INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

Bell & Howell Information and Learning
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
800-521-0600

UMI®

Downloaded from SHAREOK. Persistent Handle URL: https://hdl.handle.net/11244/5979

UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

FOLLOWERSHIP: LEADERSHIP STYLES

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

In partial fulfillment of the requirement for the

degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

Albert J. Colangelo
Norman, Oklahoma
2000

UMI Number: 9972517

UMI®

UMI Microform 9972517
Copyright 2000 by Bell & Howell Information and Learning Company.
All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against
unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

Bell & Howell Information and Learning Company
300 North Zeeb Road
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

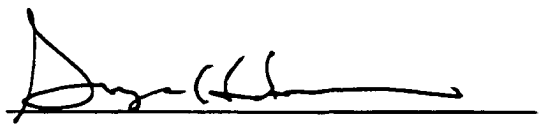
©Copyright by Albert J. Colangelo, 2000
All Rights Reserved.

FOLLOWERSHIP: LEADERSHIP STYLES

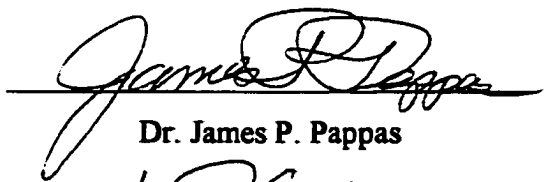
A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE

GRADUATE COLLEGE

BY



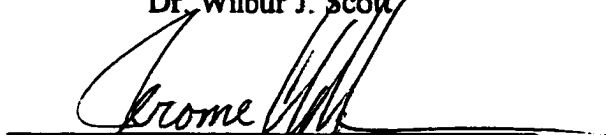
Dr. George Henderson, Committee Chair



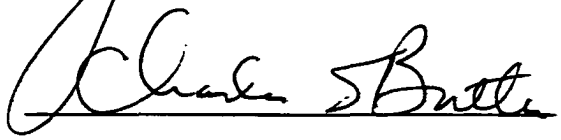
Dr. James P. Pappas



Dr. Wilbur J. Scott



Dr. Jerome C. Weber



Dr. Charles E. Butler

Acknowledgments

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my father, Mario Colangelo, Sr., who left us 11 August 1997. His great appreciation for the value of an education helped inspire me to achieve this educational honor.

Completing a dissertation requires the guidance, support, and encouragement of others. A number of very special people helped see me through this process and they certainly deserve special recognition.

As we know, ideas are never original. I would like to thank Major General John Brooks, U.S. Air Force. During his tenure as the 86th Airlift Wing Commander at Ramstein Air Force Base, Germany, I asked him for his perspective on leadership. Surprisingly, he spoke of followership and advocated for its development and for research to better understand it. At that moment, I knew that followership was my topic of research.

Also, I would like to thank Dr. George Henderson, who served as the Chair for my dissertation committee. There was a period when I doubted my topic of study—I felt the bottom had fallen out of my research. My passion was restored, however, when Dr. Henderson championed its magnitude. Dr. Henderson—I needed that encouragement!

In attaining goals—goals that make people stretch—barriers will be met along the way. I want to give special thanks to Dr. Billy Hunter, who is the Educational Advisor to the Colleges of Enlisted Professional Military Education (CEPME) at Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama. Dr. Hunter was very instrumental in gaining U.S. Air Force approval for

my research. His expeditious assistance helped remove most of the barriers in that process.

Also, I would like to extend my appreciation to another member of my committee, Dr. Wil Scott, who served as my statistician. Dr. Scott demonstrated an incredible ability to offer constructive criticism in a very supportive manner. Talking on a one-to-one basis with a professor regarding statistics is challenging enough for most students; using email makes it even more challenging. However, Dr. Scott facilitated this process well. Most of all, I appreciate his thoroughness in critiquing my work. As a result of his guidance, I became much less intimidated about the thought of analyzing data.

We achieve through interdependency. I would like to thank the members of my cohort group for their support and guidance along this arduous endeavor. The diversity experienced in this group made an invaluable contribution to my development, both professional and personal.

Special thanks are extended to each of the 567 airmen who served as research participants. The time and energy they invested in completing the instruments enabled me to learn more about the art of followership.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge the loving support of my wife, Cathy. In the pursuit of a doctoral degree, high levels of dedication and persistence demand time and energy. Her patience and understanding have helped me through this process. Cathy—we go together like a wink and a smile.

