely, followers less willing to follow when achievements are greater as an individual.

Modern understandings of followership and its origins as a field of study first came under consideration from sociologist Max Weber who urged the exploration of followership as it pertains to the effectiveness of leadership (Weber, 1947). Although Weber first introduced the idea, the research origins in earnest are attributed to Dr. Robert E. Kelley wherein his works in the late 20th century helped to frame followership as a valuable area of study that deserves as much attention as leadership. Kelley's work established followership as a complex concept wherein the studies of followership included a matrix for identifying follower types, understanding different follower types and their impact on leadership, and an idea of exemplary followership (see figure 2). The books, programs, and conferences on leadership generally identify effective and ineffective forms of leadership, and Kelley created the same concept for followers wherein there are effective and ineffective forms of followership.

The language used in scholarly discourse for effective followership is "exemplary follower," and this will be used from here forth in this study. Exemplary followership is defined through two different dimensions: (1) independent thinkers; and (2) actively engaged people (Riggio, Chaleff, & Blumen, 2008). Riggio, et. al further defined the dimension using these sets of questions:

"1. Do they think for themselves? Are they independent critical thinkers? Or do they look to their leader to do the thinking for them?

2. Are they actively engaged in creating positive energy for the organization? Or is there negative energy or passive involvement? (p.7)."

The works of Riggio, Chaleff, and Blumen originate from Kelley's work wherein he identified followership styles based on an assessment that measures independent thinking and actively carrying out the role of the follower (Kelley, 1992).

Followership Styles

INDEPENDENT, CRITICAL THINKING

DEPENDENT, UNCRITICAL THINKING

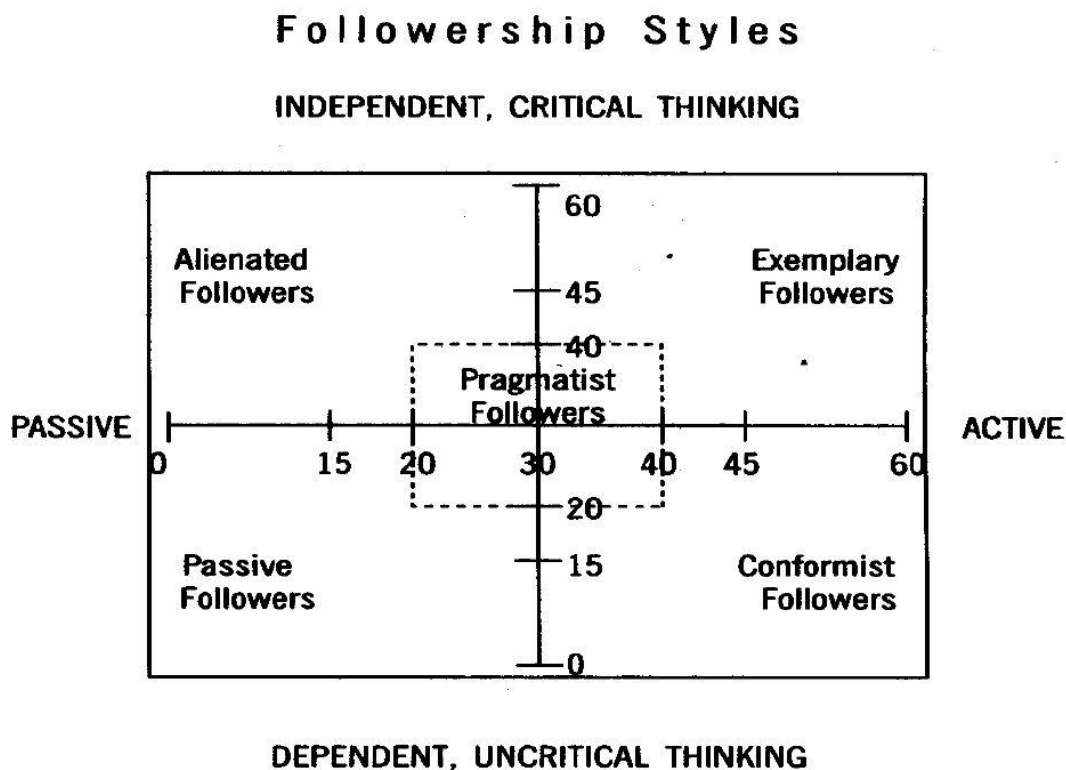*Figure 2.* Followership styles

The followership model (figure 2) created by Kelley, measures the two questions that translate to "independence" and "engagement," and these are the primary measures for followership assessment. Based on the assessment, as scores increase in engagement, the further to the right the score plots on the matrix. The higher the score on independence, the higher up the

score plots on the matrix. This translates to categorizing follower types wherein the higher the engagement and independence, the more towards exemplary the follower becomes. The lower in engagement and independence, the closer to a passive follower the person becomes. Although there are multiple categories or types of followers, they are determinable through some variability between engagement and independent thinking.

Researchers have explored the construct of thinking independently wherein psychologists suggest people hold different views about the self as independent or interdependent (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Those who view the self as independent, separate the self from others and tend to not view their role as defined by social constructs (Hong & Chang, 2015). Hong and Chang further suggest that those who view the self as interdependent do not separate the self from others and tend to let their social constructs and environments define their role. Hong and Chang's interpretation of independent thinking is aligned with Kelley's (1992) wherein Kelley describes independent thinking as the emphasis of an individual's will. Whether they personally desire to work on the team or whether they simply respond as being on the team.

Chaleff (2009) later expanded on this concept to suggest that not only are independent thinkers willing participants, but they are courageous in their intent and willing to challenge leaders, followers, and organizations when best practices are not being met or ethical concerns arise out of team members. If a person does not willingly engage in team efforts when they are on a team, as reported through LMX, that person's performance is likely to be low (Lindsey Hall, et. al, 2016). The research on LMX also suggests that relationships and behaviors of leaders, if unchecked, could result in poor performance, thus implying that Chaleff's suggestion of holding leaders and organizations accountable to good behavior may have positive impact on performance. For example, if a clinical staff is working towards the common purpose of saving a

patient's life, there is reason to engage in a shared purpose. However, if a physician (assuming the physician is the leader in this scenario) begins making choices that are unethical and compromising the patient's life, some followers who are independent thinkers may speak up to challenge the decision making. Followers who are not independent thinkers in this scenario most likely would not speak against the decision maker. In fact, some may still be highly engaged to the task, but never think independently or have the courage to challenge the decision making.

Kelley's (1992) assertion is that independent thinkers are willing to engage in team efforts, willing to endorse a leader, and willing to engage in leader/follower relationships. Chaleff's (2009) assertion adds to Kelley's in that independent thinkers are courageous in willing to evaluate the group's actions towards the purpose and speak up if they are not. Herein lies the connection of teams as suggested by research on LMX whereby members of a team are independent and interdependent, and the quality of their relationship significantly impacts the performance of the individual and team (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

In followership, Kelley's idea of independent thinking does not exclude interdependence or connection of teams, and that is evident in Chaleff's definition of which more modern researchers use to define. Chaleff suggest that leaders and followers exchange influence to meet a shared purpose, and Kelley's independent thinking component is an internal willingness of that follower to agree on a shared purpose and initiate collaboration (Kelley, 1992; Chaleff, 2009).

The difference between independent and interdependent is particularly noticeable in modern day workplace teams. As the workplace has become more sophisticated, so have the demands for team performances (Lovelace, Shapiro, & Weingart, 2001). Lovelace, Shapiro, and Weingart suggested that modern organizations are more challenged with successfully innovating and evolving with technological needs, whereby the team members' different skillsets and

15

perspectives are more often asked for as a vehicle for the innovation needs. Goncalo and Duguid (2011) responded to the recognition of needing independent strengths and team work when they found those who were independent in their judgment offered dissenting views to their team which enhanced the team creativity and team performance.

Modern organizations focus more often on team performance metrics; however, many organizations that measure team performance, still have evaluations for individual contributors. This separation establishes the recognition of independent contribution to a team's purpose and organization success. Moreover, it addresses the impact of the followers' willingness to cognitively engage in team success therein acknowledging differences in followership styles. Furthermore, this reinforces the complexity of the leader and follower relationship and their need for interdependence.

Although leaders and followers exist through interdependence, the independent thinker, through a followership context, is more representative of the willingness to engage in thought and team initiatives.

The second factor, along with independent thinking, that determines a follower type is the engagement score on the followership assessment. Engagement was originally defined by Kahn (1990) as employees who express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally in their roles at their workplace. A decade later, researchers defined engagement as satisfaction and enthusiasm for work (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002) and an expression of vigour, dedication, and absorption through a positive mindset in the workplace (Schaufcli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Even more, engagement has been defined by more than 14 research-based journals and organizations over the past two-decades, which is indicative of the academic and business struggles to define a consistent construct for engagement. For this research,

16

engagement of a follower will be defined in the context of the workplace. An engaged employee is defined as, "someone who feels involved, committed, passionate and empowered and demonstrates those feelings in work behavior" (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002, p. 269).

Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes created their definition of engagement based on the Gallup Workplace Audit (Gallup Organization, 1999). The term "involved" as mentioned in the definition of engagement is defined as a willingness of a person to engage in activities or tasks that support an organization's objectives (Hall & Schneider, 1972; Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970).

The construct of involvement was heavily researched by Etzioni (1961) who suggested there are three types of involvement: (a) alienative, (b) calculative, and (c) moral. Etzioni's research is an important contribution upon which current definitions of involvement are constructed. The three types of involvement are defined as follows:

- Alienative: an employee who feels they have limited or no control of intrinsic rewards for their job. This is usually a result of coercion from a leader or organization being used over employees.

- Calculative: an employee can influence levels of inducement through involvement or adjust levels of involvement to meet inducement. Inducements and involvement can fluctuate between the employee and leader or organization.

- Moral: an employee internalizes standards and values within the self, group, and organization. This typically results in higher levels of performance and commitment.

The three types of involvement connected to followership in how employees interact between their commitment and performance on a team in achieving a shared purpose. Specifically, the types of followership lead to informed senses of engagement in the workplace.

Engagement in the workplace was first conceptualized by Kahn (1990) who identified two distinct levels of employee engagement: personal engagement and disengagement. Personal engagement refers to the coupling of selves to the workplace physically, cognitively, and emotionally; whereas disengagement refers to the uncoupling of selves to the workplace.

Gallup (2007), an organization who specializes in customer engagement and employee engagement, further developed a concrete model of employee engagement with three levels of engagements: engaged, not engaged, and the actively disengaged.

- Engaged: The organizations most desirably retained employees who are passionate, innovative, and committed.
- Not engaged: contribute minimal effort and energy.
- The actively disengaged: unhappy employees who intend to create friction with others.

The model further explains how those who are not engaged may shift to engaged with proper interventions; and the retrenchment of the actively disengaged may lead to higher engagement (Bhuvanaiah & Raya, 2015). Over the past decade, more organizations have invested in understanding their employees' engagement, and even invest in programs to further increase employee engagement.

Organizations invest in employee engagement to increase retention and effective day-to-day productivity (Mishra, Boynton, & Mishra, 2014). A Gallup (Robinson, 2012) survey reported that engaged employees "are deeply committed to their employer, leading to key

improvements to business outcomes, including reductions in absenteeism, turnover, shrinkage, safety incidents, and product defects" (p.1).

While organizations have reported successful results within their population of engaged employees, those employees tend to gain personal successes as well. Bakker, Demerouti, and Lieke (2012), suggested that engaged employees experience more happiness, enthusiasm, better health, and more freedoms to create their own jobs. Organizations benefit from employee engagement wherein outcomes reported are: customer loyalty, employee retention, employee productivity, manager self-efficacy, enhancement of personal resources, health, and well-being (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006; Levinson, 2007; Kahn, 1990; Luthans & Peterson, 2002; and Rothbard, 2001).

The outcomes alone are motivation enough for organizations to understand why people follow their leaders and how best to provide an environment conducive to engaging in their role (Kelley, 1988). Kelley (1992) suggested that successful organizations understand how to engage and motivate their followers through understanding the types of followers as presented in his model.

Kelley's (1992) followership styles assessment and model was developed to identify the different followership styles. The assessment consists of 20 items on a six-point scale for the follower to self-assess. The results compute to a followership style (see table 1) wherein the followership styles are identified as: passive, conformist, alienated, pragmatic, and exemplary.

Table 1

Followership style matrix

Followership Style	Independent Thinking Score	Active Engagement Score
Exemplary	High	High
Alienated	High	Low
Conformist	Low	High
Pragmatist	Middling	Middling
Passive	Low	Low

The passive follower, located opposite of exemplary follower (see figure 2), is identified by a computed score that is low on independent thinking and low on active engagement. Passive followers do not provide voluntary or constructive efforts towards the organization's success (Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman, & Xie, 2013). Passive followers tend to exhaust leaders and teams due to their lack of willingness to participate in workloads, and they are not actively engaging in their tasks (Kelley, 1992). Based on Gallup's (2007) definition of engagement, a passive follower would have minimal engagement or be not engaged. Moreover, based on Etzioni's (1961) types of involvement, the passive follower would be considered alienative in that the follower's intrinsic value for output would be dependent upon the leader and/or organization.

The passive follower is the most commonly quoted perception of followership in that it has long been assumed that followers are passively molded by leadership (Hall & Densten, 2002). Organizations and teams suffer from passive followers due to the lack of autonomy in which they can work and its direct drain on personnel resources required to oversee the actions and productivity of the passive follower.

The pragmatic follower is identified by a computed score that is middling on critical thinking and middling on active engagement. Kelley (1992) identifies the characteristics of pragmatic followers as reliable to perform if they are benefiting themselves. The pragmatic followers are focused on serving themselves above all other needs. Porter, Steers, Mowday, and

Boulian (1974) best characterized self-serving employees through Employee Organizational Commitment (EOC) whereby measures are taken to gauge the employee's willingness to engage in efforts to benefit the organization. EOC is even consistent with Etzioni's (1961) work on involvement type, wherein Etzioni suggests that involvement is related to commitment. In Etzioni's research, a pragmatic follower would be considered calculative involvement, whereby followers would consistently evaluate their involvement or commitment based on rewards for their personal needs as it compares to the organization's needs. This internal negotiation is Etzioni's involvement and EOC's measurement of engagement.

This unique relationship between managers and employees and their EOC is primarily influenced by the structure in which the organization focuses on success. The organizations that focused on action-based controls (smaller tasks assigned to every individual) tend to have employees who report a lower EOC, while organizations that focused on outcome-based (projects assigned to individuals or teams) controls had employees with higher EOC (Su, Baird, & Blair, 2013). This was due to the autonomy and encouragement of critical thinking from employees (Orchard, 1998). Interestingly, a pragmatic follower would be considered engaged by Gallup's (2007) definition; however only if the needs of the team and tasks they were asked to do met their personal needs first. A pragmatic follower could be not engaged if their needs were not being met, and even actively disengaged if the organization or team's needs were counterproductive to the individual's needs.

The conformist follower is identified by a computed score that is low on independent thinking and high on active engagement. These followers pose a risk to their leaders and their teams because they tend to not challenge actions or thoughts of the team or leader (Kelley, 1992). Whitlock (2013) articulated this type of follower best in the following scenario:

"Dr. Jones was often late because she was training for a marathon and put her personal goals first. She was technically highly skilled, but difficult to manage and colleagues thought she was verbally aggressive when challenged. The [followers] did not want to create conflict, so they tolerated the situation…. Morale was low and team members did not like working with Dr. Jones….

When a crisis that required urgent intervention arose, the team's stress level became exceptionally high and their judgment became blurred. A junior team member was concerned about the intervention but did not feel secure enough to speak up. An irreversible and catastrophic mistake was made, and a patient died. Accusations and blame were rife" (p. 22).

In this scenario, the followers were engaged in their work; however, they were not willing to engage in a critical conversation or challenge the leader, which lead to irreversible consequences.

A conformist follower is typically engaged based on Gallup (2007) engagement types in that they are committed to the team or organization's purpose. This follower would also arguably have moral involvement (Etzioni, 1961). This is an important distinction when mapping the types of followers based on Kelley's work. The conformist followers would be an ideal employee based on Gallup's (2007) engagement and Etzioni's (1961) involvement type; however, these followers would arguably report a significant lack in willingness to thinking independently and courageously based on Kelley's followership model (1992).

The alienated follower is identified by a computed score that is high on independent thinking and low on active engagement. Employees who are estranged from their organization lack commitment and motivation in for their organization (Kapoor & Meachem, 2012). Kapoor

and Meachem further define alienated followers as actively disengaged employees who "are unhappy at work and are busy showing their unhappiness" (p. 15).

Although alienated followers are showing their unhappiness, their behaviors and actions impact the organization's business lines. The Gallup Organization found that alienated followers have on average 4 more days of absenteeism per year, 31-50 percent higher turnover rates, and 10 –percent *less* profit growth than engaged employees (Gallup, 2007). Gallup further identified nine performance outcomes connected to engaged and actively disengaged employees: customer ratings, profitability, productivity, turnover, safety incidents, shrinkage, absenteeism, patient safety incidents, and quality (Gallup, 2013).

Alienated followers would be recognized in Gallup's (2007) engagement type as actively disengaged wherein they would do more damage than good to a team or organization. Etzioni's (1961) involvement type would be alienative whereby these followers would feel that they no longer are benefiting from intrinsic rewards and feel coerced into minimal input into their work situation.

The exemplary follower is identified by a computed score that is high on independent thinking and high on active engagement. Although this study explores multiple definitions of followership, most researcher agree on the shared characteristics of exemplary followership (Todorovic & Schlosser, 2007). Exemplary followers are commonly characterized as engaged employees who build, promote, and safeguard their organization (Riggio, Chaleff, & Lipman-Bluemen, 2008). Riggio, Chaleff, and Lipman-Blumen further distinguished exemplary followers as actively engaged adopting work attitudes such as "I'm a steward of the business" as opposed to the passive follower work attitude of "I'm an employee" (p. 130). Moreover,

exemplary followers demonstrate three broad categories of skillsets: (1) job skills; (2) organizational skills; and (3) values components (Kelley, 1992).

