

Journal of Business & Leadership: Research, Practice, and Teaching (2005-2012)

Volume 5
Number 2 *Journal of Business & Leadership*

Article 9

1-1-2009

Putting Followership On The Map: Examining Followership Styles and Their Relationship With Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

Leonard F. Favara Jr.
Central Christian College of Kansas

Follow this and additional works at: <http://scholars.fhsu.edu/jbl>



Part of the [Business Commons](#), and the [Education Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Favara, Leonard F. Jr. (2009) "Putting Followership On The Map: Examining Followership Styles and Their Relationship With Job Satisfaction and Job Performance," *Journal of Business & Leadership: Research, Practice, and Teaching (2005-2012)*: Vol. 5 : No. 2 , Article 9.

Available at: <http://scholars.fhsu.edu/jbl/vol5/iss2/9>

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by FHSU Scholars Repository. It has been accepted for inclusion in Journal of Business & Leadership: Research, Practice, and Teaching (2005-2012) by an authorized editor of FHSU Scholars Repository.

PUTTING FOLLOWERSHIP ON THE MAP: EXAMINING FOLLOWERSHIP STYLES AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP WITH JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Leonard F. Favara Jr., Central Christian College of Kansas

The legitimacy of followership, as an area of research within organizational psychology is beginning to become more accepted. This study was designed to examine followership styles and their relationship with job satisfaction and job performance. This non-experimental study employed a quantitative survey design with a set of surveys returned representing 131 employees at a Midwestern automotive engineering and manufacturing company. The three standardized instruments used in this study include the Followership Questionnaire (Kelley, 1992), the Job in General Scale (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989), and the Organizational Citizenship Behaviors scale (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Findings indicate that a significant positive relationship exists between followership styles and the two organizational variables job satisfaction and job performance. The findings enhance the theoretical study of followership by providing empirical evidence needed to validate further research.

INTRODUCTION

The birth of a new century finds modern organizations in a radically altered terrain (Haque, 2009). The financial viability of the global market has redefined the way the world does business (Baum, 2008). Issues such as instantaneous communication, cross-cultural relationships, advances in delivery systems, and shorter product cycles have caused organizations to be redesigned in order to meet the demands of a changing world economy. Of particular interest is the effect that this global environment has had on leadership responsibility. While in the past, governance and operations was mainly the role of leadership, the modern aggressive global marketplace has redistributed leadership functions throughout the organization (Pearce & Conger, 2003). For an organization to be effective in this environment, those managing it need to give attention to the way responsibilities are distributed and handled by all members of the organization (Ireland & Hitt, 1999). This shift in operations has caused organizational researchers to begin more seriously investigating the role of the follower.

Leadership and followership have long been understood as interconnected and mutually inclusive of one another (Chaleff, 2003). Yet, within the field of organizational psychology, leadership has received preferential treatment as a construct of interest and is the primary focus of studies related to the human influence in effective organizations (Hollander, 1992; Collinson, 2006). Until fairly recently, the role of the follower has been largely ignored, except as the outcome of a leader's influence (Baker, 2007). A number of organizational models portray the follower as a mere reactor who operates by the will, influence, and power of leaders. This approach to organizational psychology is based on the assumption that whatever good a follower brings to an organization is a direct result of the ability of the leader to draw upon the follower, not in the ability of the follower to produce independent of the leader's influence (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). Little

reasoning exists to dismiss the influence of a two-dimensional understanding of how individuals interact within an organizational setting, a view shared by multiple theorists (Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson, & Morris, 2006; Van Vugt, 2006). A more balanced approach that recognizes the contribution of the follower as an autonomous contributing member at all levels of the organization has been asserted (Chaleff, 2003; Dixon & Westbrook, 2003), but empirical evidence is lacking.

The success of an organization relies on the interaction of the individuals who make up the organization (Seteroff, 2003). Leadership and followership are two dimensions that describe the reciprocal relationship that exists between individuals working within an organizational context (Chaleff, 2003; Marion & Uhl-Bein, 2001). Focusing primarily on the leadership side of that relationship has ignored the importance of the synergistic relationships that are needed for an organization to operate with efficiency and effectiveness.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The emergence of literature associated with the study of followership as its own field within organizational management has only recently begun to emerge. Evidence suggests that while the concept of followership is not new (Kellerman, 2008), the acceptance of it as an important corollary to leadership is fairly recent (Bennis, 2008). Chaleff (2003) suggested that this new attention on followership is allowing individuals to move beyond traditional views of organizational interaction that regard the role of the follower as weak and passive. This new perspective has promoted investigation into the synergistic interplay between the role of follower and leader. Still, if new paradigms are to be explored, follower-focused data needs to be secured (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1999), which is distinct from the abundance of leader-focused data (Baker, 2007).