"A man [or woman] works for his predecessors through the desire that what he has done may be embellished by another who shall come after him"—this Egyptian teaching expresses what I have done and hope others will do as well.

Table of Contents

List of Tables ix

Abstract x

Introduction 1

Definitions of Terms 2

Leadership Style 2

Followership 4

Military Background of The Study 4

Significance of The Study 7

Statement of The Problem 9

Purpose of The Study 9

Research Questions 10

Limitations of The Study 11

Review of The Literature 12

Historical Background of The Problem 12

Change In Management Style 14

The Favored Democratic Style 17

The Follower 18

The Relationship 28

Followers Evaluate And Experience Leadership 30

Leadership Style Impact 32

Other Theories 34

Social Exchange Theory 34

Operant Conditioning Model 35

Theory X and Theory Y 36

Summary 38

Methodology 40

Participants 40

Procedure 40

Instrumentation 41

Hypotheses 43

Data Analysis 44

Findings ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

New Dimensions of Followership 46

Definitions of The New Followership Components 49

Followership Redefined 51

Demographic Characteristics of The Sample 51

Personal Data 52

Immediate Supervisor Data 55

Organizational Data 58

Hypotheses 60

Scheffe's Test of Differences Between Leadership Styles 62

Democratic Leadership Style 62

Autocratic Leadership Style 65

Laissez-Faire Leadership Style 66

Multivariate Test of Differences Between Followership Sub-Scales 67

Summary....73

Conclusions, Discussion, and Implications....75

The Impact of The Autocratic Leadership Style....77

The Impact of The Democratic Leadership Style....79

The Impact of The Laissez-Faire Leadership Style....81

Discussion....82

Limitations of The Study....87

Implications....88

Recommendations For Future Research....90

Appendix A....101

Section 1: Consent Form....102

Section 2: Survey Packet....103

Section 3: Kelley's (1992) Followership Questionnaire Slightly Modified....106

List of Tables

Table 1 Patterns of Subordinacy 22

Table 2 Alienated Characteristics 24

Table 3 Conformist Characteristics 25

Table 4 Pragmatist Characteristics 26

Table 5 Passive Characteristics 27

Table 6 Exemplary Characteristics 28

Table 7 Initial Factor Analysis of Kelley's (1992) Followership Questions 47

Table 8 Factor Analysis of Kelley's (1992) Followership Questions 48

Table 9 New Grouped Followership Questions 50

Table 10 Analysis of Variance of Followership Subscales by Leadership Style 62

Table 11 Multiple Comparisons Test of Independent Variable—Leadership Style 64

Table 12 Means of Followership Subscales Grouped According to Leadership Style 65

Table 13 Analysis of Co-variance of Active Engagement by Leadership Style, Controlling for Personal, Supervisory, and Organizational Factors 68

Table 14 Analysis of Co-variance of Critical Thinking by Leadership Style, Controlling for Personal, Supervisory, and Organizational Factors 70

Table 15 Analysis of Co-variance of Passion by Leadership Style, Controlling for Personal, Supervisory, and Organizational Factors 71

Table 16 Analysis of Co-variance of Team Mindedness by Leadership Style, Controlling for Personal, Supervisory, and Organizational Factors 72

Abstract

This study investigated the relation of immediate supervisor's leadership style to followership among a sample of 567 United States Air Force enlisted members attending airman leadership school, a professional military education program, at three different locations in Europe. Participants completed Kelley's (1992) followership survey, which measured followership, and the LEAD Other questionnaire taken from Hersey's (1993) Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability (LEAD) instrument, which determined the leadership style of the participants' immediate supervisors. Personal, supervisory, and organizational information was also gathered from the participants. The data were analyzed by analysis of variance (ANOVA), analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), and Scheffe's post hoc comparisons test.

The prediction was that participants' supervisors' leadership styles would be significantly related to all dimensions of followership measured by the followership survey. As determined by factor analysis of responses to the survey, these dimensions were (1) active engagement, (2) critical, independent thinking, (3) passion, and (4) team mindedness. Results showed that supervisor's leadership style was not significantly related to followership on all four dimensions. However, it was significantly correlated to three dimensions of followership—active engagement, passion, and team mindedness—with participants who had democratic supervisors scoring significantly higher on these three dimensions than those with autocratic or laissez-faire supervisors. Analysis of covariance showed that leadership style was confounded with other variables and that trust, job satisfaction, and commitment were instead causally related to followership.