Exemplary followers demonstrate effective job skills through understanding commitments to their teams and the organization. Moreover, they are actively increasing their value to an organization through their competence and performance. Goncalo and Duguid's (2011) suggestion of individual contributions supports Kelley's assertions in exemplary followership, wherein the independent thinker can apply their strengths at will to the benefit of the team. Even further, Clifton and Harter (2003) in collaboration with the Gallup Organization suggested there was a high importance of individuals to recognize individual strengths to use for the benefit of the team.

Exemplary followers demonstrate organizational skills through developing relationships with their team members and leaders. They also understand the depths of their networks and how their role impacts the organizational purpose. This component of exemplary followership is implicative of a connection between Kelley's perception of importance in leader follower relationship and the theory of LMX. Lindsey Hall et. al, (2016) reported the modern workplace to include a significant impact on workplace relationships and performance between leader and follower.

Exemplary followers demonstrate values components through their willingness to challenge the team, leader, and their own thoughts in a constructive way. They tend to not compromise their principles, and do not expect the organization, leader, or their fellow followers to compromise theirs. Etzioni's involvement types are connected to Kelley's construct of exemplary followers wherein Etzioni's moral type of involvement are based on standards and values, just as Kelley suggested in exemplary followership.

Willson (2012) further characterized exemplary followership as: prioritizing group purposes ahead of personal purpose, being friendly, optimistic, effective listening, understanding needs of others, and showing trust and trustworthiness. The characteristics Willson describe expand the parameters of the interdependent relationship between leader and follower to also include follower to follower. Exemplary followership includes the recognition of unique individual strengths among employees therein increasing diversity in skillsets and a further need for trust in the interdependent relationships. Also supporting the interdependent relationship between follower and follower is the increased control over individual roles and the increased inclusion of decision making (Ohrberg, 2014; Yuin, Cox, & Sims, 2006). Ohrberg (2014) found that followers who were allowed more autonomy to willingly contribute to the decision making of their own role, built high levels of trust between their peers, leaders, and the organization. The interdependence between an individual and another person, leader, or organization is the connection to my first independent variable: prosocial motivation.

Prosocial Motivation

The first independent variable I will examine in this investigation is prosocial motivation. Prosocial motivation was originally defined as an act someone does to benefit another person (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963; Campbell, 1965; Katz, 1964). Later, researchers defined prosocial motivation with more restrictions suggesting prosocial motivation to be an act someone does to benefit another person or persons without any expectation of a material or social reward (Walster & Piliavin, 1972). Definitions further adopted in the 1980's by Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined prosocial behaviors as:

"behavior which is (a) performed by a member of an organization, (b) directed toward an individual, group, or organization whom he or she interacts with while carrying out their

25

role, and (c) performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, or organization toward which it is directed" (p. 711).

During this section of conducting my literature review, I discovered some similarities with the defining construct of prosocial motivation and organizational citizenship behavior. As I continue this section of my literature review, I am going to discuss both terms to differentiate the constructs and determine each construct's role in this investigation.

The definition that Brief and Motowidlo (1986) use for prosocial motivation describes organizational citizenship behavior which is defined as discretionary behaviors that contribute to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context to support task performance and organizational effectiveness (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Grant (2007) suggests prosocial motivation to be a mindset in which "employees often place their own lives in jeopardy, beyond the call of duty" (p. 393). I am suggesting that Grant's understanding of prosocial motivation is indistinguishable between previous understandings of organizational citizenship behavior, particularly with the descriptors of "discretionary behaviors" and "beyond the call of duty" aforementioned in this paragraph.

To better understand how prosocial motivation is connected to organizational citizenship behavior, aside from definition, I will expand upon organizational citizenship behavior in this section. Organizational citizenship behavior has been further categorized into two different classifications: affiliative and challenging (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995).

Affiliative citizenship is described as actions that an individual does to support work relationships and processes – behaviors centered on benefiting others (Cardador & Wrzesniewski, 2015). Conversely, Cardador and Wrzesniewski suggested challenging citizenship is described as a challenge by an individual to the status quo with the purpose of

improving organizational functioning and effectiveness – behaviors centered on benefiting the organization.

The importance of defining these categories is to conceptually map prosocial motivation to organizational citizenship behavior. Cardador and Wrzesniewski (2015) successfully linked prosocial motivation to affiliative citizenship, therein linking prosocial motivation to organizational citizenship behavior. Based on their research, the higher an individual's prosocial motivation, the higher their organizational citizenship behavior in affiliative citizenship. However, their results indicate that an individual with lower prosocial motivation reported lower affiliative citizenship and higher challenging citizenship.

The construct of prosocial motivation is a more recent development in research that is implicative of a particular fold in the broad definition of organizational citizenship behavior. Based the research found in conducting this literature review, I am suggesting that prosocial motivation is indicative of the evolutionary research and further scientific understanding of a piece of organizational citizenship behavior. The first references of the construct are traced back to organizational citizenship behavior, and more defined by a few researchers in more modern times.

Grant and Berry (2011) has been a modern and active researcher on prosocial motivation, wherein he found prosocial motivation to not be an accurate predictor of an employee's performance or productivity. Kelley (1991) suggests that exemplary followers are predictably high performers and highly productive in their roles, which creates a gap in linking prosocial motivation to followership. I am suggesting that organizational citizenship behavior is more aligned with exemplary followership, and prosocial motivation, although a fold of organizational citizenship behavior, is not an advisable point to include in my investigation.

Based on the similarities in definition between prosocial motivation and organizational citizenship behavior, conceptual mapping of prosocial motivation to organizational citizenship behavior, and the lack of predictability in basic exemplary followership characteristics, I am not going to be including prosocial motivation as an independent variable in this investigation. The model that was proposed in chapter 1 will be updated in chapter 3 to reflect this modification. Given that prosocial motivation is similar to organizational citizenship behavior, I am going to continue forward with organizational citizenship behavior.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is conceptually attributed to Dennis Organ, viewed by many researchers as the father of the field, who defined the construct as an extension of Katz (1964) work. Particularly, Organ expanded on Katz's claim that organizations need employees who demonstrate a willingness to go beyond what is required of the job (Newland, 2012). Bateman and Organ (1983) first introduced the term organizational citizenship behavior and defined the construct in the early 80s; however, the more commonly used definition came later that decade when Organ, (1988) defined OCB as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the official reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4).

I am choosing to use Organ's definition of organizational citizenship behavior due to its common referencing for definition, evolutionary analysis by Organ, and its fit to my investigation wherein it suggests components of exemplary followership and differentiates from psychological collectivism. OCB is different from psychological collectivism in that psychological collectivism centers on behaviors that benefit a social group, whereas OCB centers on behaviors that benefit organizations and those groups that are in that organization.

It is important to note that multiple researchers have confused OCB with task performance through discourse (Newland, 2012). Boreman (2004) differentiated these two constructs suggesting that there are two major points of difference. First, tasks for jobs are unique for a specific job, whereas OCB is generic and the same behaviors across multiple roles. Second, the predictors for both constructs vary. OCB can be predicted by a person's character and commitment, whereas task performance is predicted by knowledge, skills, and abilities (Newland, 2012).

The behaviors, character, and commitment differentiating OCB from task performance have been examined by Bateman and Organ (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Organ, 1990) over the years and ultimately categorized into five dimensions.

- Conscientiousness – behaviors that are directed at benefiting the organization as a whole rather than individuals.

- Sportsmanship – a willingness to not engage in negative behaviors, even when working in a poor environment.

- Courtesy – behaviors that communicate general consideration for others in the organization.

- Civic Virtue – participating in life and cultural activities of the organization.

- Helping behavior – behaviors that include volunteering, cheerleading, peacekeeping and altruism in an organization.

Later, researchers categorized these dimensions into two constructs that helped further distinguish OCB as a multifaceted construct.

Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested there were two types of OCB: OCB-I that is individual focused whereby employees focus more on the dimensions of the helping behavior

and courtesy; and OCB-O that is focused on the benefit of the organization whereby individuals focus more on the dimensions of conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue.

Rioux and Penner (2001) suggested employees who reported high in OCB-I over OCB-O were more likely to support individual concerns over the organization; however, Newland (2012) reported the opposite to happen in her investigation of this topic. Newland found that whether employees rated high on OCB-I or OCB-O, they reported more interest in organizational concerns rather than individual.

These findings are further supported by Mohamed and Anisa (2012) who found no significant link between employees with affective commitment, or commitment to individuals in an organization. They did, however, find a link between normative and continuance commitment to an organization and their level of OCB. They found that employees who had high levels of normative commitment reported higher levels of OCB, implying that employees who internalized the vision, goals, mission, and values of an organization were measurably higher in giving discretionary effort.

I would suggest that Etzioni's moral type of commitment is not different than the normative commitment defined in Mohamed and Anisa's (2012), therein suggesting that moral commitment is a predictor of OCB. Moreover, I would suggest that Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (2009) would argue that exemplary followers have a moral commitment to the organization.

Based on the commonalities between Kelley's description of exemplary followers and Bateman and Organ's description of organizational citizenship behavior, I am suggesting that exemplary followers have a high level of organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, I am suggesting, based on modern findings in OCB-I and OCB-O, that Kelley and Chaleff would argue exemplary followers are concerned for both individual and organizational concerns.

Therefore, I am proposing that exemplary followers would report high in OCB as based on Organ's evolutionary work with the five-dimensions. Further, OCB has been linked to employee performance and effectiveness, therein supporting Kelley's assertion that exemplary followers are high performers (Kataria, Garg, & Rastogi, 2013).

The differentiation between OCB-I and OCB-O suggests that although I am suggesting exemplary followers promote both, there is further need to investigate exemplary followership as it connects to groups of people or psychological collectivism.

Psychological Collectivism

The second independent variable I will examine in this investigation is psychological collectivism. Modern understandings of psychological collectivism are attributed to Hofstede's (1980) cross-cultural study on individualism and collectivism. Prior to Hofstede, Parsons and Shills (1951) introduced a distinguishing difference between individualism and collectivism wherein they suggested individuals in the workplace either have a self-interest or social-interest for outcomes.

Hofstede's research expanded on Parsons and Shills to differentiate individualism and collectivism suggesting the social environment influenced how individuals prioritized needs. Hofstede (2011) more recently clarified previous definitions suggesting that in a social work environment that centers on individualism, individuals feel that they are expected to look after themselves. Conversely, in a social work environment that centers on collectivism, individuals feel they are expected to look after the others in their social work environment in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 2011).

Psychological collectivism has similarities with organizational citizenship behavior in that individuals are interested in the betterment of a group; however, Brief and Motowidlo

31

(1986) suggested that OCB is without any expectation of reciprocity whereas Hofstede's (2011) definition of psychological collectivism suggests that individuals invest in the betterment of a group with an expectation of reciprocity. Moreover, Hofstede suggested that psychological collectivism is more intimately linked to the social structure in which individuals live and communicate. I am choosing to use Hofstede's definition of psychological collectivism due to its foundational referencing in multiple studies, connection to my independent variables, and its clear differentiation from OCB.

Hofstede's work in psychological collectivism has been primarily focused on cross-cultural settings; however, it has been the basis of more modern research and instruments designed to examine individualism – collectivism in the workplace (Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006). Eby and Dobbins (1997) expanded Hofstede's research wherein they linked the proportion of highly collectivist individuals on a team to the team cooperation. Drach-Zahavy (2004) further expanded Hofstede's research reporting teams with highly collectivist individuals to give more emotional, informational, and appraisal support for each other. This is implicative of Etzioni's (1961) moral commitment whereby individuals internalize standards and values among the group.

The conceptual framework for psychological collectivism based on these researchers' findings supports the followership model of individual accountability to team success (Chaleff, 2009). Moreover, modern researchers have linked collectivism from employee to manager, or follower to leader through productivity and performance.

Until recently, researchers have struggled to provide empirical research that connects collectivism to performance predictions for individuals in the workplace (Dierdorff, Bell, & Belohlav, 2011; Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006; Oyserman, Coon, &

Kemmelmeier, 2002; Triandis, Chan, Bhawuk, Iwao, & Sinha, 1995). Jackson et al. (2006) created an instrument for collective psychosocial with high reliability and validity wherein they identified predictable variables linking psychological collectivism to supervisor ratings of team member task performance, citizenship behavior, counterproductive behavior, and withdrawal behavior. Jackson et al.'s primary focus was to understand collectivism in the workplace under the context of individuals working in a team.

Jackson et al.'s (2006) methods involved supervisors rating employees on the four variables with a 5-point Likert scale wherein they suggested that psychological collectivism explained 10% of the variance in task performance, 4% of the variance in citizenship behavior, 10% of the variance in counterproductive behavior, and 5% of the variance in withdrawal behavior.

- Task performance: proficiency in which team members perform the activities identified as part of their group role.
- Citizenship behavior: discretionary behaviors that are not required for an individual's job and not necessarily formally rewarded.
- Counterproductive behavior: intentional behaviors by an individual that is contrary to a group's legitimate interest.
- Withdrawal behavior: passive behaviors from an individual in a group that leads to avoidance of the group or work for the group.

The counterproductive behavior and withdrawal behavior variables were negatively linked to psychological collectivism – meaning that the higher the collectivism was, the lower these variables were existent in an individual.

Jackson et al.'s (2006) study is important in my study in that their link identifies that the more an employee focuses on the benefit of a team, a critical component for exemplary followers (Kelley, 1992; Chaleff, 2009), the greater their performance was viewed by their supervisor. Moreover, the citizenship behavior variable aligns with Gallup's (2007) description of engagement with discretionary efforts to benefit a team or organization.

The counterproductive behavior and withdrawal behavior variables are similar to Kelley's (1992) alienated followership style wherein those followers demonstrate behaviors to damage the team or leader or refuse to engage in teamwork. The negative relationship with these two variables and collectivism support Kelley's model in that followers cannot be exemplary without providing discretionary behaviors that benefit the team.

These variables and their relationship with collectivism substantiates a further examination of exemplary followership and psychological collectivism. Kelley's work suggests that followers cannot be exemplary unless they are high performers that place a greater focus on team success. Jackson et al.'s work provides evidence that the greater the collectivism in a team the higher the performance.

Based on conceptual similarities between exemplary followers and psychological collectivism, I am proposing that exemplary followers are psychological collectivists. Moreover, the research by Jackson et al. (2006) supports the conceptual link between exemplary followers and high performance and productivity based on psychological collectivism. There is an underlying implication with psychological collectivism found in Jackson et al.'s research suggesting that psychological collectivism is a link to team player as a variable that should be investigated as connected to exemplary followership.

Team Player

  A team player is a construct that has evolved over the past century wherein the importance of the team player has increased along with organization's understanding of the importance of teams (Parker, 2008). Initially, organizations understood teams to be organizational issues dealing with culture; however, researchers later examined teams through behavioral sciences and group dynamics (Pugh & Hickson, 1989; Lewin, 1951). Particularly, research on the effects of team increased drastically during the 1980's and 1990's wherein researchers demonstrated a critical difference in performance between high performing teams and other teams (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993). Moreover, Senge (1990) suggested that teams were going to be the building block of 21st century organizations.

  The definition of team has shifted from an organization's culture as defined by Elton Mayo (Pugh & Hickson, 1989) to a more complex understanding. Based on social exchange theory, teams are interdependent, and success is reliant on the actions of other people (Blau, 1964). Salas and Fiore (2004) extended this assertion suggesting that teams form because the success of the team is greater than the sum of the individual's performance.

  There are multiple operational definitions of team; however, Parker (2008) used a definition that articulates a modern understanding of team that acknowledges previous understandings and the expected evolutionary future of the term. Parker defines team as "a group of people with a high degree of interdependence geared towards the achievement of a goal or completion of a task" (Parker, 2008, p. 13). I am choosing to use Parker's definition of team due to his positioning of the term in context with previous and future definitions, research on team player, and the significance of this investigation's use of his team player styles with his definition of team. Moreover, this definition of team and its reference to interdependence in

35

achieving a purpose is comparable to Chaleff's (2009) definition of leader and follower teams whereby leaders and followers exchange influence in partnering to achieve shared goals.

I provided the definition of team above to provide context for team player. For this investigation, I am particularly interested in the team player, which Parker (2008) defines as a person who participates with a group through one of four styles to achieve a shared goal. Parker's identified team player styles are:

- Contributor – responsible, authoritative, and reliable team members who focus on *tasks* and technical information.

- Collaborator – forward looking, goal directed, and imaginative team members who focus on *goals* and big picture.

- Communicator – supportive, considerate, and tactful team members who focus on *process* and consensus building.

- Challenger – honest, outspoken, and ethical team members who focus on *questions* regarding methods and goals.

Parker suggested these styles are not hierarchical, and one style is not greater than the others, rather they are diverse ways in which team players participate in team projects. Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (2009) would likely suggest that these team player styles all represent exemplary followership practices in some form.

Kelley (1992) suggested that exemplary followers, much like contributor team players, share responsibilities and are highly reliable workers on their teams. Moreover, Kelley suggested that exemplary followers complete tasks; however, Kelley differentiates from Parker in that exemplary followers prioritize tasks based on team needs rather than personal needs.

Kelley, also suggested that exemplary followers, like collaborator and communicator team players, are focused on shared goals and supportive of other team players in achieving the shared goal.

Chaleff (2009) suggested exemplary followers, like challenger team players, must ask difficult questions to ensure the team continues to focus on the shared goal. Moreover, Chaleff suggested exemplary followers are courageous at times when they are needed to challenge the direction of the leader if it does not align with organizational or team goals.