Leadership as a field of study has been emphasized so heavily that the role of the follower has nearly been forgotten or simply ignored in the pursuit to develop leadership-related principles (Greenberg & Baron, 2008). Even recent theories such as Leader-Member Exchange Model, Work Teams, and Attribution Approach, which claim to consider the role of the follower, only do so in relation to the leader as an individual. Little research closely examines the role of the follower and the essential qualities that define this role within an organizational setting. This is profound, considering that much of the work, associated with a typical organization, is completed by followers, not by leaders (Robbins & Judge, 2007; Dixon & Westbrook, 2003; Kelley, 1992; Heller & Van Til, 1982). Yet, in the face of evidence suggesting that an understanding of the role of followership within the organization is vital, it is still an oft forgotten dimension in leadership and organizational settings (Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson, & Morris, 2006; Brown, 1995). According to Bjugstad et al. (2006), there is a 120:1 ratio of leadership to followership books. While leadership is clearly receiving attention, the concept of followership has not received equal attention (Baker 2007). This is true, even in light of the fact that the two are closely associated in the organizational setting (Yaakov, 1994).

A serious deficiency in literature associated with leadership and followership, is the lack of a clear definition for followership. While the volume of writing concerning the role of the follower is steadily growing, clear definitions are not easily identifiable. In some ways, the definition of followership is still evolving as research further delineates the role. The majority of theorists seem to assume an accepted conceptualization of the idea of followership, but offer no definition. After reviewing the literature associated with followership, the following definition is postulated: Followership is the cognitive capacity and affirmative behavioral volition of the individual to be influenced in order to actively partner and participate in the accomplishment of a shared goal or outcome (Chaleff, 2003; Dixon, 2003; Mertler, Steyer, & Peterson, 1997; Kelley, 1992). This definition will serve as the characterization of followership associated with this research.

LEADERSHIP VS. FOLLOWERSHIP

The twentieth-century ethos has led most people to believe that leadership is a valued end state, which should be attained in order to feel and be viewed as successful (Chaleff, 1995). This view has largely been influenced by a focus on hierarchical perspectives of organizations, which focus on chain-of-command, rather than interdependence within the organization (Stech, 2008). This has led those associated with organizations to pursue a journey towards achievement, which is defined by moving up the hierarchical structure. In essence, leadership has become synonymous with being successful, while being a follower continues to be associated with a failure of potential (Bjugstad et al., 2006).

In turn, this encourages individuals in non-leadership positions to assume that their current state is less than desirable. It is like the child who runs the race but never gets the blue ribbon; followers are made to feel that they have suffered defeat by not gaining the status of leader (Kellerman, 2008). Viewed as docile, conforming, and passive, it is little wonder the term follower is shunned by a society that prizes a more rugged and independent image of the leader.

In many ways, leadership and followership have been relegated as polar opposites. This bifurcation of leadership and followership can have detrimental effects on organizational efficacy. Traditionally, leaders have been viewed as creators and initiators of change and renovation, while followers are viewed as reactors (Avolio, 2007). By calling an individual a follower, the modern assumption seems to be that this individual has done little to enhance the organization other than respond to a leader's direction or influence. This perspective causes followers to be viewed as mere pawns through which leaders manipulate their strategies and desires. What has been ignored is the unique interplay of those qualities associated with leadership and followership.

Twenty-first century organizational psychologists are grappling with new theories of leadership that integrate the different dimensions of both leadership and followership (Chaleff, 1995, 2003). This would expand Warren Bennis's (2007) view that within each individual are certain measures of both followership and leadership. The suggestion that a leader only leads ignores the dynamic of organizational systems and structures. Most leaders have subordinate roles in which they are answerable to someone else (Hackman & Wageman, 2007). Even top executives are many times answerable to board members or investors. The same is also true of followers. Most subordinates have certain spheres of influence in which they operate as leaders. It is rare for an individual to operate in one extreme, with little or no participation in the other. The line between acting in a leadership capacity or a followership capacity can be as insignificant as the hallway separating two offices. At other times, the lines separating the two roles barely even exists, such as in a meeting where a team leader is not only leading his or her team, but is answering queries and directives coming from a more senior leader.

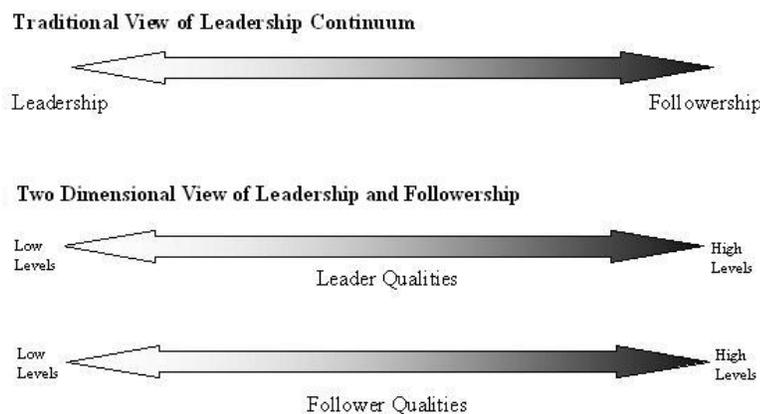
The traditional view of leadership and followership as divergent points on one continuum is not reflective of how followership and leadership manifest themselves in an organization (Lee, 1983). Emerging theories and research are suggesting that followership and leadership are a blend of interrelated competencies that are nearly always in operation and are continually adjusting to meet the needs of the situation (Chaleff, 2003). The question is no longer whether a person is a leader or a follower but rather to what extent the cognitions and behaviors of the individual or the demands of the situation cause the individual to act as a follower or leader (Maroosis, 2009). This perspective

suggests that each dimension has its own unique set of competencies, but these competencies are not necessarily linked to opposing extremes. Followership is not the absence of leadership but the existence of qualities and behaviors relative to followership. This is the key difference between a one dimensional and two dimensional view of how followership and leadership interact with each other.