The findings suggest that the democratic leadership style, which is high in both task and relationship behaviors, may better foster the followership dimensions of active engagement, passion, and team mindedness than either the autocratic or laissez-faire styles by producing better levels of trust, job satisfaction, and commitment. The findings have practical implications for both public and private organizations that seek to promote leadership styles that contribute most to improving the individual performance of subordinates.

CHAPTER I

Introduction

As the 21st century begins, there has been a national trend away from the traditional autocratic and hierarchical modes of leadership. Within many American companies, a renewed interest in employee participation is being fueled by the introduction of contemporary managerial strategies such as total quality management (Lindsay, Curtis, and Manning, 1989). This shift is toward leadership styles that attempt to foster the optimum development and utilization of each employee through teamwork, workplace initiatives, personal involvement in decision making, and ethical behavior (Spears, 1995).

Through teams and corporate re-engineering activities, day-to-day leadership has become more participatory. Kelley (1992) reported three interesting observations about leaders and followers: (1) leaders contribute on the average no more than 20 percent to the success of most organizations, (2) followers are critical to the remaining 80 percent; and (3) most employees, whatever their title or salary, spend more time working as followers than as leaders. Simply stated, 70 % to 90 % of the working day is spent in a followership role reporting to someone else.

Most individuals know their leadership style, but how many know their followership style? The leadership role is given the focus in college courses and

---

Note: The views expressed in this research report are those of the researcher and do not necessarily reflect the official policy or position of the Air University, the United States Air Force, or the Department of Defense.

organization training programs. Interestingly, it is likely that leaders do not want to be the only ones leading. Their most frequent complaint is that they would like other members of their staff to assume more responsibility for the organization's initiatives (Chaleff, 1995).

These considerations point toward the need to understand the role of the follower, not just that of the leader, in the leader-follower relationship. Block (1993) gave the following caution:

> To put it bluntly, strong leadership does not have within itself the capacity to create the fundamental changes our organizations require. It is not the fault of the people in these positions, it is the fault of the way we all have framed the role. Our search for strong leadership in others expresses a desire for others [while in the followership role] to assume the ownership and responsibility for our group, our organization, our society. (p. 13)

Block argued for what he calls "stewardship," the process in which followers are summoned to serve their organizations and be accountable to them. However, there is a paucity of research pertaining to the art of followership and the leadership literature offers no models for followership development.

Definitions of Terms

Leadership style.

Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a social influence process whereby one person exerts intentional influence over other people in order to carry out specific activities or relationships (Yukl, 1994). Leadership style and behavior describe how leaders respond to their subordinates (Einhorn, 1986). For the

purpose of this study, it is important to emphasize that it is not how leaders see themselves that matters, but how they come across to others they are attempting to influence. It is the followers' perceptions, not the leaders', that will affect the followers' behavior (Hersey, 1984). Hersey defined leadership style as the patterns of behavior (words and actions) of the leader as perceived by others. Leadership style in this study is considered in the context of how the leader appears in the eyes of the beholder.

The recognition of task and relationship as two critical dimensions of a leader's behavior has been an important part of management research since the mid-1950s. Hersey and Blanchard (1969), using a situational model, identified four basic leadership behavior styles: (1) high task and low relationship (telling); (2) high task and high relationship (selling); (3) high relationship and low task (participating), and (4) low relationship and low task (delegating). Task behavior is the extent to which a leader engages in one-way communication by explaining what the follower is to do as well as when and how to accomplish tasks. Relationship behavior is the extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behavior (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

Task behavior and relationship behavior have been assigned labels ranging from "autocratic" to "democratic," from "employee-oriented" to "production-oriented" (Yukl, 1994). For the purpose of this study, subordinates' perceptions of their immediate supervisor's leadership style are categorized as (1) autocratic (high task and low relationship behavior), (2) democratic (high relationship and low task behavior, or high task and high relationship behavior), or (3) laissez-faire (low task and relationship behavior). Both high task and low relationship and high task and high relationship

behavior have been combined in the democratic leadership style category because they share high relationship as a common variable.

Followership.

