The Relationship of Organizational Level and Measures of Follower Behaviors

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Abstract

For every leader there are many non-leaders—followers—who benefit the organization's competitive position. In reality, followers permeate all organizations, but it is leadership that seems to dominate management research, thinking, and practice. While the many are ignored, the few receive attention. Chaleff has developed a model with five behaviors identifying courageous followers: assume responsibility, serve, challenge, participate in transformation and leave. Chaleff's theory implies that followership should be recognizable at all organizational levels. This implication requires empirical verification; i.e., if followership exists, how does it represent itself across organizational levels? A sample (N = 263) was taken from the population of engineering and technology workers in multi-level organizations to answer the question. The population for the research, predominantly engineers and technology workers, represents high diversity in its working relationships and represented sub-disciplines. The sample included 53 organizations including government agencies/departments (16%), government contractors (31%) and industry (53%). Results indicated that while followership is evident within the organizations, statistically significant differences exist in self-attributions of followership as a function of organizational level for three of the characteristic behaviors.

Introduction

An understanding of followers and the concept of followership moves management beyond traditional definitions of subordinates and introduces an understanding of followers as occupying active, contributing roles [1]. The implication is that when followership is respected, nurtured and valued, being identified as a follower will result in performance levels associated with followership, i.e., greater expectations for the follower means greater contributions to the organization and greater reward for the follower. As stated by Werther [2], followers are increasingly the source of organizational stability.

For Burns [3], the key to real transformational leadership is addressing the follower's self-worth. To really understand the self-worth of the members of an organization, the leader and follower must share a common understanding of the concept of followership—what is required and what is expected. While recent work has led to the development of models of what a leader does to subordinates [4] or what subordinates do to leaders [5], theorists and researchers have, for the most part, provided only simple leader-focused theories, models and tools for developing an understanding of followers and their contributions to organizations.

Literature Review

The works of Kelley [6], Rost [7], and Chaleff [8] recognize the concept of follower and followership as distinct from concepts of subordinates and subordination found in management research and popular literature. For them, the role of followers and the concept of followership represent a proactive state. Considerable management literature largely supports a submissive subordinate concept by describing so-called managerial leaders with phraseology implying subordinate manipulation techniques based in some form of contingency theory, equity theory, or transactional theory. Early leadership theories considered followers to be dependent variables while more recent theories consider followers to be modifiers [2, 5]. Kelley [6], Rost [7], and Chaleff [8] take exception to these approaches. Dvir and Shamir [5] report limited research based on followers as independent variables in newer leadership models.

Chaleff [8] argues that in order to be effective and perform at the highest level, followers must exercise certain behaviors that form a framework of five dimensions, or behaviors, exemplifying what he calls "courageous followers." The five behaviors are courage to assume responsibility, courage to serve, courage to challenge, courage to participate in transformation, and courage to leave. The behaviors should be evident in all levels of the organization [9] where followership exists.

The courage to assume responsibility. Followers take responsibility for themselves and the organization by demonstrating a sense of ownership. In their passion for the purpose and vision for the organization, followers generate new ideas and initiate actions to improve the organization's external and internal processes. Followers seek solutions and encourage others to behave similarly. Crockett's [10] parallel construct labels this as self-management and personalizes it for the follower by including self-discipline. For Crockett self-discipline is born of self-awareness and self-responsibility.

The courage to serve. Followers show similar strength of conviction and commitment as does the leader in pursuing the common purpose [8]. Kelley [7] describes courage to serve as followers who serve by protecting the organizational "commons." His research indicates followers are willing to give to the organization in return for what they might take from the organization. Followers are willing to implement directives even when not in agreement, as long as the directives are consistent with the organization's purpose and vision [6]. They limit complaints by sharing thoughts that encourage focus on mission.

The courage to challenge. Followers work diligently in helping the leader to be consistent in word and deed and are willing to initiate confrontation in order to examine the actions of the leader and group when appropriate. Based on a sense of value congruence [5, 11, 12], the courage to challenge implies a readiness to hold leaders to commonly held values. In his research, Miller [13], while finding that leaders did not include "principled dissent" as a desirable behavior, did find that leaders accept constructive feedback from followers.

The courage to participate in transformation. Followers recognize the need for transformation and champion the need for change. They are willing to put themselves on the line, and they believe others—especially the leader—should do the same [6]. They stay with the leader during the difficulty of real change. Lippitt [14] recognizes this as "bridging the empathy gap"

in creating and maintaining a team environment among diverse peoples within the organization.

The courage to leave. Self- or organizational-growth may require a courageous follower to separate from the leader(s). Followers are prepared to move on psychologically and physically if moving on is appropriate. Crockett [10] comments that this willingness to separate is the most important single measure of dynamism within the follower role. Kelley [6] calls this the exercise of the courageous conscience. The courageous conscience discerns between "our duty to obey, our duty to disobey, and our duty to take positive action." If disobedience begins with a psychological separation, then positive action would be a physical separation and could be construed as the final act of courage to leave. As Howell and Shamir [11] posit, followers share blame when a leader fails. Follower intervention, on the other hand, is consistent with egalitarian leadership.