Individuals who rate low on leadership capabilities do not automatically become followers. In the same way, it should not be assumed that those that cannot effectively

follow should simply seek to become leaders. Leadership and followership may share similar characteristics, but the specific competencies are unique, which places the two on separate continuums, not one bipolar continuum (Figure 1). This perspective shifts the focus away from leadership versus followership and allows for an integrated approach. Individuals need not be relegated to a leadership or followership designation but can be evaluated on both dimensions as their roles in the organization demand differing levels of each variable.

Figure 1: Comparison of the Traditional and Emerging Views Concerning the Relationship between Followership and Leadership



Chaleff (2003) suggested that organizations need to become more comfortable with the concept of followership, and that followers need to be empowered in order for the organization to excel. By adjusting the view of how leadership and followership are defined, organizations can take new approaches to handling employees. Rather than rewarding individuals for advancing through organizational structures towards greater and greater levels of leadership, emerging theories of followership suggest that the organization work toward creating good person-job fit by recognizing and rewarding individual strengths and utilizing individuals at whatever levels their particular strengths are accentuated (Kelley, 1992). If a lieutenant is a good lieutenant, then the organization need not place undue pressure on the individual to advance any further, but should rather celebrate the level of excellence he or she brings to that particular position.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF FOLLOWERSHIP STYLES

Perhaps one of the first discussions concerning followership styles was an outcome of Abraham Zalesnik's work. In his discussion concerning leadership dilemmas, he presented a rather pessimistic view of subordinates (followers) and offered four different subordinate styles

(1966). These styles were identified as impulsive (followers who are high in control and activity), compulsive (followers who are high in control and passivity), masochistic (followers high in submission and activity), and withdrawn (followers high in submission and passivity). While Kellerman (2008) suggested that Zalesnik's opinions reflect an outmoded view of follower/leader interaction, he claimed that Zalesnik's insights comprised one of the first theoretical positions on followership.

While Zalesnik was one of the first theorists to propose a two-dimensional approach to categorizing followers, it was Robert Kelley (1992) who expanded and built the theory of followership styles to a discipline and his work remains the standard in the field (Densten & Gray, 2001). Unlike Zalesnik, Kelley's view of followers was much more optimistic. He viewed followers as principal members of the organization, with as much input and responsibility as leaders. His theory assumed that effective followers are not passive recipients of influence but deliberate shareholders who are cognitively open to the influence of leaders in order to participate in a cause or in order to reach a complimentary goal.

In order to delineate the difference between effective followership and less effective followership, Kelley separated followers into five distinct styles (exemplary,

alienated, conformist, passive, and pragmatist) based on two axes (independent thinking and active participation). According to the strength of each dimension, an individual will be categorized in one of the five different followership styles described by Kelley. According to Kelley's model, exemplary followers can be a beneficial asset related to organizational performance. Their ability to provide self-management and assess their own work behavior in accordance with organizational values allows leaders to refocus their energies into other aspects of the organization. Alienated followers are capable independent thinkers but are less likely to engage in aspects of the organization. According to Kelley, this lack of engagement can actually occur through withdrawal from certain aspects of organizational life. Their independent thinking style allows them to evaluate the organization critically. At the same time, their analysis does not translate into action. They may have an idea concerning what should be done but do not act upon their impressions. Rather, they can become critical and launch disparaging appraisals of leadership and the organization. Conformist followers tend to be actively engaged in the organization but do not have the capacity for or have forfeited independent thinking. Individuals at this level of followership trust in the leadership of the organization to think critically and make decisions for them. They have accepted the role of obedient worker, which is a role that traditional business managers seem to find compatible with their definition of good followers (Kellerman, 2008). Conformist followers have a need to develop self-reliance in their cognitive skills and self-confidence relative to the carrying out of their ideas, if they are to move from conforming to exemplary. Passive followers are those who, by design or type, display neither independence nor active participation in the organization. These individuals do not actively seek out new ideas or the application of ideas given to them. They largely depend on others for direction and motivation. Pragmatist followers have the capacity to think and act on their own, but they are limited in their ability to follow through. As followers, they perform the basic functions of their job or task, but do not move beyond essential behaviors needed to maintain average organizational performance. Safety in the organization is their main motivation.