The term "follower" often has negative connotations associated with it. As a result, the term "followership" may also have such connotations. However, it is part of the basis of the present study that there is no inherent negative connotation to the idea of being a follower or to followership. On the contrary, a good follower can be a boon to an organization, and followership is a quality that should generally be considered in a positive light.

Drawing from the work of Kelley (1992), the researcher initially defined a follower as one who is not in a leadership role while performing on the two dimensions of (1) independent, critical thinking and (2) active engagement in the organization's critical activities that aim toward achievement of organizational goals. Subsequent factor analysis of the study's results enabled identification of two further followership dimensions: passion for the job and team mindedness.

Military Background of the Study

Many military organizations embrace the "great person" ideal; that is, a single person can lead an organization to success. This "hero" leadership myth relieves others in the organization from sharing the responsibilities of success and failure (Kelley, 1992). Based on the great person concept, when a military organization fails, blame is given to an ineffective leader or the absence of a leader. The message is clear: military leaders have ultimate responsibility for their organizations. At the same time, researchers have studied leadership styles and leadership traits. Notwithstanding, organizations need

employees who communicate their ideas and provide honest feedback so that managers and supervisors can better direct and lead the organization (Baek, 1989).

Eric W. Benken, former Chief Master Sergeant of the Air Force, who was the adviser to the secretary and chief of staff of the U.S. Air Force on matters concerning welfare, effective utilization, and progress of enlisted members in the Air Force, stated that he believed there were three things critical to the Air Force: (1) fundamental discipline, (2) high standards, and (3) followership:

> You need to learn how to be a good follower, to be a part of a team as well as be a good leader. And a follower is someone who accepts the fact that if the team succeeds they were part of the success, if it fails, they were part of the failure. (Benken, 1996). (p.1)

Accordingly, there is a growing concern and need for good followership in today's United States Air Force.

Perhaps the most promising trend in thinking about leadership is the growing conviction that the purposes of the group are best served when leaders help followers to develop their own job skills, use critical thinking, and otherwise become better contributors (Gardner, 1990). This addition to research foci is gaining momentum as the art of followership is beginning to be recognized as equally important as leadership in unlocking the untapped potential of organizations and workers (Lundin & Lancaster, 1990).

In a changing society filled with uncertainties, Mueller (1984) purported that a "free-form" organizational style would most likely survive in this type of environment and characterized it as a type of organization having (1) organizational fluidity, (2) the

center of gravity of the professional or economic cutting edge placed in a core group of individuals, (3) a climate of encouragement of individual priority-setting needs with an increasing degree of freedom in such choices, (4) more employee mobility occurring between institutions as a more acceptable way of life, (5) peer systems of management with minimum hierarchical structure which requires a more collegial style rather than directive style, (6) an increase in service and software activity as opposed to fixed assets and hardware, (7) a raised consciousness of the concept of "intellectual property" to help further world development via science, innovation, and entrepreneurship, (8) an entrepreneurial climate fostered by incentives to encourage innovation, (9) increased controlled security systems where a need-to-know basis will be strictly adhered to, and (10) an unusual degree of freedom and encouragement among its leaders, professional staff, and administrative managers so that they can extend their perspectives. These ten traits raise awareness of the necessity of good followership in future Air Force organizations.

Throughout the Air Force careers of airmen, the College of Enlisted Professional Military Education offers extensive leadership training, but very little training in followership. In addition, military leaders can turn to a large body of literature for leadership guidance; however, followers, who contribute much to military organizational success, have few references and training courses for good followership skills—skills which move beyond technical "how-to-do-it" skills. Consequently, this situation partially contributes to limited job-related skills and poor work habits for many employees (Kelley, 1992). According to Benken (1996), today's airmen need to work hard, work smart, and understand that being successful is based on a lot of "little things":

> It's the little things that have to do with professionalism. It's looking your best everyday, doing your best everyday, and it's going to work with the attitude of 'What can I do to improve not only myself personally, but what can I do to improve my unit?' (p. 2)

Researchers have tried to conceptualize factors necessary to motivate followers to work smarter, faster, and independently (Bolman & Deal, 1991; Chaleff, 1995; Kelly, 1992; Yukl, 1994). The only factor common across all the leadership studies is that every successful leader had a vision (Yukl, 1994). Perhaps researchers are looking in the wrong direction. Kelley (1992) told the story of a drunk who lost his house keys during a midnight pub crawl. This drunk searched on his hands and knees under a lamppost, and after awhile, he moved to the next lamppost and continued his search. A passerby asked if he dropped his keys near a lamppost. The drunk replied, "No." "Then why are you searching under lampposts?" the passerby queried. The drunk responded, "Because, that's where the light is." Kelley declared, "Society has become so mesmerized by the spotlight on leaders that it has grown blind to the possibility that the keys to understanding organizational success lie somewhere in the shadows" (p.13). Good military leadership rests in the hands of good followership.