The connection between Kelley, Chaleff, and Parker are the accountabilities in place on the individual as part of a group rather than the group as one unit. McIntyre and Salas (1995) suggested that teams are more effective when organizations conceptualize and support teamwork. Hirschfeld et al. (2006) added to McIntyre and Salas reporting that teams were more effective when the individual participants were clear on what they viewed as an effective team. Hirschfeld et al.'s paradigmatic shift in modern times to understanding effective teams from the individual input level is consistent with Kelley's concept of exemplary followership.

I am including Parker's research on team player styles to investigate whether there is a team player style that commonly links to exemplary followers. Based on Kelley's notion that exemplary followers regularly prioritize needs of the team over the self, Chaleff's assertion that exemplary followers must challenge the team and leader's direction at times, and Parker's description of team player and its styles, an argument can be made that any one of Parker's team player styles could be linked to exemplary followership. I have not come across any research that connects the concepts presented by Kelley and Parker; therefore, I am proposing that some dimensions of a team player are most likely linked or have a relationship with being an exemplary follower.

As I continue forward with this investigation, I will address each proposition in this chapter as a formally stated hypothesis in chapter three.

The purpose of this chapter was to explore the theory and definition of exemplary followership, the dependent variable, along with the four independent variables: prosocial motivation, organizational citizenship behavior, psychological collectivism, and team player. Moreover, I wanted to map the theories that informed my research question and the foundation of this study. To map the theories to the research questions I chose to include a proposition statement at the end of each independent variable. My use of a proposition statement for each independent variable will be formalized in a hypothesis statement in the next chapter on research design and methods.

Conceptual Framework

This chapter has provided the merits of the three variables that help frame the overarching research question, "what variables could predict exemplary followership?" The common descriptors of exemplary followership are a focus on team goals, individual contributions, active engagement, and commitment to the success of a leader and organization. The role of organizational citizenship behavior emphasizes the importance of discretionary efforts which is willed from the individual and presented as active engagement. Moreover, the emphasis of team purpose and productivity is taken from psychological collectivism and team player. It is therefore vital to highlight the theories and background of the proposed predictor variables to answer the overarching research question.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Research Questions

Kelley (1992) suggested exemplary followers were highly engaged and independent thinkers. Collins's (2001) five levels of leadership bridged Kelley's suggestion of followership to leadership through the first two levels whereby he charged that prior to being a great leader, a person must be a highly capable individual who contributes through talent, knowledge, skills, and good work habits. The second level suggests that great leaders are first, a contributing team member that uses their capabilities to benefit the team. Chaleff (2009) combined these approaches when he suggested that both followers and leaders share in responsibilities through an exchange of influence.

The discourse between these authors provided a reasonable approach to examining exemplary followership and the positioning of three factors: psychological collectivism, organizational citizenship behavior, and team players. The intent of this research study was to investigate the factors that contribute to exemplary followership.

In the first chapter, the purpose of this research study was presented to: (1) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and prosocial motivation; (2) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and psychological collectivism; (3) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and organizational citizenship behavior; and (4) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and team players.

I introduced the independent variable prosocial motivation, and suggested it was not theoretically different than organizational citizenship behavior, therefore, it was not considered any further in this investigation. The newly proposed model below reflects the change in independent variables included in this study.

The purpose of this research study was to: (1) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and organizational citizenship behavior; (2) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and psychological collectivism; and (3) examine the relationship between exemplary followers and team players.
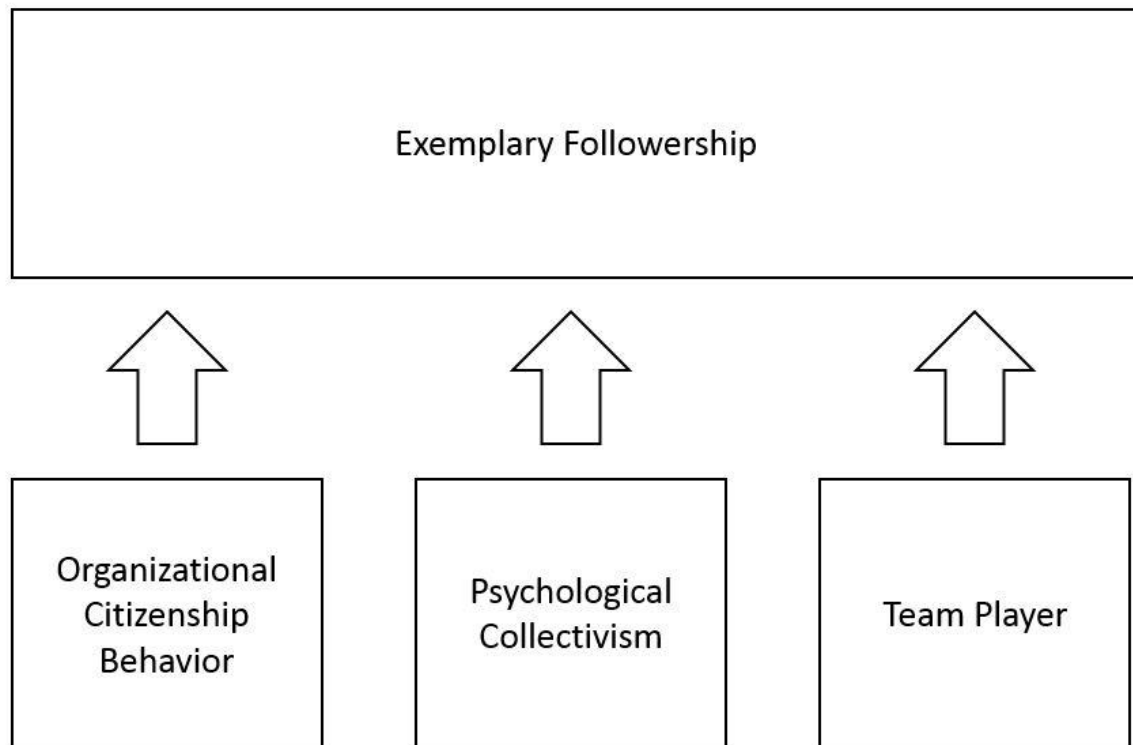
Figure 3. Revision of the proposed model for this investigation

Hypotheses

Following my review of literature and examination of measurement tools, I was better positioned to propose hypotheses for this investigation. The hypotheses for this study were:

H_1: Subjects who indicate higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior at the individual level will show greater followership scores.

H_2: Subjects who indicate higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior at the organizational level will show greater followership scores.

40

H$_3$: Subjects who indicate higher levels of psychological collectivism will show greater followership scores.

H$_4$: Subjects who indicate higher levels of collaborator as a team player will show greater followership scores.

H$_5$: Subjects who indicate higher levels of challenger as a team player will not show greater followership scores.

H$_6$: Subjects who indicate higher levels of contributor as a team player will not show greater followership scores.

H$_7$: Subjects who indicate higher levels of communicator as a team player will not show greater followership scores.

Sample Size

I worked in the medical industry and knew that I needed to get 200 responses to perform factor analysis. When I started this investigation, I was in a professional position that allowed for me to possibly obtain approximately 2000 responses; however, during the design of this chapter, I was promoted into another role in the same organization which limited access to respondents significantly. I launched the survey with the hope of getting 650 responses; however, the day before this survey launched in the organization, the email system was hacked by outside phishing attempts. The following week the email system was hacked again by phishing attempts wherein both stemmed from links sent to employees in emails. My survey was sent as a link in an email for employees to click to participate. During this chapter, I received limited responses from the organization, so I expanded the research to include outside sources.

I partnered with Dr. Philip Garland, Visiting Scholar in the Center for Communication Difference and Equity in the Department of Communication at the University of Washington,

who does work through surveymonkey.com for academic students with instruments consisting of more than 50 items. The responses that came from my institution were coded to indicate which participants were from my institution versus the generalized sample. The screening process sent to Dr. Garland required that participants be 18 years-of-age or older, and work in some role in the healthcare industry. Surveymonkey screens their participants based on profiles set up on their site with matching demographics (Surveymonkey, 2018). The participants are paid from Surveymonkey for their responses and routing of surveys depends on the priority of the survey.

This investigation included factor analysis, therefore, I needed at least 200 participants to conduct my analysis. I selected 200 because my largest instrument had 20 items, and researchers suggest a general rule of 10 participants for every item in an instrument (Garson, 2015).

Instrumentation

The *followership questionnaire* I used in this study was developed by Kelley (1992) that included twenty statements designed to relate to two dimensions of followership: independent thinking and active engagement (See Appendix A). The questionnaire used a Likert scale ranging from 0 = Rarely to 6 = Almost Always in which respondents indicate their responses to the twenty statements separated into subscales. The subscale questions were:

Independent Thinking

1. Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?

2. Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most critical for achieving the organization's goals?

3.   Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader's or the organization's goals?

4.   Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to a leader to do it for you?

5.   Do you help the leader or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?

6.   Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation?

7.   Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the leader's decision, rather than just doing what you are told?

8.   When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?

9.   Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or the group's standards?

10.   Do you assert your views on important issues, even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the leader?

Active Engagement

1.   Are your personal work goals aligned with the organization's priority goals?

2.   Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?

3.   Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your co-workers?

4.   Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?

5. When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the leader?

6. Can the leader give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your deadline with highest-quality work and that you will "fill in the cracks" if need be?

7. Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?

8. When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?

9. Do you help out other co-workers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?

10. Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?

In Kelley's (1992) publication of the followership questionnaire, he did not report any reliability data; however, researchers later found the Cronbach's alpha for Kelley's followership questionnaire at .84 (Dawson & Sparks, 2008; Mertler, Steyer, & Peterson, 1997). VanDoren (1998) found a subscale Cronbach's alpha of .74 for independent thinking and .87 for active engagement. More recently, Favara (2009) provided an overall Cronbach's alpha of .87 with a subscale of independent thinking of .77 and .86 for active engagement.

While examining Cronbach's alpha as reported in Favara's (2009) study, I discovered some discrepancies with how the factors loaded. Items that were designed to measure independent thinking loaded as active engagement. These items were: Follow 1, Follow 5, and Follow 16. Item Follow 8 was designed to measure active engagement but loaded on

independent thinking (see below). Moreover, some items loaded below the recommended threshold for their sample size (. 50 or higher). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest sample sizes larger than 150 to use .45 or higher as the threshold while they suggest sample sizes larger than 120 to use .50. My investigation had a sample size of larger than 150, therefore, I examined factors loading at the .45 or higher as the threshold.

Table 2

Component matrix of followership survey with two force factors

Variable	Independent Thinking	Active Engagement
		Components
Follow 1		**.467**
Follow 2		.561
Follow 3		.764
Follow 4		.689
Follow 5		**.686**
Follow 6		.583
Follow 7		.586
Follow 8	**.453**	
Follow 9		.734
Follow 10		.772
Follow 11	.411	
Follow 12	.563	
Follow 13		.676
Follow 14	.421	
Follow 15		.692
Follow 16		**.589**
Follow 17	.679	
Follow 18	.619	
Follow 19	.806	
Follow 20	.549	

The items on this instrument were also multi-barreled. Although Cronbach's alpha had been calculated in subsequent studies from the original design of the instrument, I separated out the questions that were multi-barreled to examine each item further. I did this by keeping the original 20 item instrument intact as the participants took this portion of the survey. Following

the original 20 items, the participant was prompted to answer the questions using one variable in

each item as indicated in table 3 below.

Table 3

Revised followership items

Item	Followership Original Item	Construct	Revised Item	Item
1	Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?	Independent Thinking	Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal?	21
			Does your work help you fulfill some personal dream that is important to you?	22
3	Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?	Active Engagement	Are you highly committed to your organization?	23
			Are you highly energized by your organization?	24
			Do you give your best ideas to your organization?	25
			Do you give your best performance to your organization?	26
4	Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your coworkers?	Active Engagement	Does your enthusiasm spread to your coworkers?	27
			Does your enthusiasm energize your coworkers?	28

Table 3. *Revised followership items* (continued)

Item	Followership Original Item	Construct	Revised Item	Item
6	Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?	Active Engagement	Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader?	29
			Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the organization?	30
9	Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?	Active Engagement	Do you take the initiative to seek out assignments that go above and beyond your job?	31
			Do you take the initiative to successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?	32

Table 3. *Revised followership items* (continued)

Item	Followership Original Item	Construct	Revised Item	Item
11	Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader's or the organization's goals?	Independent Thinking	Do you independently think up new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader?	33
			Do you independently think up new ideas that will contribute significantly to the organization?	34
			Do you independently champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader?	35
			Do you independently champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the organization?	36
14	Do you help the leader or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?	Independent Thinking	Do you help the leader see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas, playing the devil's advocate if need be?	37
			Do you help the group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas, playing the devil's advocate if need be?	38

Table 3. *Revised followership items* (continued)

Item	Followership Original Item	Construct	Revised Item	Item
15	Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?	Active Engagement	Do you understand the leader's needs?	39
			Do you understand the leader's goals?	40
			Do you understand the leaders constraints?	41
			Do you work hard to help the leader meet their needs?	42
			Do you work hard to help the leader meet their goals?	43
			Do you work hard to help the leader with constraints?	44
18	When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	Independent Thinking	When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	45
			When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	46
19	Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or the group's standards?	Independent Thinking	Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's standards?	47
			Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the group's standards?	48

Table 3. *Revised followership items* (continued)

Item	Followership Original Item	Construct	Revised Item	Item
20	Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the leader?	Independent Thinking	Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean conflict with your group?	49
			Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean reprisals from the leader?	50

There were enough studies that confirmed Cronbach's alpha on this questionnaire that justified continuing forward with the instrument in the investigation; however, if I did not address the discrepancies uncovered in this investigation, I risked misinterpreting the analyses.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) questionnaire I used in this study was developed by Lee and Allen (2002). Lee and Allen developed their OCB instrument from Williams and Anderson's (1991) OCB instrument. Williams and Anderson's suggestion that OCB entails subcategories of individual (OCB-I) and organizational (OCB-O) was paramount to my investigation. However, some items on Williams and Anderson's instrument were outdated within the modern workplace and could lead to misinterpretation of the results. Lee and Allen's study was a more modern version that examines OCB-I and OCB-O.

Kumar, Bakhshi, and Rani (2009) suggested that Williams and Anderson's questionnaire did not provide additional value by separating individual and organizational factors. The researchers suggested that OCB should encompass both individual and organizational. Although some researchers do not agree with OCB-I and OCB-O subscales, they were relevant to my

investigation as it related to exemplary followers and their behaviors towards team and organization.

The questionnaire was comprised of 16 items wherein 8 items represented OCB-I and 8 items represented OCB-O responses. The questions were:

OCB-I

1. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.

2. Help others who have been absent.

3. Share personal property with others to help their work.

4. Assist others with their duties.

5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.

6. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.

7. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.

8. Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.

OCB-O

1. Show pride when representing the organization in public.

2. Express loyalty to the organization.

3. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.

4. Keep up with the developments in the organization.

5. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.

6. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

7. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.

8.   Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.

The participants indicated responses to the questionnaire through a five-point scale. Bakhshi, Kumar, and Kumari (2009) created a five-point scale for their OCB assessment, which fit with the statements used in Lee and Allen's (2002) items, and I used their scale for respondents. Their scale was: 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = frequently; and 5 always.

Williams and Anderson (1991) did not report an overall reliability for their instrument; however, they did report the subscales to be OCB-I = 0.88 and OCB-O = .75. Lee and Allen's (2002) more modern version of the instrument also did not report an overall reliability score, but they reported the subscale Cronbach's alpha as: OCB-I = .83; and OCB-O = .88. In a recent study, Newland (2012) reported the subscale Cronbach's alpha for OCB-I = .90 and OCB-O = .90 when using Lee and Allen's instrument.

Psychological Collectivism

The psychological collectivism instrument I used in this investigation was developed by Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, and Zapata-Phelan (2006). I chose to use their instrument because it has been shown to be a significant predictor in employee performance. The instrument was designed to determine whether an individual has a higher priority for collective goals or individual goals.

Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, and Zapata-Phelan's instrument consists of 15-items. The instrument was initially developed with 25-items; however, the researchers shortened the instrument by only selecting the higher loading factors. The instrument was designed to measure 5 facets of psychological collectivism: preference for in-groups, reliance on in-groups, concern for in-groups, acceptance of in-group norms, and prioritization of in-group goals. Although the instrument measures the 5 facets of psychological collectivism, the combination of all facets

measures the overall psychological collectivism, which was what I was be examining in this study. The participants were asked to read and think about their workgroups they currently or recently participated in. Participants responded using the response scale of 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The items are:

1. I preferred to work in those groups rather than working alone.

2. Working in those groups was better than working alone.

3. I wanted to work with those groups as opposed to working alone.

4. I felt comfortable counting on group members to do their part.

5. I was not bothered by the need to rely on group members.

6. I felt comfortable trusting group members to handle their tasks.

7. The health of those groups was important to me.

8. I cared about the well-being of those groups.

9. I was concerned about the needs of those groups.

10. I followed the norms of those groups.

11. I followed the procedures used by those groups.

12. I accepted the rules of those groups.

13. I cared more about the goals of those groups than my own goals.

14. I emphasized the goals of those groups more than my individual goals.

15. Group goals were more important to me than my personal goals.

The researchers reported Cronbach's alpha as .84 for the entirety of the instrument with strong Cronbach alphas for the subscales as well. I was not examining the subscales for this instrument; therefore, I did not provide Cronbach's alpha for these facets.

Team Player

The instrument I used for team player was developed by Glenn Parker (2008) called the

Parker Team Player Survey (PTPS). The PTPS is a self-report instrument that reports one of four

team player styles to the participants: contributor, collaborator, communicator, and challenger.

The instrument consists of 18 items which describe common situations involving teams.

Following each item is a response option to the situation. Participants were asked to rank order

their responses to 4 options for each statement. I only included the questions and responses for

the PTPS in Appendix C due to its lengthy response options to the questions whereas the

previously mentioned instruments used a scale response report allowing for more ease in

including questions in this chapter.