Leader-follower Interactions in the Organizational Context

Organizations represent integrated structures for allocating the demands of tasks, technologies, and the organization's members and set the cultural basis of interaction between leaders and followers in response to the outside environment. One of the common characteristics of organizational structure is hierarchy level. Hierarchical levels define a system of authorizations for coordinating both tasks and technology and in doing so, the levels represent specialization of functions [15]. Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, and Stogdill [16] make the point that the levels are interdependent; each requires all the others for sustaining the organization. Three parallel explanations, or models, of organizational structures—functional, titular, and decision type—are depicted in Figure 1.

Schneeweib [17] describes three organizational functional layers or levels: strategic, tactical, and operational. Den Hartog, House, Hanges, and Ruiz-Quintanilla [18] state that the strategic level (level 1) is concerned with ends rather than means. The tactical level (level 2) is concerned with means more than ends. The operational level (level 3) is the level where human resources meet the tasks of production.

Wortman [19] provides a positional, or titular, definition of organizational structure. The first tier (level 1), the executive level, consists of the top three levels of large organizations, i.e., CEO or COO, executive vice presidents, and vice-presidents. The second level (level 2) contains managers and all other persons in managerial positions, including first-line supervisors. The third level (level 3) consists of non-management personnel.

Parsons [20] also provides a three-level description of organizational structure that is based on decision-making. The policy-institutional level (level 1) addresses decisions relative to the how and why of attaining organizational goals. The allocative-managerial level (level 2) addresses decisions concerning allocation of responsibilities between divisions, departments, and work groups, and the allocation of what he calls fluid resources (manpower, monetary, and physical assets). The integration-technical level (level 3) addresses decisions facilitating motivation and cooperation among personnel.

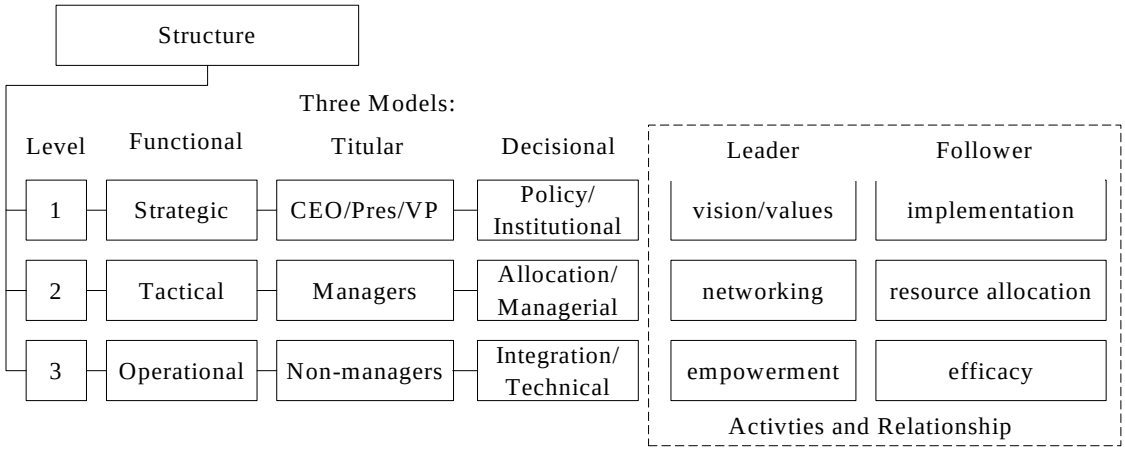

Figure 1. Framework for Leader-Follower Interactions in the Organizational Context.

The three models of organizational structure provide equivalent hierarchical level categorizations of employees in the organization. In all three the supervising and supervised depend on each other; i.e., the levels are interdependent. According to Heifetz [15], each contributes to the reputation and influence of the other. Their interdependence enables the levels collectively to apply inherent skills in meeting organizational objectives and obligations associated with a commonly held purpose.

Recognizing that the levels of an organization are interdependent [16] means that leadership and followership interactions can occur at any hierarchical levels at any time [21]. At level 1, leaders are establishing a vision consistent with values commonly held and expressed by the followers. Followers at level 1 are engaged in group-oriented processes for initiating and assuring vision implementation [21]. At level 2, leaders are engaged in networking activities that enhance work unit viability and success potential through the allocation of resources. Followers at level 2 focus on collaborative processes required for resource utilization. At level 3, leaders empower follower problem-solving processes associated with production and schedule while monitoring performance and cost. Problem identification and resolution represent opportunities for leaders at a lower level to enlist followers at a higher organizational level for task completion regardless of rank and or stature.

Given the discussion above, the major premise of this paper is that followers exist within all levels of organizations and those measures of follower behaviors vary with organizational level. The germane research question is: What is the nature of the association of organizational level and measures of follower behaviors?

Research Statement

The research question requires measures of follower behaviors by an organization's constituents and a measure of how those behaviors vary according to hierarchical level. Since researchers

and theorists generally accept that leadership increases with hierarchical level. If so, then it is expected that followership will decrease with increasing hierarchical level. This idea is inconsistent with the works of Kelley and Chaleff, however. For the follower models described by Kelley and Chaleff, it is reasonable to suspect that evidence of follower behaviors will be found at all levels of the organization with relative amounts influenced by the level sensitive roles organizational members are required to fulfill. In that sense, it is reasonable to suspect that follower behaviors will be greater at lower organizational levels consistent with variations of decision making at various roles.