Having identified the different dimensions of followership, Kelley sought to discover an empirical way to categorize individuals based on each style. His research eventually led to the development of the Followership Questionnaire. The creation of this survey provided researchers with a tool that allowed followership style to be determined through a more methodical approach, other than mere observation.

More recently, Ira Chaleff (2003) and Barbara Kellerman (2008) have postulated their own views supporting the perspective of followership. Like Kelley, Chaleff utilized a two-axes view of followership and offers four categories of followership. These include the

implementer, partner, individualist, and resource follower. Chaleff expanded his concept of followership to include distinct situational dimensions that required the follower to act. It is these dimensions that have perhaps received the most empirical attention within the study of followership (Dixon, 2003; Dixon & Westbrook, 2003). Kellerman (2008) interpreted followers from the perspective of political science rather than organizational psychology, outlining five different types of followers. Using a single axis entitled level of encouragement; she listed five differing followership styles: isolator, bystander, participant, activist, and diehard.

Each of these theorists developed the concept of followership and allowed for the concepts associated with their theories to emerge into applicable styles that can be measured and tested within organizational settings. Unfortunately, these styles are largely theoretical and need empirical support to warrant consideration as viable concepts within the field of organizational psychology. Analysis and application based on scientifically derived data is needed. While the concept of followership may have some level of intuitive validity, questions concerning its scientific validity are largely unanswered. This research seeks to discover if a viable relationship does exist between followership and organizational variables.

HYPOTHESES

The primary purpose of this non-experimental, quantitative research is to examine the relationship followership styles have with recognized organizational variables and add to the growing body of literature focused on presenting applicable uses of followership theories within organizational settings. In order to discover the existence of a relationship between followership style and organizational variables, it was necessary to identify specific organizational variables that are recognized as organizationally important and valuable to organizational efficacy. It was also deemed appropriate that these variables should represent internal and external states in order to investigate both cognitive and behavioral conditions. Job satisfaction defines an internal state, which measures core self-evaluations (Judge, Bono, Erez, Locke, 2005), and is a highly valued organizational variable within organizational studies (Jiang, 2004). Job Performance, also a highly valued organizational variable, is focused on external behavioral states such as altruism, civility, team work, conscientiousness (Jones, 2006). Therefore, these two variables were chosen and helped formulate the hypothesis related to followership style.

Beyond the identification of organizational variables, a decision concerning which followership taxonomy was needed since not all the taxonomies are synchronous. The choice to use Kelley's taxonomy over other possible taxonomies was largely influenced by the available data supporting validity and reliability. Kelley's followership styles have been available to research much longer than other taxonomies, which has resulted in a richer level of

statistical evidence to support its use in this research and has provided for in-depth analysis and historical revision.

Specifically, the following hypotheses guided the research.

H1: Employees who indicate an exemplary followership style will demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction compared to employees indicating alienated, conformist, pragmatist, and passive styles of followership.

H2: Employees who indicate an exemplary followership style will demonstrate higher levels of job performance compared to employees indicating alienated, conformist, pragmatist, and passive styles of followership.

INSTRUMENTATION

This study employed a non-experimental, quantitative research design. A correlational survey approach was used to determine the relationship followership style has with job satisfaction and job performance. In order to collect the data, three different instruments were utilized. These included the Followership Questionnaire, Job in General Scale (JIG), and the Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) scale.

The Followership Questionnaire, as developed by Kelley (1992) includes twenty statements that relate to two independent dimensions of followership, which are independent thinking and active engagement. Respondents are asked to identify their strength of agreement or disagreement with each of the twenty statements while reflecting on their participation in situations requiring them to act as followers. A Likert scale, ranging from 0 = Rarely to 6 = Almost Always, allows respondents to indicate their responses. The Cronbach alpha found for the followership questionnaire was .84 (Dawson & Sparks, 2008; Mertler, Steyer, & Peterson, 1997). VanDoren (1998), found a Cronbach's alpha of .74 for the independent thinking subscale and a Cronbach's alpha of .87 for the active engagement subscale. A moderate correlation between the two subscales was also reported ($r = .56, p < .001$). VanDoren (1998) did not provide an alpha value for the overall measure. This study provided an overall Cronbach's alpha of .87, with the two subscales demonstrating a Cronbach's alpha of .77 for the independent thinking subscale and .86 for the active engagement subscale. These findings are consistent with other studies.

The Job in General Scale (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson & Paul, 1989) was used to measure job satisfaction. The coefficient alpha associated with the JIG range from .82 to .94 (Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, & Frings-Dresen, 2003; Fields, 2002), which corresponds with the Cronbach's alpha of .86 found with this study.

Jones (2006), Borman et al. (2001), and Tubre et al. (1988), suggested that there are certain elements that should

be included when measuring job performance, which include (a) Organizational Commitment/Support, (b) Organizational Citizenship/Pro-social Behaviors, and (c) Task Conscientiousness/Performance.

The Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) instrument (Williams & Anderson, 1991) was used to measure job performance. This was based on Jones (2006), Borman et al. (2001), and Tubre et al. (1988), suggestions that there are certain elements that should be included when measuring job performance including (a) Organizational Commitment/Support, (b) Organizational Citizenship/Pro-social Behaviors, and (c) Task Conscientiousness/Performance. Reliability has been established for each of the three subscales, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from .61-.88 for OCBI, .70 - .75 for OCBO, and .80 - .94 for IRB (Fields, 2002). The results of this study also attest to the reliability of the subscales, with Cronbach's alphas of .89 for the OCBI, .81 for OCBO, and .88 for IRB. Validity has been attested with positive correlations found for many organizationally-related variables including organizational support, employee self-esteem, organizational commitment, and lack of turnover (Fields, 2002).

SAMPLE SELECTION

The selection of participants was based on a non-probable, convenient sample derived from organizations willing to participate in the research. Organizations with a work force that would meet the sample requirements derived from the power analysis were identified based on information gleaned from the public domain. These organizations were targeted in hopes that the entire sample could be drawn from the same organization, which would reduce the effects of spurious variables. After identifying possible target organizations, contact was made with the organizations until one was willing to participate in the study. All 175 members of the organization were targeted as the sample population.

The target sample consisted of 175 employees of a major automotive engineering and manufacturing organization in the Midwest. The final sample, which was drawn from the two plants associated with the company, consisted of 131 employees. This met the sample requirements of 120, which was indicated by a priori analysis, a post hoc analysis was conducted based on the actual sample size of 131, indicating $1 - \beta = .92$ and $\alpha = .03$. The overall completion rate for the employee survey was 90%. The completion rate associated with the supervisor survey was 94%.

SURVEY ADMINISTRATION

Distribution of the surveys took place at two company meetings, which allowed all members of the organization to receive the same instructions and time necessary to complete

the surveys. Research packets included a letter of introduction, two copies of the informed consent form, a return envelope, and the survey. Respondents were not asked to identify themselves on the survey, though each was required to sign an informed consent form, attached to the survey. The surveys were designed so that informed consent portion of the survey could be removed after submission. This was done to protect the confidentiality of the respondents. Completed surveys and informed consent forms were returned directly to the researcher or the point-of contact, either through mail or via the human resource office.

An additional series of supervisory surveys were also completed by department heads, managers, and supervisors. The surveys were designed so that each supervisor could indicate the name of the individual employee being evaluated. The section in which the name was written was placed in such a way that the name portion could be removed, in order to protect the confidentiality of the participant. Other than signing a separate informed consent form, the supervisor did not need to provide any identifying information.

After all surveys were collected, staff surveys were paired with corresponding supervisor surveys. This was done through the use of the still-attached informed consent form and the removable portion of the completed supervisor surveys. Supervisor surveys that did not have a corresponding employee survey were removed from the sample. Those that were matched were coded, and the portions of the survey with identifying information were removed. Data was inputted and missing data was coded.

DISCUSSION OF DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

Responses to completed questionnaires were reviewed and prepared for analysis. An exploratory analysis, using stem-and-leaf plots did reveal the presence of outliers. It was determined that the simple deletion of outliers, at this stage of followership research, would ignore a unique and valid aspect of the sample and therefore undermine the generalizability of the results. This was done recognizing the possible effect that the presence of the outliers may cause on the analysis and the requirement of using nonparametric methodology. While analysis of the outliers revealed that inclusion would have served to strengthen the evidence supporting the hypothesis, inclusion was deemed the more appropriate approach for this research. Future research using this data or data derived from forthcoming research would benefit from further investigation into the effect of including or excluding outliers.

Descriptive statistics were analyzed in order to determine a better understanding of the data and possible directions for analysis. Frequencies concerning covariates and demographic variables were examined. The same was done with the independent variable and dependent variables

in order to explore possible relationships. Due to the measurement levels of the variables used in this research and the fact that the recognized presence of outliers violates key assumptions required for the use of parametric analysis, nonparametric methods were used to analyze the hypothesis. It was determined that the Kruskal-Wallis test would be the most suitable test to demonstrate whether or not a relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables. To determine if there were significant group differences between followership style and the two dependent variables job satisfaction and job performance, follow-up analysis was conducted. Since a nonparametric approach was used, Spearman's rank order correlation coefficients were utilized instead of the Pearson's r (Salkind, 2004; Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

FOLLOWERSHIP STYLES AND JOB SATISFACTION

The study was designed to ascertain what the relationship was between an individual's followership style and his or her level of job satisfaction. It was hypothesized that employees who indicate an exemplary followership style will demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction than those indicating alienated, conformist, pragmatist, and passive styles of followership. An ANOVA indicated that there was a highly significant relationship between followership styles and levels of job satisfaction as reported by respondents $F(2,105) = 11.65, p < .01$. These findings support the premise that individuals who indicate that they are exemplary followers also report higher levels of job satisfaction.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was also used to analyze the proposed relationship between followership styles and job satisfaction. The findings suggest that the null hypothesis can be rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis, $\chi^2(2, N = 104) = 14.70, p < .001$. These findings further support the theory that there is a statistically significant relationship between identified followership styles and levels of job satisfaction. Nonparametric correlations, using Spearman's rho, also support the rejection of the null hypothesis ($r = .282, p < .001$). Post hoc analysis was conducted using Tukey's HSD showed that those indicating a pragmatist followership style reported significantly lower levels of job satisfaction than those indicating a conformist or exemplary style. All other comparisons were not significant.