The PTPS has been tested and retested for reliability wherein Parker (1991) reported

Cronbach's alpha for the subscales as: contributor = .59, collaborator = .26, communicator = .55,

and challenger = .38. While these were lower than ideal internal consistency scores using

Cronbach's alpha, they were significantly different. A further investigation of test-retest for the

PTPS reported the subscale as: contributor = .67, collaborator = .55, communicator = .71, and

challenger = .51.

Parker (1990) suggested that lower internal consistency particularly for collaborator and

challenger could be from the small number of items (18) and a tendency that participants have to

report more than one style. This was validated through Parker's researcher wherein he found

30% of respondents ($n = 251$) expressed more than one primary style. Participants who report

more than one primary style on an assessment contribute to difficulties in obtaining high

reliability (Kirnan & Woodruff, 1994). Kirnana and Woodruff conducted an investigation to

explore the validity and reliability in the PTPS, whereby they suggested that the samples above, given the frequency of participants reporting multiple styles, are representative of the reliability.

Moreover, the researchers found the validity of the instrument to be strong based on relationships between peer and self-ratings. Their findings suggest strong agreement on the four styles between peers and self-raters.

Although there are reasons to further investigate the instrument, particularly in this study, Kirnan and Woodruff (1994) concluded that the instrument would be a useful measure around teams. Their conclusions are based on the test-retest and validity of the instrument. I was using this instrument based on the recommendation of Kirnan and Woodruff and the fit of Parker's construct of team player, and Kelley's definition of exemplary followership which consists of team players (Kelley, 1992; Parker, 2008; Kirnan & Woodruff, 1994).

It should be noted that Parker used this instrument in a healthcare setting noting the distribution of styles: contributor = 12.9%, collaborator = 27.6%, communicator = 12.1%, challenger = 20.2%, and two or more primary styles = 27.2%. My sample will be coming from the healthcare industry, and this may provide insights for chapter 5.

The construction of my instrument included demographic variables to help interpretations of the data. These variables consisted of:

1.   *Gender*: This variable is to indicate how participants identify their gender.

2.   *Age*: This variable is to identify the age range of the participants.

3.   *Ethnicity*: This variable is to identify the ethnic group participants are classified in.

4.   *Education Level*: This variable is to identify the years of higher education obtained by the participant.

5. *Job Classification*: This variable is to identify whether the participant works in a role as a clinical professional or a nonclinical professional as identified by the organization.

6. *Length of Employment*: This variable is to identify the length of time the participant has been employed at their current organization.

The survey started with measuring the dependent variable followership. Following the questionnaire on followership, respondents took the OCB-I and OCB-O followed by psychological collectivism and team player. Finally, respondents answered demographic questions at the end of the instrument.

I structured my instrument in this manner to capture responses on my primary interest followed by the dependent variables. By having respondents answer questions on followership first followed by the dependent variable, I was able to analyze some forms of data if the respondents quit taking the survey at any point (Siniscalco & Auriat, 2005). I asked the demographic data at the end of the survey due to its sensitive nature, and to allow participants to complete the survey and opt out of identifying demographic variables (Wai-Ching, 2001).

In all, participants were asked to answer 99 items which did not include the demographic identification. These items were to be deployed using Surveymonkey.com. I chose to use Surveymonkey.com because the health system that participated in this study was familiar with the software. Their employees typically took surveys on Surveymonkey.com, and they had strict policies that restricted some software survey instruments from being used on site.

Procedure

Participants were provided a letter of informed consent via email along with the informational email describing the purpose of the study. The informed consent form was

provided through email rather than on the survey to ensure confidentiality when responding to the survey. Information was also provided about the types of questions to expect and the length of time to take the survey. Participants were not asked or required to identify themselves on the survey. Letters of informed consent were returned to the researcher, and the survey responses collected online in an account that only the researcher had access to.

Data Analysis

All responses collected through Surveymonkey.com were collected and prepared for analysis. Raw data were exported from Surveymonkey.com to Excel software and then transferred to Stata, a statistical software program. Demographic data were coded as:

Table 4

Proposed demographic variables and levels of measurement

Variable	Domain Values	Level of Measurement
Gender	1 = Male 2 = Female 3 = Transgender 4 = I do not Identify	Nominal
Age	Type in Response	Ratio
Ethnicity	1 = Arab American 2 = Latino/Latina 3 = Native American 4 = European American/Caucasian 5 = African American 6 = Asian American 7 = Other	Nominal
Highest Educational Level Attained	1 = High School (GED) 2 = Associates Degree 3 = Bachelors Degree 4 = Masters Degree 5 = Doctoral Degree/Post	Ordinal
Job Classification	1 = Professional Clinical 2 = Professional Nonclinical	Nominal
Length of Employment	Positive Integer	Interval

As stated in my hypotheses for this investigation, I examined for significant relationships between the independent and dependent variables to create knowledge for application in certain target populations. For this investigation, I used the target level of statistical significance as .05. I used parametric tests based on my instrument including Likert scale items and interval data.

Because I examined for relationships between the independent and dependent variables, I was answering the question as to whether an independent variable could be a predictor of the dependent variable. Thus, my independent variables were discussed as predictor variables and

my dependent variable discussed as the criterion variable in subsequent chapters. The statistical analysis I used was multiple linear regression. By developing a regression model for this targeted population, I was capturing the slope and intercept. From that point, I could employ the population prediction model to predict the followership style based on development in one of the dependent variables in future applications. Because I was looking at correlations between the independent and dependent variables I used Pearson's *r* to determine the power of any relationships.

Assumptions and Limitations

It was assumed that response rates were consistent with the organizational norms due to the frequency of surveys, internal distribution, and partnership with the organization to distribute the survey. It was also assumed that respondents answered the survey honestly due to the confidentiality awarded, and the minimized risks.

A limitation to this study concerned the use of the Parker Team Player Survey (PTPS) and its questionable internal consistency. Although researchers have recommended using this instrument for this type of research, there was a possibility that multiple primary types from the PTPS could impact the results of the study.

An additional limitation to this study was the computer access for all employees. Some employees had easier access to computers to participate in this study, while others may not have had easy access to a computer to take the survey. Moreover, prior to sending out this survey, computer systems were infiltrated by hackers meaning that participants may be more reluctant to click on a link. To mitigate this risk, communication will go through the Vice President.

CHAPTER 4. FINDINGS

This dissertation was designed around the investigation for relationships between exemplary followers and: (1) organizational citizenship behavior; (2) psychological collectivism; and (3) team players. The independent variables have evolved over the course of this investigation because of the literature review. As mentioned in previous chapters, prosocial motivation was initially included as an independent variable in this investigation; however, through the literature review process, the variable was found to be indistinguishable from organizational citizenship behavior. As a result, it was not included in chapter 3 methods, and it will not be included in any subsequent chapters.

The review of literature was focused on the history and framework of followership along with each independent variable to establish a connection between my research questions, hypotheses, and methodology. The methodology was designed to scientifically answer each research questions and test the hypotheses. This chapter will report on the participants and findings from their survey.

A total of 262 responses to the survey were collected, and 2 respondents were removed due to not responding to any questions on the survey. As a result, a total of 260 responses were collectively examined and analyzed for this investigation. For the instruments that used ordinal measurements (followership, organizational citizenship behavior, and psychological collectivism) gaps in responses to a question were filled in with the mean for that item. This allowed for a sample size of n = 260. The Team Player instrument used a categorical measurement and had the most skipped questions by participants. If a participant did not respond to a categorical measurement question, the data were noted with a ".a" as required by Stata ©

software. The analysis of the team player instrument will involve a smaller number of participants, n = 244.

A total of 220 females participated along with 37 males, which is consistent with the industry in that healthcare typically is comprise of more than 80 percent female employees. In this survey, 85 percent were female, 14 percent were male and less than 1 percent preferred not to answer. One person did not respond to the question. The mean age of the respondents was 38 years ranging from 18 to 74, and the average length of employment was 7.12 years. Table 5 below displays the demographics for this investigation.

Table 5

Demographic report

Variable	Domain Values	n	%
Gender	1 = Female	220	85
	2 = Male	37	14
	3 = Prefer not to answer	1	<1
	.a= No response	1	<1
Ethnicity	1 = African American	23	9
	2 = Arab American	2	<1
	3 = Asian American	9	3
	4 = Burmese American	1	<1
	5 = European American/Caucasian	192	73
	6 = Jamaican	0	0
	7 = Indian	1	<1
	8 = Latino/Latina	12	5
	9 = Native American	10	4
	.a= No response	10	4
Highest	1 = High School (GED)	20	8
Educational	2 = Some College	47	18
Level	3 = Certificate	16	6
Attained	4 = Associate Degree	64	25
	5 = Bachelors Degree	61	23
	6 = Masters Degree	32	12
	7 = Doctoral Degree/Post	20	8
	.a= No response	0	0
Job	1 = Clinical	168	65
Classification	2 = Nonclinical	90	35
	a.= No response	2	<1

Followership

The participants began the survey with the *Followership Questionnaire* of which

concerns were expressed in chapter 3 regarding the factor loadings of the items in the instrument.

Due to the suspicions expressed in chapter 3 regarding the items loading on different factors,

confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to further examine the factor loadings.

Favara's (2009) investigation first reported four items that loaded on different factors. Through confirmatory factor analysis this investigation reported even more disparities between the items and the factors they were loading on. In Favara's investigation, he ran factor analysis and rotated the data with a Varimax technique. The same techniques were conducted with this research to compare the data (see table 6). The results indicate that the items used in the *Followership Questionnaire* do not match up with the factors suggested by Kelley (1992). The bold items represent items designed to load on independent thinking. As the table depicts, six of those items load instead on active engagement.

Table 6

Followership questionnaire factor loadings

Variable	Active Engagement	Independent Thinking
F1	**.507**	
F2	.623	
F3	.731	
F4	.718	
F5	**.747**	
F6	.715	
F7	.684	
F8	.693	
F9	.773	
F10	.656	
F11	**.678**	
F12	**.730**	
F13	.655	
F14	**.611**	
F15	.657	
F16	**.623**	
F17		**.645**
F18		**.653**
F19		**.690**
F20		**.684**

It was suggested during the proposal defense that many items were double-barreled, triple-barreled, and quadruple barreled, and that I needed to write additional items. Favara's (2009) research reported similar concerns with the same instrument; therefore, prior to gathering data, I separated out the multi-barreled questions to create 30 additional items stemming from the original multi-barreled item. Because the model designed by Kelley (1992) does not load as he suggested it should, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to utilize an unbiased approach to identifying the number of factors. During the exploratory factor analysis, the 20 items from the *Followership Questionnaire* and the other 30 items created by unraveling the multi-barreled questions were loaded and rotated with the Varimax technique.

The results from the exploratory factor analysis yielded nine factors with Eigenvalues greater than one. Factor loadings were examined at .45 or above for significance as recommended for sample sizes larger than 150 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A total of nine factors loaded with significant items. Table 7 displays the first factor loadings which had an eigenvalue of 19.917 below.

Table 7

First factor loadings (N = 260)

Item	Loading	Without Cronbach Alpha
Do you understand the leader's goals? (F42)	.835	.92
Do you understand the leader's constraints? (F43)	.798	.92
Do you understand the leader's needs? (F41)	.794	.92
Do you work hard to help the leader meet their needs? (F44)	.787	.92
Do you work hard to help the leader meet their goals? (F45)	.782	.92
Do you work hard to help the leader with constraints? (F46)	.703	.93
Eigenvalue	19.917	
Cronbach's alpha	.93	

Item F15 (Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?) had a factor loading of .560 on the first factor; however, the item was quadruple-barreled, and the components of the original item are included in the factors above. Cronbach's alpha was .93, and slightly higher when item was removed, therefore, F15 was removed from analyses to improve the reliability and eliminate a quadruple-barreled item. This factor will be called commitment to leader achievement (CLA).

Table 8 displays the second factor loadings which had an Eigenvalue of 5.485.

Table 8

Second factor loadings (N = 260)

Item	Loading	Alpha if Item Deleted
Do you independently champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader? (F33)	.815	.91
Do you independently think up new ideas that will contribute significantly to the organization? (F32)	.809	.91
Do you independently champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the organization? (F34)	.772	.91
Do you independently think up new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader? (F31)	.764	.91
Do you take the initiative to successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job? (F30)	.563	.92
Do you take the initiative to seek out assignments that go above and beyond your job? (F29)	.554	.92
Do you give your best ideas to your organization? (F39)	.475	.92
Eigenvalue	5.485	
Cronbach's alpha	.93	

F11 (Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader's or the organization's goals?) had a factor loading of .531; however, the item was quadruple-barreled with the varying components broken down into items: F31, F32, F33, and F34. Cronbach's alpha was slightly higher without item F11; therefore, it was removed from these analyses, which also removes a quadruple-barreled item. This factor will be called idea contribution (IC).

Table 9 displays the third factor loadings which had an Eigenvalue of 2.282.

Table 9

Third factor loadings (N = 260)

Item	Loading	Without Cronbach Alpha
Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean conflict with your group? (F49)	.799	.85
Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the group's standards? (F48)	.789	.85
Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean reprisals form the leader? (F50)	.774	.85
Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's standards? (F47)	.774	.86
Do you help the group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas, playing the devil's advocate if need be? (F36)	.554	.87
Do you help the leader see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas, playing the devil's advocate if need be? (F35)	.462	.87
Eigenvalue	2.282	
Cronbach's alpha	.88	

F19 (Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or the group's standards?) and F20 (Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the leader?) had factor loadings of .697 and .588 respectively; however, those items were double-barreled with the varying components of those items broken down for F19 as items F47 and F48 and for F20, items F49 and F50. With both items included, Cronbach's alpha was slightly higher; however, the double-barreled questions were redundant and the reliability without these items was significant enough to maintain high internal consistency without the two items. Items F19 and F20 were removed from analyses. This factor will be called follower courage (FC).

Table 10 displays the fourth factor loadings which had an Eigenvalue of 2.194.

Table 10

Fourth factor loadings (N = 260)

Item	Loading	Without Cronbach Alpha
Can the leader give you a difficult assignment knowing that you will meet your deadline with highest quality work? (F8)	.727	.82
When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share? (F10)	.607	.83
Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off your evaluation? (F16)	.605	.83
Do you help out other coworkers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit? (F13)	.583	.83
Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the leader to do it for you? (F12)	.523	.82
Do you give your best performance to your organization? (F40)	.511	.84
Eigenvalue	2.194	
Cronbach's alpha	.85	

F9 (Do you take the initiative to see out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?) had a factor loading of .523; however, it was double-barreled with items loading on idea contribution, the second factor. Cronbach's alpha is slightly higher with F9 included in this factor at .88; however, removing the item does not compromise the internal reliability of the instrument and removes a double-barreled question. Item F9 was removed from analyses. This factor will be called active engagement (AE).

Table 11 displays the fifth factor loadings which had an Eigenvalue of 1.570.

Table 11

Fifth factor loadings (N = 260)

Item	Loading	Without Cronbach Alpha
Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal? (F21)	.739	.84
Does your work help you fulfill some personal dream that is important to you? (F22)	.683	.84
Are your personal work goals aligned with the organization's priority goals? (F2)	.666	.87
Are you highly energized by your organization? (F24)	.504	.84
Are you highly committed to your organization? (F23)	.477	.85
Eigenvalue	1.570	
Cronbach's alpha	.88	

Items F1(Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?) and F3 (Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?) had factor loadings of .755 and .507 respectively; however, both items were double-barreled with the components of those items included in table 11. Cronbach's alpha was slightly higher with F1 and F3 at .90; however, removing the items did not compromise the internal reliability and two double-barreled questions were able to be removed. Items F1 and F3 were removed from the analyses. This factor will be called follower fulfillment (FF).

Factors 6, 7, 8, and 9 were not included in this analysis because they had 3 or fewer items that loaded on each factor. Because this research is about followership, when the 5 sub factors were summed together using all 30 items, the result is the overarching factor followership which has an overall Cronbach's alpha of .95. Table 12 displays the summarized sub-factors of followership as well as the overarching factor followership.

Table 12

Followership and sub-factors (N = 260)

Sub-factor	No. of items	M (SD)	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's α
Followership	30	110.01 (21.48)	.000	.000	.95
CLA	6	23.47 (5.40)	.000	.000	.93
IC	7	25.12 (6.47	.000	.015	.93
FC	6	19.42 (5.75)	.004	.982	.88
AE	6	24.34 (4.42)	.000	.000	.85
FF	5	17.66 (4.95)	.000	.098	.88

The overall followership Cronbach's alpha of .95 is higher than the previous followership models reporting .87, and the multi-barreled questions have been removed. Due to the more reliable findings in the 30-item followership instrument with 5 sub-factors, this investigation will use these items to answer the proposed hypotheses.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) had two sub-factors: organizational citizenship behavior for individual (OCB-I), and organizational citizenship behavior for organizational (OCB-O). OCB is the overarching factor. Cronbach's alpha for OCB-I was .89, OCB-O .92, and as a whole .94.

Williams and Anderson (1991) found the five components of OCB could be subcategorized into OCB-I and OCB-O wherein no concerns were raised regarding factor loadings from initial and modern researchers, even as the instrument has been used for over two-decades. Due to there being no concerns or discourse suggesting any question of the factor loadings, there is no reason to run factor analysis on OCB in this investigation.

Psychological collectivism (PC) reported Cronbach's alpha as .93 overall. Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, and Zapata-Phelan (2006) initially reported Cronbach's alpha overall as .84. Although the researchers identified five sub-factors for their instrument, no discourse has

identified any concerns with factor loadings. There is no reason to run factor analysis on PC in this investigation.