This rationale leads to the following testable hypothesis:

H_1: Measures of follower behaviors change with organizational level.

For some, the idea that to get ahead, one must get along typifies the follower both physically and psychological. This idea is consistent with old perceptions of followers as non-thinking subordinates whose only role is to blindly serve.

Four basic assumptions under gird the hypothesis as it relates to the research question.

1. Followership exists in all organizations. By common acceptance, leaders have followers, else they are not leaders. Rost [7] describes management as an authority, or coercive, relationship and leadership as an influence relationship, i.e., non-coercive. It is reasonable to assume that influence is reciprocal and occurs in every organization and therefore leadership and followership are at work in some capacity in every organization and exist in some form.

2. Employees at any level spend more time being followers than they do being leaders [6]. Comparing this assumption to the first means that employees are more often influenced than they influence. It is not reasonable that any one individual, let alone a group or constituents of an organized group, would be able to devote most, let alone all, of their time to leader-like influence behaviors. Kelley [6] estimates that followership represents 70% to 90% of life.

3. Followership is discernable. Discernment means that the specific item of interest has identifying characteristics. For this research, the identifying characteristics of followership are what Chaleff [8] describes as behavior in his theory of courageous followership. Chaleff's model was selected as a theoretical framework for this research because it provides a comprehensive explanation and description of followers, follower behaviors, and followership.

4. Observers are able to attribute followership behaviors to their managers, their direct reports, their organizational peers, and themselves based on experience, reputation, perception, or intention. This fourth assumption states that it is possible, through observation, reflection, or other means of discernment, to recognize temperaments, acts, or intentions that permit ascribing follower behaviors to someone of interest.

Research Methodology

The operationalized constructs—hierarchical position and the followership behaviors—were the basis for the experimental design. The independent variable, organizational level, was selected consistent with Figure 1 with a slight variation. Level 3 of Figure 1 was subdivided to

distinguish between first-line supervisors and employees. This subdivision was chosen to further refine the description of the organization's levels. The subdivision recognizes that foremen, supervisors, and team leaders potentially have followers. The dependent variables are the five behaviors Chaleff [8] uses to define courageous followership. The population for the research, predominantly engineers and technology workers, represents high diversity in its working relationships and represented sub-disciplines. Engineers and technology workers are generally required to work independently in developing technical products, services, and processes based on sub-discipline specialties. These workers are expected to perform as team members in integrating those products, services, and specialties into existing or emergent structures and systems complementary to organizational vision, mission, and objectives. In essence, engineers and technology workers represent multi-functional employees.

The sample used for the research was a judgmental sample. The sample elements were selected as multi-level U.S. businesses in the construction, engineering, and building services sector organizations. Respondents indicated actual level of and levels below their personal level in the organization. Table 1 lists the hierarchical sorting selection criteria based on level of, and levels below a respondent.

Table 1: Organizational Level Categorical Selection Criteria

Respondent's reported level (CEO = 1; CEO direct report = 2, etc.	Number of levels below respondent	Assigned level category
1-2	0	Operation
	1	Supervisor
	2	Middle manager
	3 or more	Executive
3-8 or more	0	Operation
	1	Supervisor
	2 or more	Middle manager

By utilizing respondents holding jobs from the same job family, i.e., engineers and technology workers, and a common instrument for a common purpose, the potential for confounding was reduced [22]. Introductory discussions with points of contact or organizational decision makers were centered on gaining approval to survey the organization and establishing the logistics for participation by an organization. The personal demographic data solicited included education level, gender, age ethnicity, and years of service. Organizational demographics divided responding organizations by organization type i.e., government agency, government contractor or industry, size and number of employees.

Test Instrument

A questionnaire was developed to identify and measure the behaviors Chaleff [8] uses to describe followership using a cross-sectional approach. The survey, The Followership Profile (TFP) [23] employed *self*-ratings using a forced-choice Likert response category schema. The descriptor terms used with the five-item response options were *to little or no extent*, *to a slight extent*, *to a moderate extent*, *to a great extent*, and *to a very great extent*, relating to a numerical scale of 1 to 5, respectively. While the literature seems to support the thought that the lack of

follower behaviors is an indication of subordinancy, no test of subordinancy was included. Instrument development, described in Appendix A, resulted in a 20 item survey.

An estimation of operational validity for TFP was determined with using content validation, criterion validation, construct validation, content adequacy and confirmatory factor analysis. While not a complete approach to instrument substantiation, these efforts, also described in Appendix A, represent a baseline.

Data Analysis and Results

Data collection was conducted over a 10 month period. The sample size was 263. Fifty-three organizations were represented in the 263 responses received. Of the total organizations sampled, 16% were government agencies, 31% were government contractors, and 53% were industrial organizations. The mean respondent was a college educated male, age 43. Responses were grouped in the four categories (Table 1) using an algorithm created within an Excel® spreadsheet. Data analysis was conducted on the mean of the responses across all items representing each behavior in order to control the bias stemming from the unequal distribution of items per behaviors.