FOLLOWERSHIP STYLE AND JOB PERFORMANCE

As with followership styles and job satisfaction, the use of nonparametric methods was preferred in the analysis of followership styles and job performance. An additional research question sought to ascertain what the relationship was between an individual's followership style and his or her level of job performance. It was hypothesized that

employees who indicate an exemplary followership style will demonstrate higher levels of job performance than those indicating alienated, conformist, pragmatist, and passive styles of followership. An ANOVA indicated that there was a highly significant positive relationship between followership styles and levels of job performance, $F(2,105) = 7.72$, $p < .01$. These findings support the premise that individuals who indicate that they are exemplary followers also report higher levels of job performance.

As with job satisfaction, a Kruskal-Wallis test was used to analyze the hypothesized relationship between followership styles and job performance. The data indicates that the null hypothesis can be rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis, $\chi^2(2, N = 104) = 14.68$, $p = .001$. Nonparametric correlations, using Spearman's rho, also support the rejection of the null hypothesis ($r = .326$, $p < .001$). Post hoc analysis was conducted using Tukey's HSD showed that those indicating a conformist followership style reported significantly lower levels of job performance than those reporting an exemplary followership style. All other comparisons were not significant.

DISCUSSION

An inherent assumption of followership theorists is that effective followers would display higher levels of independent thinking and active participation in the organization, as suggestive of the exemplary follower. In turn, the presence of these attributes presumes that they will be expressed through higher levels of job performance and more positive organizational experiences. Either that or the follower will exit the organization in order to discover an organizational environment that is more suitable. Therefore, effective followers (exemplary) should indicate higher levels of job satisfaction and supervisors should recognize higher levels of job performance.

The research indicates a significant positive relationship between the exemplary followership style and job satisfaction. While pragmatist and alienated styles were not discovered by the study, the results clearly indicate that the exemplary followership style was associated with higher levels of job satisfaction than both pragmatist and conformist follower styles. The research also supports a significant positive relationship between the exemplary followership style and job performance. This evidence supports the theorized relationship that exists between good followers and their organizational involvement. The fact that exemplary followers showed higher levels of independent thinking and active participation, while at the same time demonstrating higher levels of job satisfaction and job performance, advocates further study concerning this relationship.

It is possible that the relationship between followership and the two organizational variables job satisfaction and job performance is more reflective of organizational environment than personal style. This would suggest that

people whom like their jobs or perform well at their jobs, simply project the characteristics of exemplary followers. This implies that causation is centered on the organizational environment and not the individual style of the employee. An exploratory analysis, using regression analysis, suggested the opposite. When job satisfaction was predicted, using all possible variables provided by the respondents, it was found that follower style ($\beta = 2.43$, $p = .01$) and education level ($\beta = 2.77$, $p < .05$) were significant predictors. These two predictors accounted for approximately 20% of the variance in job satisfaction scores ($R^2 = .19$). A second regression analysis was completed in order to measure predictor variables related to job performance. The analysis indicated that follower style ($\beta = 2.98$, $p < .01$), educational level ($\beta = 3.47$, $p < .01$), and ethnicity ($\beta = 1.68$, $p = .05$) were all significant predictors of job performance. This model accounted for 32% of the variance in job performance scores ($R^2 = .32$). While further research is needed, evidence may suggest that there is a basis to argue causality, though the scope of this research did not fully explore that issue.

Prior investigations and discussions concerning Kelley's development of followership styles have been largely theoretical. This research bridges the gap between the theoretical assertions found in followership literature and empirical evidence upon which theory can be scientifically explored. Analysis of followership styles and their possible link to job satisfaction and job performance can better inform organizational constituency concerning the variety and function of followership within the organizational setting. Furthermore, by identifying the followership style of individuals, organizational managers can refine the process through which they identify individuals who may exhibit higher levels of partnership and support. In turn, this can lead to more effective means of empowerment and organizational collaboration.

This research has provided needed empirical to further support this emerging field of study. It is a well-known premise that leaders cannot effectively operate as leaders without the presence and cooperation of followers (Heller & Van Til, 1982). Leadership cannot exist in a vacuum. Its operation requires the presence of followers. Yet, it is more than just the mere presence of leaders and followers that results in effective organizational outcomes.

While effective leaders may have some level of success in an organization (Heller & Van Til, 1982), how much more effective can an organization be if effective leaders partner with effective followers? This research proposes that exemplary followers are not only more satisfied organizational members, but they perform more effectively than conformist and pragmatist followers. Howell and Mendez (2008) suggested that the effective follower, best exemplified in this study as the exemplary follower, empowers the leader and cooperates with others in order to achieve organizational goals. It is the exemplary follower who allows organizational leadership to concentrate less on

follower behavior and more on organizational strategy and outcomes. Therefore, organizations that can attract, train, and keep exemplary followers may reap a number of strategic advantages.