Table 13

Organizational citizenship behavior and psychological collectivism summary (N = 260)

Sub-factor	No. of items	*M (SD)*	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's α
OCB	16	61.72 (12.46)	.000	.068	.94
OCB-I	8	31.62 (6.10)	.000	.000	.89
OCB-O	8	30.09 (7.48)	.000	.169	.92
PC	15	52.87 (13.66)	.000	.386	.93

This part of the investigation examined relationships between the variables using ordinal measurements. The first steps in examining relationships was to create a correlation matrix to first determine which overarching factors and which sub-factors to examine for relationships and predictability. Table 14 below displays the correlations between these factors.

Table 14

Followership and OCB sub-factors and psychological collectivism: correlations (N = 260)

Variables	CLA	IC	FC	AE	FF	Follow	OCBI	OCBO	OCB	PC
CLA	-									
IC	**.63**	-								
FC	**.37**	**.52**	-							
AE	**.60**	**.67**	**.34**	-						
FF	**.65**	**.62**	**.39**	**.60**	-					
Follow	**.81**	**.88**	**.68**	**.79**	**.81**	-				
OCBI	**.57**	**.51**	**.30**	**.59**	**.51**	**.62**	-			
OCBO	**.66**	**.71**	**.40**	**.59**	**.70**	**.77**	**.68**	-		
OCB	**.67**	**.68**	**.39**	**.64**	**.66**	**.76**	**.90**	**.93**	-	
PC	**.46**	.28	.17	**.32**	**.47**	.42	.55	.52	.58	-

Note. Coefficients represent correlations of constructs for the total sample (N = 260).
All coefficients that are significant are bolded (*p* < .05).

The strongest correlation between followership and OCB variables was the overarching followership and OCB-O at .77 followed by the overarching OCB variable at .76 and OCB-I at .62. It is evident from this matrix that Followership had a significant relationship with OCB along with the sub-factors, particularly OCB-O. Followership also had a significant relationship with psychological collectivism (PC) at .42; however, not all followership sub-factors were significantly related to PC.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

After examining the variables in the correlation matrix, regression was used to determine direction and predictability and to answer the hypotheses restated:

H_1: subjects who indicate higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior at the

individual level will show greater followership scores.

Regression was examined, first on the latent variable Followership, and OCB-I. Table 15 below displays the regression analysis.

Table 15

Followership and OCB-I: regression table (N = 260)

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
OCB-I	2.17	.17	12.55	.000
Constant	41.46	5.56	7.46	.000

The y-intercept is at 41.46, which indicates that without any OCB-I the lowest score of followership is 41.46. OCB-I had a significant coefficient $B = 2.17$, $t = 12.55$ meaning for every one-unit increase in OCB-I, followership would increase by 2.17. The highest possible score for followership is 180, and the highest possible score for OCB-I is 40 meaning OCB-I could potentially add 86.8 to the y-intercept, which would create a significantly higher followership

score. Moreover, OCB-I accounts for a significant portion of the variance in followership, F (1, 258) = 157.63, R-squared = .38.

The regression provides the evidence to support the first hypothesis: subjects who indicate higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior at the individual level will show greater followership scores.

H_2: subjects who indicate higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior at the organizational level will show greater followership scores.

Regression was next examined with Followership and OCB-O. Table 16 below displays the regression analysis for followership and OCB-O.

Table 16

Followership and OCB-O: regression table (N = 260)

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
OCB-O	2.21	.11	19.26	.000
Constant	43.60	3.55	12.27	.000

The y-intercept is at 43.60, which indicates that without any OCB-O the lowest score of followership is 43.60. OCB-O had a significant coefficient B = 2.21, t = 19.26 meaning for every one-unit increase in OCB-O, followership would increase by 2.21. The highest possible score for OCB-O is 40 meaning OCB-O could potentially add 88.4 to the y-intercept which would create a significantly higher followership score. Moreover, OCB-O accounts for a significant portion of the variance in followership, F (1, 258) = 370.87, R-squared = .59.

The regression provides the evidence to support the second hypothesis: subjects who indicate higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior at the organizational level will show greater followership scores.

73

Psychological Collectivism

H₃ Subjects who indicate higher levels of psychological collectivism will show greater

followership scores.

Regression was next examined with followership and PC. Table 17 displays the

regression analysis for followership and PC.

Table 17

Followership and PC: regression table (N = 260)

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
PC	.66	.09	7.42	.000
Constant	75.14	4.85	15.49	.000

The y-intercept is at 75.14, which indicates that without any PC, the lowest score of

followership is 75.14. PC had a significant coefficient $B = .66$, $t = 7.42$ meaning for every one-

unit increase in PC, followership would increase by 2.21. The highest possible score for PC is 75

meaning PC could potentially add 49.5 to the y-intercept which would create a significantly

higher followership score. Moreover, PC accounts for a significant portion of the variance in

followership, $F (1, 258) = 55.08$, R-squared $= .18$.

The regression provides the evidence to support the third hypothesis: subjects who

indicate higher levels of psychological collectivism will show greater followership scores.

Team Player

During the team player portion of the survey, 2 respondents from the 260 sample did not

respond to any questions, and 13 did not respond to more than 50% of the questions. Those were

removed from the sample leaving a sample for team player at 244. The sample size was large

enough that I used the mean to fill in blanks on the remaining 244 participant responses. The

highest possible score a participant could get on any team player style was 72 and 18 was the lowest score a participant could have on a team player style.

Scores were calculated to determine a participant's team player style which could have been: collaborator, challenger, contributor, and communicator. Means were then calculated for each team player style, and within each style responses were split into two new variables: those that fell below the mean (coded as 1) and those that fell above the mean (coded as 2). Some participants fell into two team player styles; however, those will be looked at in chapter five since the research questions are centered on one response. Table 18 displays the means for each team player style.

Table 18

Team player style summary (N = 244)

Variable	n	*M* (SD)
Collaborator	244	43.58 (5.65)
Challenger	244	46.95 (6.14)
Contributor	244	44.69 (6.48)
Communicator	244	51.94 (4.24)

Next, *t* tests were used to determine if the scores above the mean were significantly different than the scores below the mean. This process was done for all four team player styles to answer each hypothesis.

H_4: Subjects who indicate higher levels of collaborator as a team player will show greater followership scores.

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted between the followership means for collaborator team player style to compare followership scores from collaborators who were below the collaborator mean to those above the mean. Table 19 below displays the t-test results.

Table 19

Collaborator mean value imputation (N = 244)

Variable	Low Collaborator M (SD)	High Collaborator M (SD)	$t(242)$	p
Followership	109.26 (20.61)	109.70 (22.79)	-0.16	.875

There was no significant difference in the followership scores for participants who scored

lower on collaborator (M = 109.26, SD = 20.61) and participants who scored higher on

collaborator (M = 109.70, SD = 22.79); t (242) = -0.16, p = .875. These results suggest that a

person's collaborator score does not indicate any direction for that person's followership scores.

These results indicate that Hypothesis 4 is not supported, and the null hypothesis would

be accepted.

H$_5$: Subjects who indicate higher levels of challenger as a team player will not show

greater followership scores.

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted between the followership means for

participants who indicated the challenger team player style to compare followership scores from

challengers who were below the challenger mean to those above the mean. Table 20 below

displays the means for challenger scores.

Table 20

Challenger mean value imputation (N = 244)

Variable	Low Challenger M (SD)	High Challenger M (SD)	$t(242)$	p
Followership	110.70 (20.45)	108.45 (22.73)	0.81	.420

There was no significant difference in the followership scores for participants who scored

lower on challenger (M = 110.70, SD = 20.45) and participants who scored higher on challenger

(M = 108.45, SD = 22.73); t (242) = 0.81, p = .420. These results suggest that a person's

challenger score does not indicate any direction for that person's followership scores.

These results indicate that Hypothesis 5 is supported; therefore, the null hypothesis is

accepted.

H_6: Subjects who indicate higher levels of contributor as a team player will not show

greater followership scores.

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted between the followership means for

participants who indicated the contributor team player style to compare followership scores from

contributors who were below the contributor mean to those above the mean. Table 21 below

displays the means for contributor scores.

Table 21

Contributor mean value imputation (N = 244)

Variable	Low Contributor M (SD)	High Contributor M (SD)	*t*(242)	*p*	Cohen's d
Followership	106.57 (23.98)	112.03 (19.22)	-1.97	.049	-0.25

There was a significant difference in the followership scores for participants who scored

lower on contributor (M = 106.57, SD = 23.98) and participants who scored higher on

contributor (M = 112.03, SD = 19.22); t (242) = -1.97, p = .049. These results indicate that the

followership means from lower contributors was significantly lower than the followership means

from higher contributors. Cohen's d = -0.25 indicated a small effect size and when converted to

r^2 the amount of variance in the followership scores for contributors below the mean is 1.6%.

The results do not support hypothesis 6: subjects who indicate higher levels of contributor as a team player will not show greater followership scores. Based on these results, hypothesis 6 was rejected.

H7: Subjects who indicate higher levels of communicator as a team player will not show greater followership scores.

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted between the followership means for participants who indicated the communicator team player style to compare followership scores from communicators who were below the communicator mean to those above the mean. Table 22 below displays the means for communicator scores.

Table 22

Communicator mean value imputation (N = 244)

Variable	Low Communicator M (SD)	High Communicator M (SD)	$t(242)$	p
Followership	111.41 (18.92)	107.87 (23.73)	1.27	.205

There was no significant difference in the followership scores for participants who scored lower on communicator (M = 111.41, SD = 18.92) and participants who scored higher on communicator (M = 107.87, SD = 23.73); t (242) = 1.27, p = .205. These results suggest that a person's communicator score does not indicate any direction for that person's followership scores.

These results indicate that Hypothesis 7 is supported; therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

The results of the analyses from this chapter will be discussed in conjunction with the research questions of this study in chapter 5. Moreover, the results will be examined for

consistencies and inconsistencies presented from previous researchers as mentioned through the

review of literature.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The intent of this research study was to explore exemplary followership and investigate what factors contribute to exemplary followership. This study particularly examined three factors for predictability to exemplary followership: (1) organizational citizenship behavior; (2) psychological collectivism; and (3) team player. When this investigation began, the independent variable *prosocial motivation* was included; however, after the review of literature, it was found to be indistinguishable from the organizational citizenship behavior independent variable and was not included in subsequent chapters.

The intent of examining exemplary followership was to better understand the leader and follower relationship with a focus on the follower. Moreover, the factors selected were initially identified because they were trainable constructs that could be applied in the workplace to support exemplary followership.

Exemplary Followership

Kelley (1992) suggested that followership was comprised of the two factors independent thinking and active engagement whereby exemplary followers reported a high composite score on both factors. Moreover, Kelley suggested that exemplary followers demonstrated high skillsets in job skills, organizational skills, and values components. While previous researchers have based the definitions and research assumptions on Kelley's works, as did this study, the findings in chapter 4 indicate followership to be more aligned with the research theory of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Riggio, Chaleff, and Lipman-Bluemen's (2008) definition.

Gerstner and Day's (1997) and Ilies, Nahrgang, and Morgeson's (2007) argument that followers' performances were dependent upon a leader's relationship with their followers was

80

supported in this study through the exploratory factor analysis wherein the first factor identified was "commitment to leader achievement." The factor of "followership fulfillment" could also arguably be supported through the LMX theory whereby leader can influence whether followers' needs are fulfilled or not.

In addition to the LMX theory contribution to the definition of exemplary followership, Riggio, Chaleff, and Lipman-Bluemen's (2008) suggestion that exemplary followers build, promote, and safeguard their organizations. This seems to be substantiated by the regression of the sub-factors of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) at the individual (OCB-I) and organizational (OCB-O) level. OCB-I and OCB-O were significantly related to followership.

Finally, Willson (2012) suggested that exemplary followership was characterized by followers: prioritizing group purposes ahead of personal purpose, being friendly, optimistic, effective listening, understanding needs of others, and showing trust and trustworthiness. This definition seems to be substantiated by the significant relationship between psychological collectivism and followership scores.

I initially thought I would be using Kelley's (1992) instrument which has two factors. I found that the instrument is not reliable. Further research is going to need to be done using confirmatory factor analysis confirming the factors which I think are there. Therefore, the followership scores were measured on the aggregate.

The highest possible score with the modified followership instrument in this investigation was 180. The original instrument from Kelley (1992) used quartiles to categorize results; however, with the instrument not being found to be reliable, I am going to change the categories to better fit the results of the model I created. I am choosing to use three categories because it is consistent then with Etzioni (1961) and Gallup (2007) models which have been referenced and

related to followership throughout this investigation. Both Etzioni and Gallup use three categories to define their models, of which Gallup continues to use three and is very commonly used across multiple organizations and across the globe.

The score range could be categorized into three categories: low followership (0 – 60); moderate followership (61 – 120); and exemplary followership (121 – 180). These categories could further be defined as:

Low followership – followers are not committed to the shared purpose of the organization or the leader, and do not act out expectations with intentions of supporting the organization, leader, or fulfillment of the shared purpose. These followers may demonstrate poor behavior in the workplace.

This is very similar with Gallup's (2007) engagement level of *actively disengagement* in that followers would have intentions of doing more harm than good to the organization or the leader. Moreover, low followership aligns with Etzioni's (1961) involvement level of *alienative* employees whereby alienative followers would not feel any intrinsic reward for their job. It could be argued that low followers would struggle more as adult learners due to the need for adult learners to gain intrinsic value, and the lack of intrinsic value felt by alienative involvement employees. In my sample of 260, 1 percent or 4 participants fell into this category. In a recent study, Gallup (2017) reported 16 percent on average of employees are actively disengaged. This leads to a question as to why only one percent in this investigation reported as low followership.

The answer to this question is likely in the approach to the collection of participants. Actively disengaged employees would likely not respond to a survey to help the organization.

Moderate followership – followers are committed as a requirement of job duties but to the minimal extent of expectations; however, they may not be committed to the shared purpose.

These followers may function well within the team, but do not contribute ideas, would tend to focus on personal goals over team goals. These followers may be easily distracted or more apt to be disengaged based on the team members' behaviors around them.

This is similar to Gallup's (2007) engagement level of *not engaged* wherein followers would only give the minimal efforts and energy towards the shared purpose. Moreover, moderate followers would align with Etzioni's (1961) involvement level of *calculative* whereby followers would adjust their involvement to meet inducement, but nothing more. In my sample of 260, 66 percent or 172 participants fell into this category. Gallup (2017) recently reported an average of 51 percent employees to be *not engaged*. The disparity in my percentage and Gallup's might be explained by the combination of lower participation from lower followership or actively disengaged comparatively and the general nature of respondents through the means in which they were recruited. Participant responses were purchased in this investigation which could be implicative of higher volumes in respondents participating due to calculative purposes to meet their needs or obligations to respond. The descriptions of calculative commitment are similar to pragmatic followers (Kelley, 1992) wherein followers may appear exemplary; however, their participation is based on personal wants or needs.

Exemplary followership – followers are committed and engaged in achieving the shared purpose of the organization or leader. These followers frequently contribute ideas to the team, are actively engaged in their role, and regularly go beyond the duties expected of their assigned role.

This is aligned with Gallup's (2007) definition of *engaged* employees in that exemplary followers are passionate about the shared purpose, contribute new ideas, and are committed to the shared purpose, organization, and/or leader. Moreover, exemplary followers would be

83

morally involved according to Etzioni's (1961) definition in that exemplary followers would internalize the values and standards of the group, leader, and organization. In my sample of 260, 32 percent or 84 participants fell into this category. Gallup (2017) reported 33 percent of employees in the workplace are engaged. Of the three percentage points of followership and engagement, the two percentages of exemplary followership and *engaged* employees are the most important to align. The alignment of these percentages is implicative of the comparability of the two constructs whereby exemplary followers are ideally engaged employees and engaged employees should be exemplary followers.

An individual can increase their followership score and move up in the followership categories as indicated through this investigation, when coupled with adult learning theory and techniques. Knowles (1980) presented adult learning theory, andragogy, from two perspectives: the adult learner and the adult educator. Knowles adult learning process assumes the following:

- The adult learner matures over time from a dependency in learning to more self-directed learning.

- The adult learner applies life experiences to frame context in how they learn.

- The adult learner engages in learning when taking on new roles such as social, work, or life roles.

- The adult learner engages in learning for problem solving purposes wherein the learner looks to apply their new knowledge for the problem-solving purposes.

- Adult learners are intrinsically motivated to learn.

The adult learning assumptions proposed by Knowles provide a foundation of understanding for organizations, leaders, and followers. Based on these assumptions, employees

(followers)will naturally learn in their roles; however, whether they are learning to improve their performance towards the shared purpose could be influenced by their level of followership.

Organizations and leaders investing in development of followership in employees would need to ensure they are providing a reason why they are learning a specific skill and be allowed to do the skills to learn by doing. Moreover, when teaching adults, Knowles suggests creating real life problems for followers to learn and apply their skills.

Adult learners interested in improving their followership would need to identify the skills they are wanting to improve for followership, apply experiences to frame the context of what they are learning, and practice the skills on the site with real world situations. Adult learners would also benefit by understanding the intrinsic value added by their learning, and how they can engage in independent ventures for learning to improve followership rather than depending on institutions to initiate the learning for improving followership.

While adult learners are more independent in their learning as they mature, there is a clear reliance between adult educator and adult learner. If the adult learner is not engaged in learning, or able to apply personal experiences, and problem solve, the adult educator would not be very successful in meeting its goal of educating an adult learner to perform at a certain level. Moreover, if the adult educator does not allow for the adult learner to apply personal experiences and engage in learning more independently, the adult learners may not find the intrinsic values of the learning and lack connection to the purpose of the learning.

For this investigation, organizations and leaders would benefit in adopting adult education principles to maximize the adult learners' ability to develop the proper skills for increasing followership behavior. Adult learners would benefit using adult learning principles to maximize their development of skills to increase their followership behaviors.