The data indicate that the executive level had higher attributions for each of the 5 behaviors than all other organization levels. The operation level had the lowest attributions for all of the behaviors. The supervisor and middle manager levels were similar and fell between the operation and executive levels, however, generally the supervisor level ratings were higher than the middle manager. Standard deviations generally varied inversely to means relative to level. The standard deviation of the executive level, where the sample size was less than twenty-five percent of the operation sample size, the executive level apparently was much less dispersed concerning self-attribution of follower behaviors. The small dispersion may be associated with higher levels of self-esteem commonly attributed to executives or higher concern with social desirability. Due to a non-normal data distribution, the indication of difference in means, however, warranted analysis via non-parametric methods.

The data were analyzed using the Kruskal-Wallis method. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis analysis indicate that three of the behaviors, *courage to assume responsibility, courage to serve* and *courage to leave* were significantly different across the organization levels, i.e., rejected the null hypothesis. The other two behaviors were not significantly different across the levels of the independent variable. The Fisher's least square determination method paired comparisons test was applied to those behaviors with significantly different chi-square scores.

For the behavior *courage to assume responsibility*, the χ^2 statistic, 9.238, indicates statistically significant difference between two or more of the organizational levels for this behavior (asymptotic significance, 0.026). The executive level mean rating (4.15) was higher than all other organizational level means and is consistent with ultimate responsibility for the organization being vested in the executive level. The middle manager level assumes responsibility within its narrower circle of influence, to wit, intra-organizational responsibilities. The supervisor level assumes responsibility for the production/technology process and direct reports. The supervisor (3.94) and middle manager level (3.89) were statistically the same when analyzed by rank using the Kruskal-Wallis methodology. The operation level had the lowest

mean attribution (3.76) and is consistent with the premise that the operation level is least responsible for organizational needs and requirements, focusing instead on production tasks. Each of the levels reflects a situational reality in which increasing organizational level requires an increasing need to demonstrate the behavior courage to assume responsibility.

In describing courage to assume responsibility, Chaleff [8] states that assuming responsibility is tantamount to an authority to initiate. The executive level's authority to initiate is distinctly unique by nature as it represents ultimate positional, titular, and decisional authority for all aspects of an organization. General support for this uniqueness was provided by the Kruskal-Wallis/Fisher analysis in that all levels except the supervisor level are statistically different from the executive level. Supervisors are at the level of the organization where procedures are converted to product, the level that gets things done. Processes are improved at this level and a sense of ownership comes from the application of creative and innovative energies. This level readily evinces authority to initiate. Comparatively, the middle manager level converts the policies and strategies generated at the executive level into programs and procedures. In converting strategies to programs and policies to procedures, middle managers seek compromises between the various and sometimes opposing technical positions and biases and the executive level's strategies, directions and objectives [26]. While important, this compromise process connotes reduced authority to initiate compared to getting products ready for the customer, i.e., the courage to assume responsibility is diluted at the middle manager level. The operation level is limited in its capacity for authority to initiate in that generally, cooperation must be received from higher level for changes of significant magnitude.

For the behavior *courage to serve*, the χ^2 statistic, 8.762, indicates statistically significant difference exists between two or more of the organizational levels for this behavior (asymptotic significance, 0.033). The executive level was different than the other levels for this behavior. For the behavior courage to serve, the executive level mean rating (3.87) was higher than all other organizational level means. This is consistent with theoretical concepts in which the executive level serves a much broader base in meeting organization and employee needs, shareholder needs, owner needs, community needs, regulatory needs, and moral expectations. The operation level had the lowest mean attribution (3.43). Pragmatically the operation level serves only the organization and its constituents. The supervisor level (3.53) and the middle manager level (3.55) both fell between the executive and operation levels.

The courage to serve behavior is demonstrated uniquely at the executive level when executives serve the needs of the stakeholders through strategies of organizational profitability and longevity, community service, and moral responsibility. These same strategies serve the other organizational levels as the strategies ultimately provide continuing employment for all levels and provide the foundation for the conduct of work. People at the middle managers level serve the executive level in providing process status, and process development as well as resource planning and development. Simultaneously, the middle managers serve the supervisor by proactively serving what is described as the organizational commons as do all the levels. In addition, middle managers who serve will provide an appropriate buffer for the executive level against exercises of trivial pursuit regardless of source. Supervisors who serve provide the same function on a more pragmatic perspective. The operation level serves by completing tasks effectively and efficiently while simultaneously initiating and contributing to improvement needs proactively but on a limited scale of focus, i.e., production.

Supervisors serve by minimizing production process upsets and maximizing production efficiencies. Supervisors implement goals. Middle managers serve by assigning resources, coordinating production schedules and managing information. The idea of contributing directly to goal completion may carry a greater sense of service than coordinating resources but in reality represents a much narrower focus.

Executives tend to be well served by dedicated support staff. Middle managers, therefore, may see few opportunities or little need to perform routine acts of service. By contrast, middle managers tend to have less support staff and hence there exists a greater need and more opportunity for supervisors to serve their middle managers.