Bjugstad et al. (2006) suggested that there might be value in integrating what we know about leadership styles and what we are learning about followership styles. The data related to this research has demonstrated the value of followership styles and has given it one of its first empirically supported applications into organizational behavior. Now, further research is needed to investigate the significance of combining the two concepts. Based on the assumptions made by Bjugstad et al., differing styles of followership and leadership may be complementary. This suggests that while followership theorists have clearly identified the qualities of an exemplary follower, there may be times in which other levels of followership, when matched with a corresponding type of leadership, may perform better than the exemplary follower. Research in this area would help develop a reciprocal theory related to leadership styles and followership styles (Chaleff, 2003).

Some cautions need to be raised before the results of this research are generalized to other populations. When reviewing the demographics of the organization that participated in this study, it was obvious that there was not a balanced representation of gender and some ethnic populations. Gender and ethnic-related effects may not have been recognized in this sample and will need to be accounted for before the findings are applied to all members of other organizations. Another caution concerning the generalization of results concerns the absence of the alienated and passive followership styles in the sample. This could be due to Kelley's survey, which may not reflect current trends in followership style or the organization represented in the study may not have passive and alienated followers due to organizational culture or controls. To assume that organizations do not have alienated or passive followers based on the findings of this research would be a dangerous speculation. Research involving a number of organizations needs to take place before such assumptions can be verified. Careful consideration must also be given to the types of organizations to which these results can be applied.

CONCLUSION

The study of followership can no longer simply be ignored. Changes in organizational structures and global cooperation have magnified the importance of the interchange between leaders and followers. Furthermore, few if any leaders simply exist in a leadership vacuum. The effective operation of both leadership and followership principles are needed (Hackman & Wageman, 2007). Therefore, it is essential that modern organizations not only continue to develop effective leaders, but that they also investigate the role of the follower.

Theorists have long postulated on differing types of followers and how best each of these can assist the organization. Unfortunately, many of these assumptions have never moved beyond theoretical models. Direct application or empirical research has been minimal, which may explain the silent treatment that followership has received in organizational studies. Application of Kelley's followership styles to the organizational variables of job satisfaction and job performance, provided through this research, has provided the scientific basis through which followership studies can be advanced.

REFERENCES

- Avolio, B. (2007). Promoting more integrative strategies for leadership theory-building. *American Psychologist*, 62(1), 25-33.
- Avolio, B., & Reichard, R. (2008). The rise of authentic followership. In *The art of followership* (pp. 325-337). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Baker, S. (2007). Followership: The theoretical foundation of a contemporary construct. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 14(1), 50-61.
- Balzer, W. K., Kihm, J. A., Smith, P. C., Irwin, J., Bachiochi, P. D., Robie, C., et al. (2000). Users' manual for the Job Descriptive Index (JDI); 1997 version) and the Job in General scales. In J. M. Stanton (Ed.), *Electronic resources for the JDI and JIG* Bowling Green, OH: Bowling Green State University.
- Baum, J. (2008, June) Competing in the 21st century; Globalization is shaping the way we do business. *Entrepreneur*. [Electronic Copy].
- Bennis, W. (2007, January). The challenges of leadership in the modern world: Introduction to the special issue. *American Psychologist*, 62(1), 2-5.
- Bennis, W. (2008). Introduction. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Bluman (Eds.), *The art of followership* (pp. xxiii - xxvii). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bjugstad, K., Thach, E., Thompson, K., & Morris, A. (2006, May). A fresh look at followership: A model for matching followership and leadership styles. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 7(3), 304-319.
- Borman, W., Buck, D., Hanson, M., Motowidlo, S., Stark, S., & Drasgow, F. (2001). An Examination of the comparative reliability, validity, and accuracy of performance ratings made using computerized adaptive rating scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 965-973.
- Brown, T. (1995, September 4). Great leaders need great followers. *Industry Week*, 244(16), 24-28.
- Chaleff, I. (2003). *The courageous follower* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler. (Original work published 1995)
- Collinson, D. (2006). Rethinking followership: A post-structuralist analysis of follower identities. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(2), 179-189.

- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2003). *Business research methods*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Daft, R. (2008). *The leadership experience* (4th ed.). Mason, OH: Thomson.
- Dawson, S., & Sparks, J. (2008). [Validation of Kelley's Instrument]. Unpublished study.
- Denston, I. & Gray, J. (2001). The links between followership and the experiential learning model: followership coming of age. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 8(1), 69-76.
- Dixon, E. (2003). *An exploration of the relationship of organizational level and measures of follower behaviors*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alabama in Huntsville, Huntsville, AL.
- Dixon, G., & Westbrook, J. (2003). Followers Revealed. *Engineering Management Journal*, 15(1), 19-25.
- Fields, D. (2002). *Taking the measure of work: A guide to validated scales for organizational research and diagnosis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gardner, W., Avolio, B., Luthans, F., May, D., & Walumbwa, F. (2005, June). "Can you see the real me?" A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 343-372.
- Greenberg, J., & Baron, R. (2008). *Behavior in Organizations* (9th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Haque, Umair (2009, January). A user's guide to 21st century economics. *Harvard Business Publishing*, Retrieved March 4, 2009, from http://discussionleader.hbsp.com/haque/2009/01/a_users_guide_to_21st_century.html
- Hackman, J. R. & Wageman, R. (2007). Asking the right questions about leadership. *American Psychologist*, 62(1), 43-47
- Heller, T., & Van Til, J. (1982). Leadership and followership: Some summary propositions. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 18(4), 405-414.
- Hollander, E. (1992). Leadership, followership, self, and others. *Leadership Quarterly*, 3(1), 43-54.
- Howell, J., & Mendez, M. (2008). Three perspective of followership. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Blumen (Eds.), *The art of followership* (pp. 25-39). San Francisco: Wiley.
- Hughes, R., Ginnett, R., & Curphy, G. (1999). *Leadership: Enhancing the lessons of experience* (3rd ed.). Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Ireland, R., & Hitt, M. (1999). Achieving and maintaining strategic competitiveness in the twenty-first century: The role of strategic leadership. *Academy of Management Executive*, 13, 43-57.
- Ironson, G., Smith, P., Brannick, M., Gibson, M., & Paul, K. (1989). Construction of a job in general scale: A comparison of global, composite and specific measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 193-200.
- Jiang, N. (2004, August). *Measurement of job satisfaction reconsidered: A structural equation modeling perspective*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Association, San Francisco.
- Jones, M. (2006, September). Which is a better predictor of job performance: Job satisfaction or life satisfaction? *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*.
- Judge, T., & Bono, J. (2001). Relationship of core self-evaluation traits--self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability--with job satisfaction and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 80-92
- Judge, T., Bono, J., Erez, A., Locke, E. (2005). Core self-evaluations and job satisfaction and life satisfaction: The role of Self-concordance and goal attainment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(2), 251-268.
- Kellerman, B (2008). *Followership: How followers are creating change and changing leaders*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business.
- Kelley, R. (1992). *The power of followership*. New York: Doubleday Currency.
- Lee, M. (1983). *Leadership/followership*. Alberta, Canada: Horizon House.
- Marion, R., & Uhl-Bein, M. (2001). Leadership in complex organizations. *Leadership Quarterly*, 12(4), 414.
- Maroosis, J. (2008). Leadership: A partnership in reciprocal following. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Bulmen (Eds.), *The art of followership* (pp. 17-24). San Francisco: Wiley.
- Mertler, C., Steyer, S., & Peterson, G. (1997, October). *Teachers' perception of the leadership/followership dialectic*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Midwestern Educational Research Association, Chicago.
- Pearce, C. & Conger, J. (2003). All those years ago: The historical underpinnings of shared leadership. In C. L. Pierce & J. A. Conger (Eds.) *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership* (pp. 1-18). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Robbins, S., & Judge, T. (2007). *Organizational Behavior* (12th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson.
- Salkind, N. (2004). *Statistics for people who (think that) they hate statistics*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Seteroff, S. (2003). *Beyond leadership to followership: Learning to lead from where you are*. Victoria, CA: Trafford.
- Stech E. (2008). A new leadership –followership paradigm. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Bulmen (Eds.), *The art of followership* (pp. 41-52). San Francisco: Wiley.
- Tubre, T., Arthur, W., Paul, D., & Bennett, W. (1988, August). *The development of a general measure of performance*. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Academy of Management, San Diego, CA.
- Van Saane, N., Sluiter, J., Verbeek, H., & Frings-Dresen, M. (2003). Reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction - a systematic review. *Occupational Medicine*, 53, 191-200.

- Van Vugt, M. (2006). Evolutionary origins of leadership and followership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 10*(4), 354-371.
- VanDoren, E. (1998). *The relationship between leadership/followership in staff nurses and employment setting*. Unpublished master's thesis, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo.
- Wagner, H. (2006). *Organizational behavior*. Atlanta, GA: Thompson.
- Williams, L., & Anderson, S. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management, 17*(3), 601-617.
- Yaakov, A. (1994). The conductor and the orchestra: Interactive aspects of the leadership process. *Leadership & Organizational Development Journal, 15*(1), 22-28.
- Zaleznik, A. (1966). *Human dilemma's of leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
-

Leonard F. Favara, Jr. is Associate Dean of Academics and Professor of Behavioral Sciences at Central Christian College of Kansas. His research interests include Leadership and Followership. Leonard holds a Ph.D. in Psychology from Northcentral University, a Master of Science from Kansas State University, a Bachelor of Science in Ministry from Central Christian College of Kansas, and an Associate of Arts degree from Central College. He is affiliated with Pi Gamma Mu (National Social Science Honor Society), the American Psychological Association, and the Society for the Teaching of Psychology.