This investigation demonstrated that organizations, leaders, and adult learners desiring to increase followership behavior could increase followership behavior by developing organization citizenship behavior both individually and organizationally.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The aggregate scores of followership were examined with the sub-factors of organizational citizenship behavior, starting with the individual level (OCB-I) as presented with the first hypothesis: subjects who indicate higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior at the individual level will show greater followership scores. The results supporting the hypothesis indicates that organizations could increase followership behavior by developing OCB-I.

If an employee had no OCB-I, their followership score would be 41.46 (y-intercept value), which would fall under the low followership category. The regression analysis indicated the direction of OCB-I to be a positive predictor of followership ($B = 2.17$) whereby every one-unit increase in OCB-I would increase followership by 2.17 points. The maximum score on OCB-I is 40. The regression equation is $y = a + b(x)$ or Followership = the y-intercept + the regression coefficient x OCB-I score. This means that an employee who increased their OCB-I to its maximum score could move their followership score from 41.46 to 128.26, which is an exemplary followership score.

Organizations, leaders, and adult learners would all benefit in developing their OCB-I to improve their Followership behavior. Organizations could improve OCB-I scores through formal educations such as orientations, classroom sessions, and onboarding as well as informal methods such as socialization. An example might be an organization who hires a new employee asks the employee what the organization can do to best help them prepare for their new role. This information could then be communicated to the employee's workplace team. The organization

could then establish a 30-day meeting with the employee and ask OCB-I item 3: "which employees went out of their way to make you feel welcome?"

Leaders could improve OCB-I scores through emphasizing items from the OCB-I measure. For example, a leader might emphasize the importance of helping others who have been absent (OCB-I item 2) by asking the workplace team to reflect on a time when they have missed a day or multiple days of work and are coming back to the site. The leader could ask the workplace team to share what their biggest difficulties were when they were absent and came back. The leader could then record those difficulties and ask the workplace team what they could do individually to mitigate those difficulties to help the employee who has been absent.

This would be an informal adult learning method that would allow for adult learners to reflect and apply their personal experiences and problem solve how to help employees who have been absent. In a workplace team setting, the participants would learn from others' input and ideas whereby the adult learner could apply in future settings.

An adult learner could improve OCB-I scores through informal learning methods such as asking someone to be a mentor who has worked in a role for an extended period. This would be more aligned with the principles Knowles (1980) suggested adult learners use for development. An adult learner having a mentor would be able to learn from the personal experiences of the mentor, apply those to their personal experiences, specifically around OCB-I items. For example, if an adult learner had a mentor, they may be able to seek professional guidance for handling professional behaviors during difficult times. Item 5 in OCB-I could be improved through this type of mechanism wherein an adult learner could inquire about, learn from a mentor's experience, and observe the mentor in action as they show genuine concern and courtesy towards co-workers under trying business or personal situations.

The aggregate scores of followership were also examined with the sub-factor of organizational citizenship behavior at the organizational level (OCB-O) as presented with the second hypothesis: subjects who indicate higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior at the organizational level will show greater followership scores. The results supporting the hypothesis indicates that organizations could increase followership scores by developing OCB-O.

If an employee had no OCB-O, their followership score would be 43.6, which would fall under low followership. The regression analysis indicated the direction of OCB-O to be a positive predictor of followership ($B = 2.21$) whereby every one-unit increase in OCB-O would increase followership by 2.21 points. The maximum score of on OCB-O was 40 also, just like the OCB-I score. Using the regression equation, an employee who increased their OCB-O to its maximum score could move their followership score from 43.6 to 132, which is an exemplary followership score.

Organizations, leaders, and adult learners would all benefit in developing their OCB-O to improve their Followership. Organizations could improve OCB-O scores through formal educations such as classroom sessions and onboarding as well as informal methods such as socialization. An organization could create a simulated scenario for employees to participate in defending the organization from negative input from employees (OCB-O item 3). For example, employee 1 is receiving negative feedback from employee 2 about the organization, and employee 1 can then practice how they would defend the organization and help employee 2 view the organization from a more positive perspective. This scenario could also work for OCB-O item 5 (take action to protect the organization from potential problems) by replacing employee 2 with a public figure.

The organization could also use informal adult education processes by having employees participate in customer service or service recovery areas where the employees would get real situations to work through and learn from their peers going through the same process.

Leaders wishing to increase the OCB-O of their followers could focus on items from the OCB-O questionnaire. For example, a leader might focus on OCB-O item 7 (attend functions that are not required that help the organizational image) by having employees who attend functions that aren't required prepare a 5-minute summary to the team of the function and how the organization's image was improved by the function. This could be presented as a part of a monthly newsletter to educate others on the organization's involvement in functions and how those helped the organization's image.

Adult learners who would want to increase their OCB-O could look for opportunities to get involved in actual opportunities. Adult learners could inquire about current concerns in the organization and try to innovate solutions for problem solving (OCB-O item 8). This learning would be more intrinsically motivated, and truly encompassing of adult learning theory as proposed by Knowles (1980). Adult learners could even create groups to solve these problems therein creating a more informal socialization form of learning where they present ideas to each other and capture those to share to the organization. This could even work in tandem with the organization, wherein organizations could support these social problem-solving groups and provide avenues for these groups to escalate their ideas for current problems.

Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing (3M) did something similar to this when they promoted each employee to take 15 percent of their time during the workday to innovate ideas (Goetz, 2011). During one of these sessions, 3M developed the Post-it Note © which was one of their most profitable ideas. Other organizations adopted this concept such as Google in

modifying 15 percent to 20 percent. Similar to 3M, Google's biggest ideas came from this model.

This investigation examined OCB-I and OCB-O independently and their relationship to followership. Both were found to be significant and positive predictors of followership whereby each predictor could be increased enough to improve followership scores to exemplary levels. This raises a new question that can be answered by post hoc analysis. In this analysis I will run a new regression with followership as the dependent variable. I will allow the software to select which independent variable (OCB-I or OCB-O) to enter into the regression model first. Then, I will allow the software to determine if the remaining independent variable still adds significantly to the regression model.

Stepwise regression was examined using forward loading with followership as the dependent variable and OCB-I and OCB-O as the independent variables. Table 23 below displays the forward loading results.

Table 23

Followership and OCB-O and OCB-I: stepwise regression table (N = 260)

Variable	F	df	p	R2
OCB-O	370.87	258	.000	.59
OCB-I	10.42	257	.001	.61

Beginning with an empty model, the software selected OCB-O as the first variable to load. OCB-O explains 59 percent of the variance in followership scores, and by adding OCB-I to the model second, the two account for 61 percent of the variance in followership scores. Both variables maintain significance when loaded into the model together, and although both are

significant, it's clear that OCB-O is a much stronger predictor for followership scores with only a two percent difference between the effect size of the variables.

Table 24 below displays the multiple regression analysis when both OCB-O and OCB-I are loaded as independent variable with followership being the dependent variable.

Table 24

Followership and OCB-O and OCB-I: regression table (N = 260)

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
OCB-O	1.87	.15	12.15	.000
OCB-I	.61	.19	3.23	.001
Constant	34.55	4.48	7.72	.000

The regression model, with both OCB factors loaded accounts for a significant portion of the variance in followership, $F(2, 257) = 197.42$, R-squared = .61. The y-intercept is at 34.55, which is below the y-intercept for the simple regression ran independently on OCB-O (43.6) and OCB-I (41.46). Both factors are significant: OCB-O $p < .001$; OCB-I $p < .05$ when entered into the equation together.

The multiple regression equation: $X = B0 + B1 *$ score $+ B2 *$ will determine the maximum a follower could add to their followership score if both OCB-O and OCB-I are included. For this analysis it would be: followership = 34.55 +1.87(OCB-O score) + .61(OCB-I score).

If an employee wanted to maximize both OCB-O and OCB-I scores when both are in the regression model, their followership score would move from 34.55 to 133.75. which is to the exemplary followership category.

The post hoc analysis reported that employee followership behaviors would improve the most when OCB-O and OCB-I are developed together; however, it would be difficult for a leader

91

or organization to focus on all items in both OCB-O and OCB-I. Most of the items for OCB-O are better influenced by the organization such as item 2 "express loyalty to the organization" or item 6 "demonstrate concern about the image of the organization." While these items require an employee to engage in adult learning, these items can be directly influenced for better or worse by the organization.

While OCB-O might be the best focus for organizations, leaders would have better control over influencing OCB-I items, for example: items two and four, "help others who have been absent," and "assist other with their duties," respectively would be much more manageable from a team leader than an organization. Moreover, if an organization focused on OCB-O items and team leaders focused on OCB-I items, all components could be supported across the leader, follower, organizational relationships.

employees would benefit with developing OCB-I and OCB-O. Particularly if organizations focused on OCB-O and leaders on OCB-I, employees could select 2 from each OCB-O and OCB-I to discuss in a one-on-one meeting with their leader. From this conversation, adult learning techniques can be determined to help develop the identified items from OCB-I and OCB-O. Adult learners could truly benefit from this as they can decide which items to specifically focus on therein controlling their learning based on real situations and immediate problem solving. The outcome would be more intrinsically motivated by the adult learners while organizations and leaders could create programs of formal and informal education to develop better follower behaviors.

Psychological Collectivism

The aggregate scores of followership were examined with the scores of psychological collectivism (PC) as presented with the third hypothesis: subjects who indicate higher levels of

psychological collectivism will show greater followership scores. The results supporting the hypothesis indicates that organizations could increase followership behavior by developing PC.

If an employee had no PC, their followership score would be 75.14 (y-intercept value), which would fall under the moderate followership category. The regression analysis indicated the direction of PC to be a positive predictor of followership ($B = .66$) whereby every one-unit increase in PC would increase followership by .66 points. The maximum score on PC is 75. Using the regression equation $y = a + b(x)$ or Followership = the y-intercept + the regression coefficient x PC score, an employee who increased their PC to its maximum score could move their followership score from 75.14 to 124.64, which is an exemplary followership score.

Organizations could benefit from PC by structuring the staffing and work models around groups and group goals. Organizations could share the vision and mission and have the work groups for their specialized area develop the rules, tasks, processes, and work structures to achieve the mission. This would allow for the employees to use group thinking and real problem solving to determine performance expectations and learning needs to meet their respective responsibilities. This approach would support items five, "I was not bothered by the need to rely on group members," six "I felt comfortable trusting group members to handle their tasks." Moreover, organizations structuring teams with a focus on group goals and performance would support items 10, "I followed the norms of the group," 11, "I followed procedures used by the groups, and 12, "I accepted the rules of those groups."

Leaders could benefit from PC by influencing the care and well-being of the group members. This could be done by having individuals pair up and identify three needs the group has. Then the pairs could share two ways in which their partner contributes effectively to the group needs. When this is done in a larger group setting, it allows for the employees to use adult

learning in identifying common threads of group needs and value what group members contribute to the goals. This would support items eight, "I cared about the well-being of those groups" and nine, "I was concerned about the needs of those groups."

Adult learners could benefit from PC by asking others what their view of the groups goals are and how they feel it is best to contribute to the goals. This could be done best in informal settings to allow for adult learning in informal socialization. As adult learners learn the collective understanding of the goals, norms, processes, and needs, they would have the intrinsic motivations to apply for their learning.

This investigation was initially designed to examine PC as an independent variable through simple regression with followership, and my hypothesis was supported. Based on the results from post hoc analysis with OCB sub-factors, I am going to also conduct post hoc analysis with all three variables included in the equation.

Stepwise regression was examined using forward loading with followership as the dependent variable and OCB-O, OCB-I, and PC as the independent variables. Table 25 below displays the forward loading results.

Table 25

Followership and OCB-O, OCB-I, and PC: stepwise regression table (N = 260)

Variable	F	df	*p*	R2
OCB-O	370.87	258	.000	.59
OCB-I	10.42	257	.001	.61
PC	.19	256	.666	.61

Although PC is a significant predictor of followership independently, when examined in forward loading, the software did not include the variable in the model. PC does not become a significant predictor when loaded with the OCB-O and OCB-I variables. This is evident in the

explanation of the variance wherein before PC was entered R-squared was .61, and it remains the same when PC is added.

OCB-O and OCB-I wipe it out. PC only makes a significant impact when it is by itself. The truth is, why put effort into this variable when other variables are present that overpower this variable? This is likely because PC, even though I can't tease it out, is accounted for in OCB-O and OCB-I.

Multiple regression was examined using the dependent variable Followership, and OCB-O, OCB-I, and PC. Table 26 below displays the multiple regression analysis.

Table 26

Followership and OCB-O, OCB-I, and PC: regression table (N = 260)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
OCB-O	1.88	.16	11.89	.000
OCB-I	.63	.20	3.20	.002
PC	-.03	.08	-.43	.666
Constant	34.95	4.58	7.64	.000

Based on the post hoc analysis, PC would best be focused on without any focus on OCB variables. PC is a significant predictor of Followership; however, when loaded with OCB variables, PC loses its significance. In-fact if focusing on OCB-O and OCB-I, adding in PC would do more harm than good.

Team Player

An independent samples *t*-test was conducted for team player styles to compare followership scores. Hypotheses five and seven were supported indicating that for team player styles challenger and communicator respectively would not show greater followership scores. I hypothesized that challengers would not indicate higher followership scores based on Chaleff's

(2009) work supporting courage against aggressive individuals, particularly in leadership. Aggressive followers would likely be just as difficult to work with as aggressive leaders, thus the hypothesis. I hypothesized that communicator team player style would not show greater followership scores because through Etzioni's (1961), Clifton and Anderson (2002), Gallup (2007), Chaleff's (2009) and Kelley's (1992) work on commitment, individual strengths, engagement and followership, not one portion suggested that communication was a key component in a high performer. While it's clear that a morally committed, engaged, or exemplary follower would likely be an effective communicator, that is more of an outcome from the effects of being exemplary.

The fourth hypothesis was not supported (H$_4$: subjects who indicate higher levels of collaborator as a team player will show greater followership scores). I hypothesized a relationship between the team player *collaborator* and followership due to Parker's (2008) description of collaborator being goal directed and team members who focus on goals. Kelley (1992) suggested exemplary followers were not only contributors and task focused, but shared a goal with the leader, organization, and other followers.

Although Kelley would suggest exemplary followers shared goals, he also asserted that pragmatic followers would collaborate if their goals aligned. This assertion itself would caution against such a hypothesis. Researchers have suggested that teams are more interdependent, and their success is reliant on actions as a team rather than an individual (Blau, 1964; Salas & Fiore, 2004). This indicates that although shared goals support exemplary followership it is not enough to create an exemplary follower, rather the combination of goals and contributions are needed.

The sixth hypothesis was rejected indicating that higher levels of *contributor* team player styles do show greater followership scores. Collins (2001) suggested that the first two levels of

96

great leadership is a *highly capable individual* and a *contributing team member*. Collins describes these two levels as a contributor of talents and skills and a contributor of individual capabilities for group goals respectively. Clifton and Harter (2003) supported the importance of contributions suggesting that engaged employees recognize their individual strengths and how to use those to contribute to the team's needs. Even Etzioni's (1961) research on commitment of an employee implies the employee's commitment yields contributions towards the greater good.

These findings suggest exemplary followers must be contributors to the goals of the group. Organizations could benefit from designing training sessions for staff members to promote contributor characteristics such as item-4 from the *Parker Team Player Survey* (PTPS) focusing employee responses to conflicts by having employees practice explaining why one side or the other in conflict is correct. Moreover, organizations could promote more *contributor* behaviors by training leaders to prioritize efficient solutions of business problems as a top priority (item-13). This could be done by having leaders get into groups and list their business problems. Next, these leaders could work in their groups to share ideas for solutions and bring those ideas back to their teams who would then be able to talk with the leader on how they would contribute to those solutions.

Leaders could improve contributor scores by listing all the items and only the contributor responses. The employees could then be tasked with identifying 5 items they agree the most with and create talking points to that item and the team could focus on one item each day. During lunch breaks, tables could be set up with questions leading discussion at the table about the items and contributor response. Employees would naturally learn through socialization during their lunch break and establish continuity in ideas of how they prioritize their contributions.

Adult learners could develop their contribution behaviors by creating a chart in their breakroom where each employee on a team could list their contributions and how those contributions lead to the team goals. This could be a visualization of what is needed to reach the goal, how others on the team are contributing, and establish accountability for the independent contributions that each employee gives to the better of the team.

Limitations

A limitation to this study concerned the changing of roles while I was conducting the study at my organization. When I began, I was in a role with access to 11,000 employee participants. When I began preparing for the data collection, my role changed to a role with limited access to employee participants. This created a scenario where I did not have enough initial responses and had to purchase responses from through Surveymonkey to get participants from healthcare.

An additional limitation to this investigation was the *followership style* instrument of Kelley (1992). When we did our reliability test, it came up not being as reliable as earlier reports, which raises questions about that instrument. Due to an exploratory factor analysis, I was able to develop a reliable instrument.

An additional limitation was that this study was done solely in healthcare; however, the participants varied in responsibilities, titles, and even clinical expertise. Large health systems include manufacturing, research and development, logistics, accounting, and other professional fields that were included in this investigation. Although the generalization is included in the limitations, there is reasonable evidence from the backgrounds of participants to generalize the results to fields such as manufacturing, supply chain, research and development, finance, and logistics.

An additional limitation was the drop in participants through the *Parker Team Player Survey* portion of the survey. There were initially 260 responses to the first portion of the survey including the *followership style, Organizational Citizenship* survey*,* and *Psychological Collectivism* survey and 244 responses to the *Parker Team Player Survey*.

Future Research

Future research will need to be conducted on using confirmatory factor analysis for the sub-factors of followership identified in this investigation. The factors will need to be examined with a similar population sample. The original *Followership style* instrument had 20 items and the new instrument used in this investigation has 30-items, therefore a sample size of 300 responses will need to be gathered for confirmatory factor analysis. This sample should also be collected in the healthcare industry. Once we know the instrument is reliable, we need to expand the research beyond healthcare to industries such as: tourist, manufacturing, retail, hospitality, transportation and logistics, etc.