The behavior *courage to leave* χ^2 statistic, 8.258, is indicative of a statistically significant difference between two or more of the organizational levels for this behavior (asymptotic significance, 0.0401). With the exception of the supervisor level, the executive level differed from the other levels. The executive level mean rating (4.00) was higher than all other organizational level means. This may be indicative of a stronger moral/ethical support base for the executive level's should separation be a consideration. The operation level had the lowest mean attribution (3.64). The supervisor level (3.79) and the middle manager level (3.69) both fell between the executive and operation levels.

For the behavior *courage to challenge*, the χ^2 statistic indicates no statistically significant difference between two or more of the organizational levels for this behavior. The executive level mean rating (3.94) was higher than all other organizational level means. The executive level has overall responsibility for competitive strategies necessary to attain and maintain organizational profitability and longevity; therefore, the executive level is wont to challenge the organization as a whole towards peak performance. For the most part, the remaining levels challenge themselves and the levels below with a corresponding decrease in the breadth and depth, need, and opportunity to challenge. Simultaneously, as courageous followers, each level will challenge the levels above and below to performance excellence. The operation level had the lowest mean attribution (3.76). The supervisor (3.79) and middle manager (3.78) levels means fell between the executive and operation levels.

Supervisors often times see their job as one of challenging others, particularly their direct reports. According to Likert [24], middle manager act as linking pins between the levels by translating the executive level's strategies and policies into programs and processes throughout the organization. They see their role as a coordination function. The executive level is wont to challenge themselves and the all reporting levels, middle managers, supervisor, and operation, to follow the common vision.

For the behavior *courage to participate in transformation*, the χ^2 statistic, 2.349, indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the organizational levels for this behavior (asymptotic significance 0.503). In other words, though the means are not mathematically equivalent—executive level mean rating, 3.67; middle manager level mean rating, 3.78, supervisor level mean rating, 3.78 and the operation level mean rating, 3.68—the means are not statistically different.

The behavior courage to participate in transformation as defined by Chaleff has two components, personal transformation and organizational transformation. The nature of personal transformation could be universally apparent across the organizational levels; therefore, level is a non-discriminating, independent variable. That is, there is widespread agreement across all respondents of the need for courage to participate in personal transformation. Likewise, the nature of organizational transformation may be so invasive and may be so needed in all organizations participating in the research that organizational level is an indiscriminate variable.

Conclusions

Given the results described above, the following conclusions are proffered:

Follower behaviors exist within organizations. Using TFP, the research indicates that a participant from the sample of engineering and technology workers credits himself or herself with at least a moderate level of courageous follower behaviors. Participants consistently rated themselves as demonstrating each of the follower behaviors.

The executive level possesses the most evidence of follower behaviors. Support is provided for Roe's [25] contention that successful leadership implies a conceptual understanding and acknowledgement of followership. Roe states that leaders must know when, and how, to lead and when, and how, to follow. While it may be unreasonable to claim that executives achieve their position because of their followership skills, it appears that higher followership competency is part of the executive's skill base. The evidence that the middle manager, supervisor and operation levels have lower attributions of followership behaviors may be indicative of conditions that support promotion of skilled followers to the higher organization level. As promotions occur, followers are pulled from the lower organizational levels for the sake of leadership. This pattern lends credence to the graduate-follower concept of leadership [33]. Alternatively, since it is recognized that leadership itself is highly situational, it may also support the thought that the middle manager, supervisor, and operation levels do not afford situational opportunities for demonstrating followership to the extent the executive level does; therefore, attributions are lower for those lower levels.

The operation level possesses the least evidence of follower behaviors. The study indicates significantly lower attributions of followership at the lowest level of the organization. At the risk of over-simplification, the lower levels of an organization include those with limited desire or limited, or undeveloped, skills. Those with limited desire may be a group who prefer to remain in a less challenging role in order to maintain social relations, i.e., social affiliations. The undeveloped group may contain new hires whose talents for followership may need nurturing. This group would represent the next generation of organizational followers and, therefore, would represent the group from which emerges the next generation of leaders. The undeveloped skills group should be identifiable among those found in lower organizational levels as those possessing greater-than-required followership skills in a peer-ranking process, though it is commonly recognized that follower behaviors are extra-role behaviors within an organization [8]. The term extra-role refers to actions not required in a job description, the minimum performance requirements.

Leaders are also followers. As described above, this study found evidence that attributions of certain follower behaviors differ by organizational level, and that higher attributions are correlated with higher organizational levels for the population sample studied. In essence, this conclusion states that there is support for organizational leaders being good followers; that is where the higher organization levels are popularly described as organizational leader levels, leaders are also followers.

The ambiguous nature of the work at higher organizational levels results in efforts to nurture homogeneity in beliefs [26]. The similarity of beliefs among executives would likely seem to lead to similarity in attributions of follower behaviors. Therefore in this study, the behaviors associated with courageous followership are prominent at higher levels more-so than at lower levels; alluding to the behaviors being less salient at lower organizational levels.

The research represents initial steps in examining Chaleff's theoretical construct. Additional studies have been recognized leading to refinements in the survey instrument or at least in understanding the instrument's validity and reliability. In addition, other related research opportunities are emerging in the form of questions such as: how do the results compare in low tech organizations? How do role perceptions influence follower behaviors? What about tenure and length of leader-follower relationship? Opportunities for examining these and other questions are on-going opportunities.