Significance of the Study

The relationship between leaders and followers is a partnership that, if well balanced, helps result in organizational success. With the move in many organizations to teams and greater employee participation in organizations, and approximately 80 percent of the working day in the followership role, leaders and followers know little about followership. While students of leadership have numerous models to pore over for

guidance and development, very few exist to help model the ideal follower. How can a great job at following be modeled when people know so little about it? If leadership styles affect employee job satisfaction, productivity, and team effectiveness, then it stands to reason that leadership styles affect followership styles. Are leaders producing followers that correspond to their leadership style? For instance, are autocratic, Theory X leaders unknowingly producing compliant followers, while at the same time yearning for followers to take charge and think for themselves?

The art of followership needs to be explored and expounded in all organizational settings so that followers and leaders can begin to understand this important role critical to organizational success. The present study focused on members of the United States Air Force, which is an organization with characteristics different from many others. The Air Force has a hierarchical organizational structure and a culture that involves a caste system where members wear rank on their uniforms and are encouraged to assimilate. This culture is quite different from that generally present in private and in many other public organizations, and it is important to understand whatever relation leadership style may have to followership in such an organization.

A study specifically investigating followers' perceptions of organizational leadership styles and the possible impact of those styles on followership development can be useful not only in the Air Force, but throughout both public and private organizations. In the 21st century, all leaders must learn to follow if they are to lead successfully (Smith, 1995) because organizations require balanced performances of both functional and cross-functional excellence built on both individual and team contributions, with individuals serving in both leadership and followership roles. In addition, knowing whether certain

leadership styles contribute to followership, leaders and followers would be better able to make adjustments, if necessary, so that productivity can be increased through the art of followership.

Statement of the Problem

The literature reports that leadership styles impact many variables within an organization. While research findings note that leadership style does influence factors that are involved in the followership role, little research has been done that specifically addresses whether leadership styles affect followership, per se (Challef, 1995; Kelley, 1992).

Specifically, research is needed on the relation of leadership style to various components of followership. Kelley (1992) identified active engagement in the organization's vital tasks and critical, independent thinking as two dimensions of followership. It seems likely that followership also includes other components, such as passion for the job and team mindedness. Research is needed to determine the relation of leadership style to each major component of followership.

Purpose of the Study

This research studied the impact of leadership styles on followership among enlisted Air Force members. There are exhaustive studies throughout the leadership literature on the relationship between leadership styles and their effects on employee job satisfaction, productivity, work environment, gender differences, and team development; however, research must extend onward to examine the relationship between leadership style and followership development.

This relation between leadership style and followership is a key to getting the most out of an organization's people, which in turn is a key to organizational success. The purpose of this research was to enable the Air Force and other organizations to better understand whatever relations may exist between leadership style and the various components of followership to enable them to make more informed decisions in this important area.

Research Questions

There were several research questions addressed in this study. These were as follow.

1. Are the leadership styles of their immediate supervisors related to followership for airmen who serve in the United States Air Forces in Europe (USAFE) Command?
2. Do those with democratic supervisors score significantly higher than both those with autocratic and those with laissez-faire supervisors on the various dimensions of followership among airmen who serve in the USAFE Command?
3. Do those with autocratic supervisors score significantly higher than those with laissez-faire supervisors and significantly lower than those with democratic supervisors on the various dimensions of followership among airmen serving in the USAFE Command?
4. Do those with laissez-faire supervisors score significantly lower than both those with democratic supervisors and those with autocratic supervisors on the various dimensions of followership among airmen serving in the USAFE Command?

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of this research should be noted. First, although the data for this study were collected from three of the five airman leadership schools throughout Europe, including in the United Kingdom, the sample only represented one of nine major commands within the United States Air Force. Consequently, the geographical area was limited to just the European theatre, which restricts the generalizability of the results.

Second, the researcher did not control for variables such as personality, organizational structure, or work environment in this study. These variables might in themselves be significantly related to followership but they were not examined.