Future research will need to be conducted with OCB sub-factors and each sub-factor of the proposed new model of followership. Regression should be used to determine of the sub-factors of OCB, which are higher predictors of each sub-factor of the proposed new followership model. Moreover, research should be conducted on performances of employees and their teams to determine if OCB-O or OCB-I in tandem with their followership score would have higher impact on teams. Even further, research should be conducted to determine followership score, OCB type, and its impact on leadership performance.

Future research will need to be conducted to look more at the team player variable and exemplary followership. Specifically, we need to examine the relationship between the contributor team player style, followership score, and performance.

99

Conclusion

The purpose of this investigation was to add to the body of knowledge on followership, specifically examining variables that contribute to exemplary followership. While the investigation began with four variables, results of this investigation support two primary variables of which to focus on that contribute to exemplary followership: organizational citizenship behavior, and team player. More specifically this investigation focused on these variables because they were trainable and could be applied in the workplace through adult learning.

Prior to, and during this investigation the commonly used *Followership Style* (Kelley, 1992) instrument has been questionable regarding reliability. These concerns were realized in this investigation as the reliability of the instrument was evident, which is why a new instrument was created with a better reliability. A confirmatory factor analysis on the new followership instrument will highly impact the field of followership, and better connect the construct to research trends in engagement and commitment. This will also lend itself to being more applicable and relevant to organizational interest.

The knowledge contributed from this study will benefit organizations who wish to improve their employee follower behaviors for the organization and its leaders. Moreover, individual followers will benefit from the knowledge of developing their organizational citizenship behavior and contributor team player style. The combination of organization, leader, and employee development of organizational citizenship behavior and contributor team player behaviors through adult learning will yield higher levels of followership with higher productivity.

REFERENCES

Baker, S. D. (2007). Followership: Theoretical foundation of a contemporary construct. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 14*(1), 50-60. doi: 10.1177/0002831207304343.

Bakhshi, A., Kumar, K., & Kumari, A. (2009). National culture and organizational citizenship behavior: Development of a scale. *Organisation Behaviour.* New Dehli: Global Publishing House.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Lieke, L. (2012). Work engagement, performance, and active learning: The role of conscientiousness. *The Journal of Vocational Behavior, 80*(2) 555-564. doi: 10.1037/e572992012-060.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). NY: Free Press.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983.). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and "citizenship." *Academy of Management Journal*, *26*, 587-595. doi: 10.2307/255908.

Beers, K. (2003). *When kids can't read: What teachers can do.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Bennis, W. G. (1999). The end of leadership: Exemplary leadership is impossible without full inclusion, initiatives, and cooperation of followers. *Organizational Dynamics, 28*(1), 71-79. doi: 10.1016/s0090-2616(00)80008-x.

Bennis, W. G., & Thomas, R. J. (2002). *Geeks & geezers: How era, values, and defining moments shape leaders.* MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Berkowitz, L., & Daniels, L. (1963). Responsibility and dependency. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology,* 66, 429-437. doi: 10.1037/h0049250.

Bhuvanaiah, T., & Raya, R. P. (2015). Mechanism of improved performance: Intrinsic motivation and employee engagement. *SCMS Journal of Indian Management*, 92-97.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. NY: Wiley.

Boreman, W. C. (2004). The concept of organizational citizenship. *Current Directions in Psychological Science. 13*(1) 238-241. doi: 10.1111/j.0963-7214.2004.00316.x.

Brief, A. P., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. *Academy of Management Review, 11*(4), 710-725. doi: 10.2307/258391.

Campbell, D. T. (1965). Ethnocentric and other altruistic motives. In D. Levine (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation* (p. 283-211). NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Cardador, M. T., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2015). Better to give and to compete? Prosocial and competitive motives as interactive predictors of citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Social Psychology. 155*, 255-273.

Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., West. B. J., Patera, J. L., & McGregor, R. (2010). Exploring social constructions of followership: A qualitative study. *The Leadership Quarterly 21,* 543-562. doi: 10.1016/jleaqua.2010.03.015.

Cartwright, S., & Holmes, N. (2006). The meaning of work: The challenge of regaining employee engagement and reducing cynicism. *Human Resource Management Review, 16*(2) 199-208. doi: 10.1016/jhrmr.2006.03.012.

Chagnon, N. A. (1997). *Yanomamo*. GB: Wadsworth.

Chaleff. I. (2009). *The courageous follower.* CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Clifton, D. O., & Anderson, E. (2002). *StrengthsQuest: Discover an ddevelop your strengths in academics, career, and beyond.* NY: Gallup Press.

Clifton, D. O., & Harter, J. K. (2003). Investing in strengths. In. K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, and

    R. E. Quinn (eds) *Positive Organizational Scholarship,* CA: Berret-Koehler. P. 111-121.

Collins, J. (2001) *Good to great.* New York: HarperCollins Inc.

Collinson, D. (2006). Rethinking Followership: A post-structuralist analysis of follower

    identities. *Leadership Quarterly, 17*(2), 179-189. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.12.005.

Currie, J. P. (2014). Complementing traditional leadership the value of followership.

    Management, 54(2), 15-18.

Dawson, S., & Sparks, J. (2008). Validation of Kelley's instrument. Unpublished study.

Dierdorff, E. C., Bell, S. T., & Belohlav, J. A. (2011). The power of "we": Effects of

    psychological collectivism on team performance over time. *Journal of Applied*

    Psychology, 96(2), 247-262. doi: 10.1037/a0020929.

Drach-Zahavy, A. (2004). Exploring team support: The role of team's designs, values, and

    leader's support. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *8*, 235-252. doi:

    10.1037/1089-2699.8.4.235.

Eby, L. T., & Dobbins, G. H. (1997). Collectivistic orientation in teams: An individual and

    group-level analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *18*, 275-295. doi:

    10.1002/(sici)1099-1379(199705)18:3<275::aid-job796>3.0.co;2-c.

Etzioni, A. A. (1961). A comparative analysis of complex organizations. NY: Free Press.

Favara, L. F. (2009). Putting followership on the map: Examining followership styles and their

    relationships with job satisfaction and job performance. *Journal of Business &*

    Leadership, 5(2), 68-77.

Gallup Organization (1999). *Gallup workplace audit*. Washington D.C.: U.S. Copyright Office.

Gallup Organization (2007). Investors take note: Engagement boosts earnings. Viewed at:

http://www.gallup.com/businessjournal/27799/investors-take-note-engagement-boosts-

earnings.aspx.

Gallup Organization (2017). State of the American workplace. Viewed at:

http://www.managerlenchanteur.org/wp-content/uploads/Gallup-State-of-the-Global-

Workplace-Report-2017_Executive-Summary.pdf.

Garson, G. D. (2015). *Structural Equation Modeling 2015 Edition.* Asheboro NC: Statistical

Publishing Associates.

Gerstner, C. R., & Day D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory:

Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(6), 827–844. doi:

10.1037//0021-9010.82.6.827.

Goetz, K. (2011) How 3M gave everyone days off and created an innovation dynamo. Viewed at

https://www.fastcodesign.com/1663137/how-3m-gave-everyone-days-off-and-created-

an-innovation-dynamo.

Goncalo, G. A., & Duguid, M. M. (2011). Strong norms as a stimulant to group creativity: When

conformity pressure facilitates the expression of creative ideas. Viewed at: http://www.

kellogg.northwestern.edu/mors/faculty/seminars/ Goncalo.pdf.

Grant, A. M., & Berry, J. W. (2011). The necessity of others is the mother of invention: Intrinsic

and prosocial motivations, perspective taking, and creativity. *Academy of Management

Journal, 54*(1) 73-96. doi: 10.5465/amj.2011.59215085.

Grant, A. M. (2007). Relational job design and the motivation to make a prosocial difference.

Academy of Management Review, 32, 393–417. doi: 10.5465/amr.2007.24351328.

Hall, D. T., & Schneider, B. (1972). Correlates of organizational identification as a function of career pattern and organizational type. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *17*, 340-350. doi: 10.2307/2392147.

Hall, D. T., Schneider, B., & Nygren, H. T. (1970). Personal factors in organizational identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 15, 176-190. doi: 10.1037/10173-001.

Hall, P., & Densten, I. L. (2002). Following successfully: Followership and technology adoption. *Prometheus, 20*(2), 87-105. doi: 10.1080/08109020210137484.

Harter J.K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes T.L. (2002). Business unit level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2), 268-279. doi: 10.1037//0021-9010.87.2.268.

Hirschfeld, R. R., Jordan, M. H., Field, H. S., Giles, F. G., & Armenakis, A. A. (2006). Becoming team players: Team members' mastery of teamwork knowledge as a predictor of team task proficiency and observed teamwork effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(2), 467-474. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.91.2.467.

Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede Model in context. Viewed online at: http://scholarworks.gvsu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1014&context=orpc.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences*. CA: Sage.

Hollander, E. P. (1985). Leadership and power. In G. Lindzey & E. Aronson (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (pp. 485-537). NY: Random House.

Hong, J., & Chang, H. H. (2015). "I" follow my heart and "we" rely on reasons: The impact of self-construal on reliance on feelings versus reasons in decision making. *Journal of Consumer Research, 41*, 1392-1411. doi: 10.1086/680082.

Ilies, R., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Leader-member exchange and citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(1), 269-277. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.269.

Jackson, C. L., Colquitt, J. A., Wesson, M. J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2006). Psychological collectivism: A measurement validation and linkage to group member performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(4), 884-899. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.91.4.884.

Jordan, J. P. (2009) An investigation of exemplary acts of followership: A multiple case study design. Dissertation. University of St. Thomas.

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal, 33*, 692-724. doi: 10.5465/256287.

Kapoor, S., & Meachem, A. (2012). Employee engagement- A bond between employee and organization. *Amity Global Business Review, 7*, 14-21.

Kataria, A., Garg, P., & Rastogi, R. (2013). Employee engagement and organizational effectiveness: The role of organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Business Insights & Transformation, 6*(1) 102-113.

Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral Science, 9*, 131-146. doi: 10.1177/105960117800300418.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (2nd ed.) NY: Wiley & Sons.

Katzenbach, J. R., & Smith, D. K. (1993). *The wisdom of teams: Creating the high performance organization*. MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Kean, S., Haycock-Stuart, E., Baggaley, S., et. al (2011). Followers and the co-construction of
     leadership. *Journal of Nursing Management, 19*(4) 507-516. doi: 10.111/j.1365-
     2834.2011.01227.x.

Kellerman, B. (2008). *Followership: How followers are creating change and changing leaders.*
     MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Kelley, R. E. (1988). In praise of followers. *Harvard Business Review, 66*(6), 142-148.

Kelley, R. E. (1992) *The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow and
     followers who want to lead themselves.* NY: Doubleday Currency.

Kirnan, J. P., & Woodruff, D. (1994). Reliability and validity estimates of the Parker Team
     Player Survey. *Education and Psychological Measurement, 54*(4). 1030-1037. doi:
     10.1177/0013164494054004020.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: Andragogy vs. pedagogy. Rev.
     and updated ed.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Cambridge Adult Education.

Knowles, M. S. (1990). *The adult learner: A neglected species* (4th ed.). TX: Gulf Publishing
     Company.

Kumar, K., Bakhshi, A., Rani, E. (2009). Linking the 'big five' personality domains to
     organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Psychological Studies, 1*(2),
     73-81. doi: 10.55.9/ijps.v1n2p73.

Lee, K., & Allen, N.J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The
     role of affect and cognition. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 131-142. doi:
     10.1037/0021-9010.87.1.131.

Levinson, E (2007). Developing high employee engagement makes good business sense, Retrieved from http://www.interactionassociates.com /ideas/developing-high-employee-engagement-makes-good-business- sense.php.

Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social science.* NY: Harper & Row.

Li, N., Chiaburu, D. S., Kirkman, B. L., & Xie, Z. (2013). Spotlight on the followers: An examination of moderators of relationships between transformational leadership and subordinates' citizenship and taking charge. *Personnel Psychology,* (66), 225-260. doi: 10.1111/peps.12014.

Lindsey Hall, K. K., Baker, T. L., Andrews, M. C., Hunt, T. G., & Rapp, A. A. (2016). The importance of product/service quality for frontline marketing employee outcomes: The moderating effect of leader-member exchange (LMX). *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 24*(1), 23-41.

Lovelace, K., Shapiro, D. L., & Weingart, L. R. (2001). Maximizing cross-functional new products teams' innovativeness and constraints adherence: A conflict communications perspective. *Academy of Management Journal,* (44) 779-793. doi: 10.5465/3069415.

Lundin, S. C., & Lancaster, L. C. (1990, June). Beyond leadership…the importance of followership. *The Futurist*, 18-22.

Luthans, F., & Peterson, S. J. (2002). Employee engagement and manager self-efficacy. *Journal of Management Development, 21*(5), 376-387. doi: 10.1108/02621710210426864.

Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications of cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review, 98*, 224-253.

McCann, S. J. H. (1992). Alternative formulas to predict the greatness of U. S. presidents: Personologial, situational, and Zeitgeist factors. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *62*, 469-479. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.62.3.469.

McIntyre, R. M., & Salas, R. (1995). Measuring and managing for team performance: Emerging principles from complex environments. In R. A. Guzzo, E. Salas, & Associates (Eds.), *Team effectiveness and decision making in organizations* (pp. 9-45). CA: Jossey-Bass.

Meindl, J. R. (1995). The romance of leadership as a follower-centric theory: A social constructionist approach. *The Leadership Quarterly,* (6), 329-341. doi: 10.1016/1048-9843(95)90012-8.

Mertler, C., Steyer, S., & Peterson, G. (1997). Teacher's perception of the leadership/followership dialectic. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Midwestern Educational Research Association, Chicago.

Mishra, K., Boynton, L., & Mishra, A. (2014) Driving employee engagement. *International Journal of Business Communication, 51*(2), 183-202. doi: 10.1177/2329488414525399.

Mohamed, M. S., & Anisa, H. (2012). Relationship between organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. *The IUP Journal of Organizational Behavior, 11*(3) 7-22.

Newland, S. J. (2012) Organizational citizenship behavior – individual or organizational citizenship behavior – organization: Does the underlying motive matter? Masters Theses & Specialist Projects.

Ohrberg, N. J. (2014). The lost paradigm: Followership must be the primary focus of academic research. *The Journal for Quality & Participation, 37*(3) 1-3.

Olson, E. E., & Eoyang, G. H. (2001). *Facilitating organizational change: Lessons from complexity science.* CA: Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer.

Orchard, L. (1998). Managerialism, economic rationalism and public sector reform in Australia: connections, divergences, alternatives. *Australian Journal of Public Administration, 57*, 19-32. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8500.1998.tb01361.x.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome.* MA: Lexington Books.

Organ, D. W. (1990). The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.*), Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 12, pp. 43-72). CT: JAI Press.

Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance, 10*, 85-97. doi: 10.1207/s15327043hup1002_2.

Oyserman, D., Coon, H. M., & Kemmelmeier, M. (2002). Rethinking individualism and collectivism: Evaluation of theoretical assumptions and meta-analyses. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128, 3-72. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.128.1.3.

Parker, G. M. (1990). Parker team player survey, NY: Xicom.

Parker, G. M. (1991). Parker team player survey: Styles of another person. NY: Xicom.

Parker, G. M. (2008). *Team players and teamwork*. CA: Jossey-Bass.

Parsons, T., & Shills, E. N. (1951). Toward a general theory of social action. MA: Harvard University Press.

Porter, L.W., Steers, R.M., Mowday, R.T., & Boulian, P.V. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *59*, 603-609.

Pugh, D. S., & Hickson, D. J. (1989). *Writers on organizations.* CA: Sage.

Rath, T., & Conchie, B. (2008). *Strengths based leadership: Great leaders, teams, and why people follow.* NY: Simon and Schuster.

Riggio, E. R., Chaleff, I., & Lipman-Blumen, J. (2008). *The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations*, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Rioux, S. M., & Penner, L. A. (2001). The causes of organizational citizenship behavior: A motivational analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 1306-1314. doi: 10.1037//0021-9010.86.6.1306.

Robinson, J. (2012). Boosting engagement at Stryker: *Gallup Management Journal.* Retrieved from http://gmj.gallup.com/content/150956/Boosting-Engagement-Stryker.aspx.

Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 46*(4,) 655-684. doi: 10.2307/3094827.

Salas, E., & Fiore, S. M. (2004). *Team cognition: Understanding the factors that drive process and performance.* DC: American Psychological Association.

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., Gonzalez-Roma, V. & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytical approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 3*, 71-92.

Senge, P. M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art & practice of the learning organization.* NY: Doubleday Business.

Shamir, B. (2007). From passive recipients to active co-producers: Followers' roles in the leadership process. In B. Shamir, R. Pillai, M. Bligh, & M. Uhl-Bien (Eds.), *Follower-centered perspectives on leadership: A tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl* (pp. ix–xxxix). NC: Information Age Publishers.

Siniscalco, M. T., & Auriat, N. (2005). *Quantitative research methods in educational planning.* International Institute for Educational Planning/UNESCO, Paris, France.

Su, S., Baird, K., & Blair, B. (2013). Employee organizational commitment in the Australian public sector. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*(2), 243-264.

Surveymonkey (2018). SurveyMonkey audience answers to the ESMAR 28 questions.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). Using multivariate statistics. (5th ed.) GB: Pearson Education Inc.

Todorovic, Z. W., & Schlosser, F. K. (2007). An entrepreneur and a leader!: A framework conceptualizing the influence of leadership style on a firm's entrepreneurial orientation – performance relationship. *Journal of Small Business & Entrepreneurship, 20*(3), 289-308.