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Biography

GENE DIXON is a faculty member at ECU having joined in August 2005 following positions with Union Carbide, CB&I, DuPont, WSRC, CBS, Viacom and Washington Group. He received a Ph.D. in EM from UAH, an MBA from NSU and a BS Engineering from Auburn. Dixon was an invited panelist for the 16th Annual Kravis-de Roulet Leadership conference. Dr. Dixon's research interests include leadership, followership, teams, and culture.

Appendix A
Development of The Followership Profile

To reduce single source bias during item creation, two developer-reviewers with dissimilar backgrounds (a knowledge worker and a liberal arts instructor) independently reviewed a full text description of Chaleff's courageous followership theory and developed testable items. The items were then collaboratively refined into a draft form. The draft form was back-checked by Chaleff to verify consistency with theory. A modified group elicitation method [27] was established to further content validation. A focus group representing a diversity of business professions (medical, academia, psychiatry, theology, military, law enforcement, and engineering) reviewed a condensed version of the theory as self-paced, preparatory training before collaboratively developing testable items for each of behavior. The results were compiled and then reviewed by the focus group members to verify the accuracy.

To develop a test instrument, results from the developer-reviewer process were compared to results from the modified group elicitation process. The comparison yielded 56 questions, The Followership Profile [23] initial form. The TFP had a minimum five questions per scale; the TFP's number of survey questions per scale demonstrated substantive meaningfulness, i.e., the behaviors are covered in proportion to theoretical discussion [28].

A criterion validity estimate was measured by correlating scores from TFP with scores from a separate alternate form instrument [29], a Self-assessment Textual Instrument (SaTI). The SaTI was developed as a parenthetical text description of each of the five follower behaviors and a self-rating scale. After completing a TFP for content validation, a pilot group of 41 engineers in a government contracting organization individually completed a SaTI. The Pearson-Product Moment correlation coefficient between TFP and the SaTI scores was calculated to be 0.739 for the pilot (N=41). The Spearman Rank Coefficient, or Spearman's Rho, was calculated to be 0.697.

For the 56 items comprising TFP, the calculation of the Cronbach's alpha measurement yielded an internal consistency coefficient of 0.956. The split-half, or Spearman-Brown, reliability coefficient for TFP instrument was 0.936. The Guttman Split-half coefficient for TFP was determined to be 0.934. Inter-scale reliability estimates will be estimated when additional data has been collected.

A measure of temporal stability was developed based on limited test-retest data from 42 random respondents who supplied retest data. The time between test and retest was three months or more. The test-retest data was analyzed using matched pair, t-test methodology. The results indicated no significant difference in the test-retest paired data for each of the follower behaviors.

To assess social desirability bias 144 matched *self-other* pairs were collected, i.e., 144 respondents also provided others' assessments of themselves. While most of the pairs represent single self-other pairings, some *self-* multiple *other* pairs were present in the data set. The *self-other* correlation values were low, the highest being 0.107 on a scale of -1 to 1 for any behavior indicating social desirability may be influencing self-assessments. As Nunnally and Bernstein

[29] point out however, *self-other* studies have little bearing on reliability estimates of internal consistency. Further studies are required to examine the influence of social desirability and TFP.

Content adequacy was estimated using a seven column matrix design and judge panel [330]. None of the judges were known to have a detailed knowledge of courageous follower theory. The judge panel data was analyzed first with a review of the raw judge panel data for trends and patterns. The combined mean judge panel assessments were then subjected to a Q-factor analysis [27] using principal component analysis (PCA) and varimax methods. The Q-factor analysis provided evidence that the judge panel found the provided behavior definitions sufficient.

The judge panel data was then subjected to an R-correlation factor analysis. A criterion level of $\geq |0.40|$ was used in interpreting factor loadings [28]. Principle component factor analysis was applied to the R-correlation matrix and 5 factors–accounting for 50.46% of the variance–were extracted as shown in Table A1.

Instrument item candidates for elimination were selected by identifying the maximum differences between the judge panel's highest behavior total raw score and the second highest behavior raw score. The judge panel data was re-evaluated using both Q and R-correlation factor analysis on the reduced item set. Five factors were extracted for both analyses using principle component analysis and varimax rotation. The five factors from Q analysis accounted for 100% of the variance with initial eigenvalues of 15.51, 7.09, 6.13, 5.14, and 2.13. The 5 factors from the R analysis accounted for 57.29% of the total variance with initial eigenvalues of 8.10, 3.83, 3.54, 3.16, and 2.01. Additionally, the Q and R analysis resulted in equivalent item to factor loadings, i.e., the same items loaded onto the same factor for both the Q and R processes.

A theoretical domain pure model was then constructed by deleting all items with multiple loadings and all items lacking alignment with the dominant theoretical domain from the reduced item set. Q and R-correlation factor analyses were repeated on the remaining 20 items from TFP by extracting five factors with loadings greater than or equal to |0.40|. Initial eigenvalues for the five factors under the Q method were 8.93, 4.18, 4.13, 2.33 and 1.43. Initial eigenvalues for the five factors under the R method were 4.72, 2.86, 2.37, 1.75, and 1.49 and accounted for 62.79% of the total variance. The varimax rotated factor loadings are listed in Table A2.