Tooby, J., & Cosmides, L. (1992). Psychological foundations of culture. In J. Barkow, L. Cosmides, & J. Tooby (Eds.), *The adapted mind: Evolutionary psychology and the generation of culture* (pp. 19-136). NY: Oxford University Press

Triandis, H. C., Chan, D. K. S., Bhawuk, D. P. S., Iwao, S., & Sinha, J. B. P. (1995). Multimethod probes of allocentrism and idiocentrism. *International Journal of Psychology, 30*, 461-480. doi: 10.1080/00207599508246580.

Uhl-Bien, M., Riggio, R. E., Lowe, K. B., & Carsten, M. K. (2014). Followership Theory: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly, 25*, 83-104. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.007.

VanDoren, E. (1998). The relationship between leadership/followership in staff nurses and employment setting. Master's Thesis, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo.

Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & McLean Parks, J. (1995). Extra-role behaviors: In pursuit of

    construct and definitional clarity (a bridge over muddied waters). *Research in*

    Organizational Behavior. 17, 215-285.

Van Vugt, M. (2006). Evolutionary origins of leadership and followership. *Personality and*

    Social Psychology, 10(4), 351-371. doi: 10.1207/s15327957pspr1004_5.

Wai-Ching, L. (2001). How to design a questionnaire. *StudentBMJ, 9*, 187-189.

Walster, E., & Piliavin, J. A. (1972). Equity and the innocent bystander. *Journal of Social Issue,.*

    28(3), 165-189. doi: 10.1111/j.150-4560.1972tb00037.x.

Weber, M. (1947). *Max Weber: The theory of social and economic organization* (A. M.

    Henderson and Talcott Parsons, trans.). NY: Free Press.

Whitlock, J. (2013). The value of active followership. *Nursing Management, 20*(2) 20-23.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as

    predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management*,

    17, 601-617. doi: 10.1177/014920639101700305.

Willson, A. (2012). Attaining peak performance. *1000 Lives Plus, 6,* 1-20.

Yuin, S., Cox, J., & Sims, H. (2006). The forgotten follower: A contingency model of leadership

    and follower self-leadership. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(4), 374-388. doi:

    10.1108/02683940610663141.

APPENDIX A: FOLLOWERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read through each statement below and indicate the extent to which each statement describes you and your current employment situation.

2. Rate the following questions from never to almost always.

	Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Occasionally	Very Frequently	Always
Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Are your personal work goals aligned with the organization's priority goals?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your coworkers?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most critical for achieving the organization's priority goals?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?	○	○	○	○	○	○
When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the leader?	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Occasionally	Very Frequently	Always
Can the leader give you a difficult assignment knowing that you will meet your deadline with highest quality work?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?	○	○	○	○	○	○
When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader's or the organization's goals?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the leader to do it for you?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you help out other co-workers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you help the leader or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off your evaluation?	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Occasionally	Very Frequently	Always
Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the leader's decision rather than just doing what you are told?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or the group's standards?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the leader?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Does your work help you fulfill some personal dream that is important to you?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Are you highly committed to your organization?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Are you highly energized by your organization?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Does your enthusiasm spread to your coworkers?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Does your enthusiasm energize your coworkers?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader?	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

	Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Occasionally	Very Frequently	Always
Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the organization?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you take the initiative to seek out assignments that go above and beyond your job?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you take the initiative to successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you independently think up new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you independently think up new ideas that will contribute significantly to the organization?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you independently champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you independently champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the organization?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you help the leader see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas, playing the devil's advocate if need be?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you help the group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas, playing the devil's advocate if need be?	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Occasionally	Very Frequently	Always
When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	○	○	○	○	○	○
When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you give your best ideas to your organization?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you give your best performance to your organization?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you understand the leader's needs?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you understand the leader's goals?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you understand the leaders constraints?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you work hard to help the leader meet their needs?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you work hard to help the leader meet their goals?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you work hard to help the leader with constraints?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's standards?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the group's standards?	○	○	○	○	○	○
Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean conflict with your group?	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Occasionally	Very Frequently	Always
Do you assert your views on important issues even though it might mean reprisals from the leader?	○	○	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX B: ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read through each statement below and indicate the extent to which each statement describes you and your current employment situation. There are no wrong responses on this questionnaire. All responses will be kept confidential and will not be released to your supervisor or organization.

When at your current workplace, you…

Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Help others who have been absent	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Share personal property with others to help their work	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Assist others with their duties	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' request for time off	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Show pride when representing the organization in public	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Express loyalty to the organization	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Defend the organization when other employees criticize it	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Keep up with the developments in the organization	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Take action to protect the organization from potential problems	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Always

APPENDIX C: PSYCHOLOGICAL COLLECTIVISM QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS: Think about the work groups to which you currently belong. The items below ask about your relationship with, and thoughts about, your particular group. Respond to the questions, as honestly as possible, using the response scales provided (1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree).

I prefer to work in this group rather than work alone.	1	2	3	4	5
Working in this group is better than working alone.	1	2	3	4	5
I want to work with this group as opposed to working alone.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel comfortable counting on group members to do their part.	1	2	3	4	5
I am not bothered by the need to rely on group members.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel comfortable trusting group members to handle their tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
The health of this group is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
I care about the well-being of this group.	1	2	3	4	5
I am concerned about the needs of this group.	1	2	3	4	5
I follow the norms of this group.	1	2	3	4	5
I follow the procedures used by this group.	1	2	3	4	5
I accept the rules of this group.	1	2	3	4	5
I care more about the goals of this group than my own goals.	1	2	3	4	5
I emphasize the goals of the group more than my own individual goals.	1	2	3	4	5
Group goals are more important to me than my personal goals.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D: PARKER TEAM PLAYER SURVEY

There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each item according to how you honestly feel you function now as a team member rather than how you used to be or how you would like to be.

You will be asked to complete eighteen sentences. Each sentence has four possible endings. Please rank the endings in the order in which you feel each one applies to you. Place the number 4 next to the ending which is most applicable to you and continue down to a 1 next to the ending which is least applicable to you.

Please do not make ties or use 4, 3, 2, or 1 more than once.

1. During team meetings, I usually:

_____a. provide the team with technical data or information.

_____b. keep the team focused on our mission or goals.

_____c. make sure everyone is involved in the discussion.

_____d. raise questions about our goals or methods.

2. In relating to the team leader, I:

_____a. suggest that our work be goal directed.

_____b. try to help her build a positive team climate.

_____c. am willing to disagree with her when necessary.

_____d. offer advice based upon my area of expertise.

3. Under stress, I sometimes:

_____a. overuse humor and other tension-reducing devices.

_____b. am too direct in communicating with other team members.

_____c. lose patience with the need to get everyone involved in discussions.

_____d. complain to outsiders about problems facing the team.

4. When conflicts arise on the team, I usually:

_____a. press for an honest discussion of the differences.

_____b. provide reasons why one side or the other is correct.

_____c. see the differences as a basis for possible change in team direction.

_____d. try to break the tension with a supportive or humorous remark.

5. Other team members usually see me as:

_____a. factual.

_____b. flexible.

_____c. encouraging.

_____d. candid.

6. At times, I am:

_____a. too results oriented.

_____b. too laid-back.

_____c. self-righteous.

_____d. shortsighted.

7. When things go wrong on the team, I usually:

_____a. push for increased emphasis on listening, feedback, and participation.

_____b. press for a candid discussion of our problems.

_____c. work hard to provide more and better information.

_____d. suggest that we revisit our basic mission.

8. A risky team contribution to me is to:

_____a. question some aspect of the team's work.

_____b. push the team to set higher performance standards.

_____c. work outside my defined role or job area.

_____d. provide other team members with feedback on their behavior as team members.

9. Sometimes other team members see me as:

_____a. a perfectionist.

_____b. unwilling to reassess the team's mission or goals.

_____c. not serious about getting the real job done.

_____d. a nitpicker.

10. I believe team problem-solving requires:

_____a. cooperation by all team members.

_____b. high-level listening skills.

_____c. a willingness to ask tough questions.

_____d. good solid data.

11. When a new team is forming, I usually:

_____a. try to meet and get to know other team members.

_____b. ask pointed questions about our goals and methods.

_____c. want to know what is expected of me.

_____d. seek clarity about our basic mission.

12. At times, I make other people feel:

_____a. dishonest because they are not able to be as confrontational as I am.

_____b. guilty because they don't live up to my standards.

_____c. small-minded because they don't think long-range.

_____d. heartless because they don't care about how people relate to each other.

13. I believe the role of the team leader is to:

_____a. ensure the efficient solution of business problems.

_____b. help the team establish long-range goals and short-term objectives

_____c. create a participatory decision-making climate.

_____d. bring out diverse ideas and challenge assumptions.

14. I believe team decisions should be based on:

_____a. the team's mission and goals.

_____b. a consensus of team members.

_____c. an open and candid assessment of the issues.

_____d. the weight of the evidence.

15. Sometimes I:

_____a. see team climate as an end in itself.

_____b. play devil's advocate far too long.

_____c. fail to see the importance of effective team process.

_____d. overemphasize strategic issues and minimize short-term task accomplishments.

16. People have often described me as:

_____a. independent.

_____b. dependable.

_____c. imaginative.

_____d. participative.

17. Most of the time, I am:

_____a. responsible and hardworking.

_____b. committed and flexible.

_____c. enthusiastic and humorous.

_____d. honest and authentic.

18. In relating to other team members, at times I get annoyed because they don't:

_____a. revisit team goals to check progress.

_____b. see the importance of working well together.

_____c. object to team actions with which they disagree.

_____d. complete their team assignments on time.

APPENDIX E: DEMOGRAPHICS

All responses to this survey are optional, and you can stop this survey at any point. Your responses are confidential and will not be shared with your supervisor or the organization. Please answer the questions based on your current workplace situation.

Gender

Female	Male	Transgender	I do not Identify

Age in years old

Ethnicity	Highest Level of Education
Arab American	High School (GED)
Latino/Latina	Associate Degree
Native American	Bachelors Degree
European American/Caucasian	Masters Degree
African American	Doctoral Degree/Post
Asian American	
Burmese American	
Other	

Job Classification

Professional Clinical	Professional Nonclinical

Length of Employment in Years

APPENDIX F: INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN STUDY EMAIL

NDSU   North Dakota State University
Educational Doctoral Program
NDSU Dept 2625 Box 6050
Fargo, ND 58108-6050
701-231-8011

Title of Research Study: Followership: A study exploring the variables of exemplary followership

Dear colleagues:

I am a graduate student in the Education Doctoral Program at North Dakota State University, and I am conducting a research project to better understand the relationships between variables of exemplary followership. It is our hope, that with this research, we will learn more about how we can predict exemplary followership based on development of certain variables.

Because you are employed with PPG, you are invited to take part in this research project. Your participation is entirely your choice, and you may change your mind or quit participating at any time, with no penalty to you.

It is not possible to identify all potential risks in research procedures, but we have taken reasonable safeguards to minimize any known risks.

By taking part in this research, you may benefit by workplace development curricula that may be created based on the results.

It should take about 15-20 minutes to complete the questions about followership. You can participate in and complete the survey by clicking on the link below.

We will keep private all research records that identify you. Your information will be combined with information from other people taking part in the study, we will write about the combined information that we have gathered. You will not be identified in these written materials. We may publish the results of the study; however, we will keep your name and other identifying information private.

If you have any questions about this project, please contact me at (972-825-6611 and brian.rook@ndsu.edu) or contact my advisor at (701-231-5775, and Myron.eighmy@ndsu.edu)

You have rights as a research participant. If you have questions about your rights or complaints about this research, you may talk to the researcher or contact the NDSU Human Research Protection Program at 701.231.8995, toll-free at 1-855-800-6717, by email at ndsu.irb@ndsu.edu, or by mail at: NDSU HRPP Office, NDSU Dept. 4000, P.O. Box 6050, Faro, ND 58108-6050.

By clicking on the link below you are indicating your consent to participate in this study. You can participate by clicking the following link

Followership Research Participation Link

Thank you,

Brian Rook
Clinic Manager

PARKVIEW
PHYSICIANS GROUP

PPG – Avilla
PPG – Auburn
PPG - Albion

Phone: (260)-897-4525
Fax: (260) 897-3650
Brian.rook@parkview.com

APPENDIX G: CONSENT FORM

Dear colleagues,

My name is Brian Rook. I am an employee at Parkview Health, and I am a doctoral student at North Dakota State University in the Educational Doctoral Program. I am conducting a research about followership in employees. I hope this information will be useful for workplace development. Please take the opportunity to contribute to this research so that you and other employees may benefit from future development programs based on what we learn.

It will take you about 15-20 minutes to complete this survey. At the end of the survey, you will be asked to answer demographic questions; however, the responses are confidential, and I will keep private all information that could potentially identify a participant.

Participation in this research is voluntary and you can quit at any time or skip over any questions you do not wish to answer.

If you have any questions, please contact me at either brian.rook@ndsu.edu, 972-825-6611 or Dr. Myron Eighmy at myron.eighmy@ndsu.edu, 701-231-5775. If you have questions about research subjects' rights or to file a complaint regarding the research, please contact NDSU Human Research Protection Office, 701-231-8995; 855-800-6717; or ndsu.irb@ndsu.edu.

Thank you,

Brian Rook

1. By selecting "Continue" you will move forward with the survey. By selecting "Exit" you will be taken away from the survey without responses being collected.

○ Continue

○ Exit

APPENDIX H: IRB APPROVAL

NDSU NORTH DAKOTA STATE UNIVERSITY

IRB Protocol #:

HE18120

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
office: Research 1, 1735 NDSU Research Park Drive, Fargo, ND 58102
mail: NDSU Dept. #4000, PO Box 6050, Fargo, ND 58108-6050
p: 701.231.8995 f: 701.231.8098 e: ndsu.irb@ndsu.edu w: www.ndsu.edu/irb

Protocol Amendment Request Form

Changes to approved research may not be initiated without prior IRB review and approval, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants. Reference: SOP 7.5 Protocol Amendments.

Examples of changes requiring IRB review include, but are not limited to changes in: investigators or research team members, purpose/scope of research, recruitment procedures, compensation strategy, participant population, research setting, interventions involving participants, data collection procedures, or surveys, measures or other data forms.

Protocol Information:

Protocol #: **HE18120**   Title: **Followership: A study exploring the variables of exemplary followership**

Review category: ☒ Exempt   ☐ Expedited   ☐ Full board

Principal investigator: **Brent Hill**   Email address: **brent.hill@ndsu.edu** – *Change in PI*
Dept: **SOE**

Co-investigator: **Brian Rook**   Email address: **brian.rook@ndsu.edu**
Dept: **SOE**

Principal investigator signature, Date: *Brent Hill   ¹/₃₀/₂₀₁₈ (see email)*

In lieu of a written signature, submission via the Principal Investigator's NDSU email constitutes an acceptable electronic signature.

Description of proposed changes:

1. Date of proposed implementation of change(s)*: **1/29/2018**
   * *Cannot be implemented prior to IRB approval unless the IRB Chair has determined that the change is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants.*

2. Describe proposed change(s), including justification:
   I was not able to get enough participants in my survey at my current work location. I have connected with Surveymonkey.com to purchase responses for a population of healthcare workers across the United States.

3. Will the change(s) increase any risks, or present new risks (*physical, economic, psychological, or sociological*)

Protocol Amendment Request Form
NDSU Institutional Review Board
Form revised May 2015

Page 1 of 3
Last printed 01/26/2018 1:23:00 PM

132

to participants?

☒ No

☐ Yes: *In the appropriate section of the protocol form, describe new or altered risks and how they will be minimized.*

4. Does the proposed change involve the addition of a vulnerable group of participants?
   Children: ☒ no ☐ yes – include the *Children in Research* attachment form
   Prisoners: ☒ no ☐ yes – include the *Prisoners in Research* attachment form
   Cognitively impaired individuals: ☒ no ☐ yes*
   Economically or educationally disadvantaged individuals: ☒ no ☐ yes*

   Provide additional information where applicable in the revised protocol form.

5. Does the proposed change involve a request to waive some or all the elements of informed consent or documentation of consent?

   ☒ no

   ☐ yes – 📎Attach the *Informed Consent Waiver or Alteration Request.*

6. Does the proposed change involve a new research site?

   ☐ no

   ☒ yes

📎 **If information in your previously approved protocol has changed, or additional information is being added, incorporate the changes into relevant section(s) of the protocol. Draw attention to changes by using all caps, asterisks, etc. to the revised section(s) and attach a copy of the revised protocol with your submission.** *(If the changes are limited to addition/change in research team members, research sites, etc. a revised protocol form is not needed.)*

Impact for Participants (future, current, or prior):

1. Will the change(s) alter information on previously approved versions of the recruitment materials, informed consent, or other documents, or require new documents?

   ☐ No

   ☒ Yes - 📎 attach revised/new document(s)

2. Could the change(s) affect the willingness of *currently* enrolled participants to continue in the research?

   ☒ No

   ☐ Yes - describe procedures that will be used to inform current participants, and re-consent, if necessary:

3. Will the change(s) have any impact to *previously* enrolled participants?

   ☒ No

Protocol Amendment Request Form
NDSU Institutional Review Board
Form revised May 2015

Page 2 of 3
Last printed 01/28/2018 1:23:00 PM

133

☐ Yes - describe impact, and any procedures that will be taken to protect the rights and welfare of participants:

- - - - - - - - - - FOR IRB OFFICE USE ONLY - - - - - - - -

Request is: ☒ Approved   ☐ Not Approved
Review: ☒ Exempt, category#: _2b_ ☐ Expedited method, category # ____ ☐ Convened meeting, date: ____ ☐ Expedited review of minor change

IRB Signature: _Kristy Shirley_	Date: 1/26/2018
Comments:	