For comparative purposes, Cronbach's alpha estimates were calculated on the resulting theoretical domain pure model. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient estimate was 0.868 and well within Nunnally and Bernstein's [29] threshold of 0.7. The Spearman-Brown split-half coefficient estimate was 0.855 and the Guttman split-half coefficient was 0.853. The executive level Cronbach's alpha estimate was found to be 0.822. The middle manager level was 0.841. The supervisor level was 0.916. The operation level was 0.862. Inter-scale correlations will be examined in future studies.

Table A1 R-Correlation Factor Analysis Factor Loadings.

		Rotated Factor Loadings				
TFP #	Theoretical Domain	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
1	Transformation				0.717	
2	Leave	0.748				
3	Assume responsibility	0.664				
4	Challenge					
5	Transformation				0.653	
6	Transformation				0.674	
7	Assume responsibility	0.465	0.461			
8	Leave			0.569		
9	Leave					0.690
10	Serve		0.522			
11	Assume responsibility	0.785				0.445
12	Leave					0.613
13	Leave				0.746	
14	Assume responsibility		0.810			
15	Serve		0.527			
16	Challenge	0.670				
17	Assume responsibility					0.731
18	Leave		0.546			
19	Serve				0.766	
20	Leave	0.496				
21	Assume responsibility				0.832	
22	Transformation	0.637				
23	Assume responsibility		0.774			
24	Serve		0.413			
25	Serve			0.613		
26	Assume responsibility			0.604		
27	Serve		0.764			
28	Assume responsibility				0.450	
29	Serve		0.760			
30	Transformation			0.698		
31	Serve		0.588			
32	Assume responsibility			0.662		
33	Challenge			0.789		
34	Assume responsibility			0.454	0.541	
35	Assume responsibility	0.638				
36	Assume responsibility	0.754				
37	Leave	0.431	0.525			
38	Leave			0.633		
39	Assume responsibility			0.766		
40	Challenge			0.686		
41	Assume responsibility	0.580				
42	Challenge		0.571			
43	Leave	0.761				
44	Assume responsibility			0.517		
45	Assume responsibility	0.446	0.484			
46	Assume responsibility	0.664				
47	Serve		0.452		0.445	
48	Leave	0.548				
49	Leave					0.750
50	Assume responsibility	0.507				
51	Assume responsibility					
52	Challenge	0.434				
53	Challenge		0.522			
54	Serve		0.567			
55	Transformation		0.491			
56	Transformation				0.436	

The content adequacy process is an assessment of theoretical relationships among the survey items and not an attempt to draw conclusions about empirical relationships within the survey participants. The unidimensionality of the theoretical domain pure model was assessed by analyzing the matched paired t-tests for each combination of the behaviors using the full complement of data (N = 263). The results are provided in Table A3. Unidimensionality held for all behavior pairs excepting *courage to serve/courage to challenge* and *courage to serve/courage to leave*. Even though these two pairs violate the unidimensionality requirement, confirmatory factor analysis proceeded under the assumption that unidimensionality occurred for all pairs.

Table A2 Factor Loadings for Theoretical Domain Pure Model.

TFP #	Theoretical Domain	Q/R Factor 1	Q/R Factor 2	Q/R Factor 3	Q/R Factor 4	Q/R Factor 5
1	Transformation			0.942/0.747		
3	Assume responsibility	0.944/0.739				
5	Transformation			0.966/.0772		
6	Transformation			0.956/0.735		
9	Leave				0.977/779	
11	Assume responsibility	0.958/0.814				
15	Serve		0.995/.0838			
17	Assume responsibility	0.955/0.689				
18	Leave				0.918/0.787	
22	Transformation			0.9870.836		
24	Serve		0.983/0.819			
27	Serve		0.969/0.851			
29	Serve		0.988/0.844			
31	Serve		0.905/0.619			
33	Challenge					0.951/0.824
35	Assume responsibility	0.936/0.626				
36	Assume responsibility	0.987/0.820				
40	Challenge					0.930/0.788
41	Assume responsibility	0.925/0.686				
49	Leave				0.924/0.760	

Table A3 Measures of Unidimensionality.

Behavior Pairs	**T test**	**Significance**
Assume responsibility - Serve	13.265	<0.001
Assume responsibility - Challenge	9.528	<0.001
Assume responsibility - Participate in transformation	9.498	<0.001
Assume responsibility – Leave	11.602	<0.001
Serve – Challenge	-1.779	0.076
Serve – Participate in transformation	-5.128	<0.001
Serve – Leave	0.500	0.618
Participate in transformation – Challenge	2.660	0008
Participate in transformation – Leave	5.680	<0.001
Leave – Challenge	-2.046	0.041

From a sample of 363 participants, data from 100 participants were randomly selected for confirmatory factor analysis using the structural equation modeling capabilities of AMOS® 5.0. The initial model for the confirmatory factor set was the reduced items set identified through Q- and R-correlation factor analysis.

Using iterative constraint adapting methods [31], a final model was derived with acceptable fit metrics (χ^2 = 185.613, 166 dF, p = 0.142) as shown in Figure A1. The fitted model falls between the saturated model (perfect fit) and the independence model (terrible fit) yielding a Bentler-Bonet index fit of 0.723. Comparatively, Bollen's incremental fit index (0.961), the Tucker–Lewis coefficient (0.953) and the comparative fit index (0.959) were all indicative of a very good fit [32]. The fitted model is consistent with that derived under Q- and R-factor analysis in terms of item/domain relationships.

The fitted model solution resulted in no negative variance estimates. The goodness of fit indices showed that the model adequately accounted for the sample variances. The solution resulted in hypothesized loadings that were all statistically significant (α =0.05) and relatively substantial with the exception, of one item loading on the behavior *courage to assume responsibility*. Construct reliabilities lower bounds were however somewhat low and thus provided a limited estimate of the convergent reliability of the theoretical domains. The fitted model demonstrated some evidence of discriminant validity in that all follower behavior intercorrelations were less than 1.00 and ranged from 0.339 (*courage to leave/courage to challenge*) to 0.945 (*courage to leave/courage to serve*). Covariance between the theoretical domains averaged 0.224, the highest being 0.323 (*courage to leave/courage to serve).* It should be noted that the CFA process resulted in the courage to challenge scale associated with two test items. While limited, the reduced set is still representative of substantive meaningfulness. Future work will provide closer examination how the item error variances may be correlated as well as comparing item average variance and squared correlations as a further measure of discriminant validity.

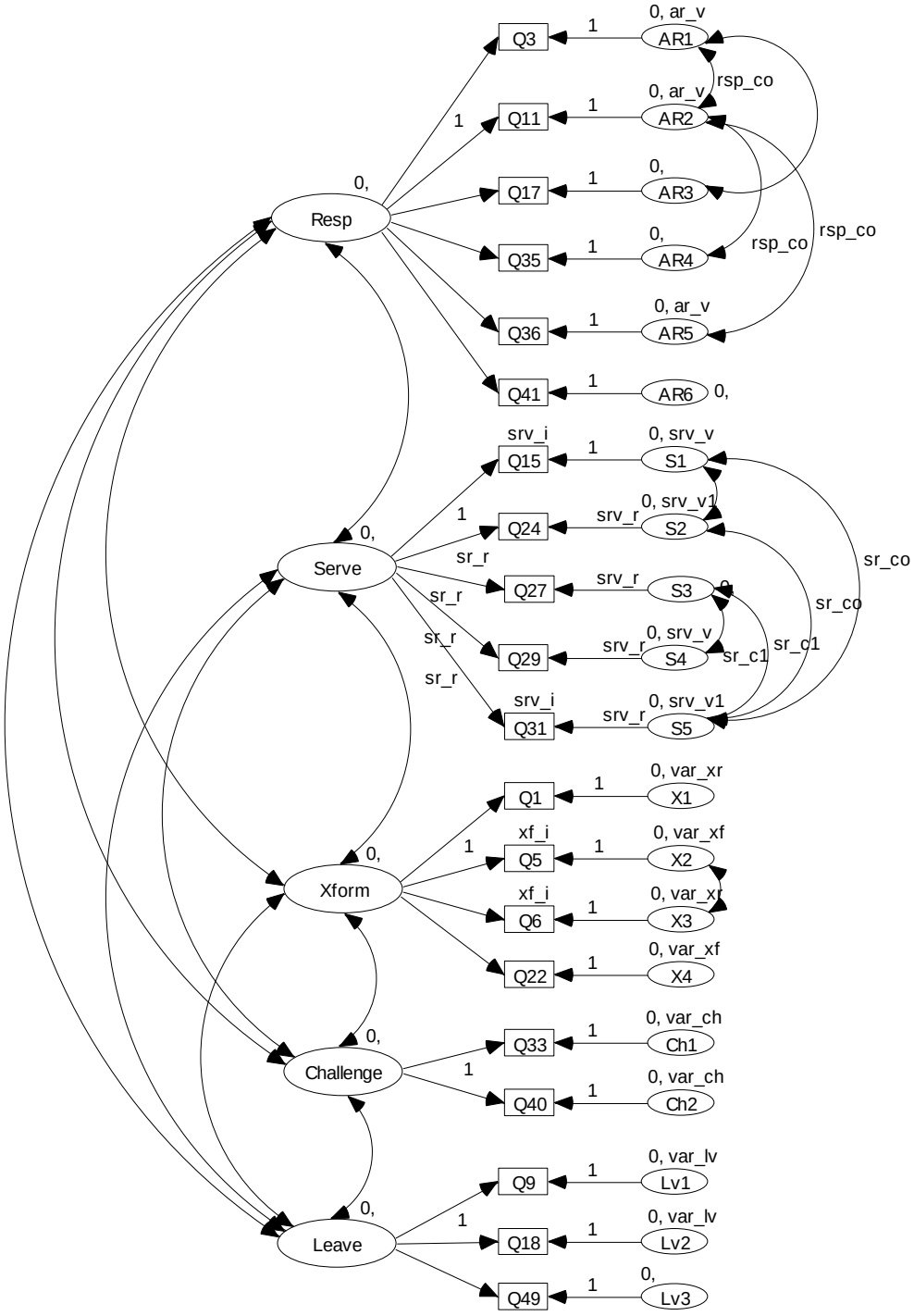

Figure A1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Best Fit Model.