Third, this study was done in the context of a military organization, whose rigid hierarchical structure and culture are substantially different from those in many other organizations. Consequently, care must be taken in generalizing study results to nonmilitary contexts.

Chapter II

Review of the Literature

Early leadership studies focused on the qualities, behaviors, and decision-making styles of leaders. This traditional approach attempted to explain leadership on the basis of an individual's characteristics, intelligence, dominance, task orientation, or need for power (Krug, 1993); or else through traits, behavior, situations, and power (Yukl, 1994). For instance, the trait theory postulated that others could emulate certain traits gleaned from successful leaders so that they could produce the same results. However, according to Kelley (1992), people who possess this aggregation of traits do not exist; and simply to model leaders' traits will not yield the same results that others have achieved.

Overall, the study of personal characteristics was useful in understanding what leaders did and why they did it. There was a major problem with the approach, however, which was that it failed to explain the relationship between leaders and followers. Though the traits and behavior approaches specified leadership as the possession of an individual holding a position, they failed to consider the importance of group members.

Historical Background of the Problem

Failing to explain leadership with the trait theory, researchers began to recognize that among the valuable components of leadership were leaders' relations to their followers. Placing leaders on a continuum according to the degree of their involvement with work- and people-related issues enabled the autocratic and democratic leadership styles to be differentiated (Lewin & Lippit, 1938). Research conducted at The University of Michigan (Likert, 1961; Tannenbaum, 1966) led to classification of leadership styles in terms of whether leaders were employee-centered or production-centered. Production-

centered leaders were defined as those who focus on organizing tasks and on specifying how the tasks are to be accomplished and setting precise work standards. Employee-centered leaders were understood as those who involve their subordinates in making workplace decisions and setting goals.

Overlooking the terminology used in the various leadership taxonomies, the concept of autocratic and democratic leadership styles is implicit in virtually all of them. The degree to which a leader focuses on organizational tasks or employee maintenance places the leadership style in either an autocratic or democratic dichotomy. Eagly and Johnson (1990) stated, "The skill in interpersonal interaction may naturally lead to a management style that is democratic and participative, whereas leaders lacking in interpersonal skills would be more likely to behave in an autocratic or a directive manner" (p. 148).

Traditionally, it has often been assumed that followers need to be managed. In recent years, however, management scholars and consultants have criticized autocratic hierarchical and bureaucratic forms of managing for the problems they can cause and the demoralizing effect they can have on employees (Elshtain, 1981; Heller & Van Till, 1986; Naisbitt, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). It is now understood that most people are both leaders and followers as they move in and out of each role (Kelly, 1992). It is also understood that followers can be considered collaborators in organizational efforts. Greenleaf (1982) advocated a group-oriented approach to analysis and decision-making as a way of strengthening institutions and improving society. His thesis was that true leaders must first serve others—hence servant leadership—and that this simple fact is central to the leader's greatness.

Along the same lines, leaders and followers must together work to cultivate what Senge (1990) called a "learning organization," where both followers and leaders learn what the needed elements of success are while working together in an interactive process that involves five disciplines: personal mastery, shared vision, mental models, team learning, and system thinking. In relation to such interactive work environments, Smith (1995) said,

> Viewed as a blended whole, this "both/and" performance agenda demands both/and organizing approaches. Today, the people in an effective organization must both think and do, both manage others and manage themselves, both make decisions and do real work. They must figure out the best way both to divide up labor and to reintegrate it. And they must do so in a manner that ensures the advantages of both fixed routine and flexibility. Finally, they all must know when to hold themselves both individually and mutually accountable for results. (p. 201)

Recognizing the importance of followership as the flipside of leadership has taken on a growing importance in developing successful organizations. A great need exists to cultivate the neglected art of followership (Wills, 1994). The futures of competing organizations are in demand for great followership.

Change in Management Style

Organizations are transforming into intelligent network systems with leadership residing more in the network than in any one single individual. Today's emphasis on the sharing of responsibility within groups—whether they are called "alliances," "ensembles," or "teams" in the leadership literature—is a fundamental change in the way

leadership is conceived and exercised in organizations and institutions. Nowadays, leadership is shared more within and between levels and may have far greater potential and substantially less risk as a consequence of being embedded in networks versus any one individual's office. With flatter organizational hierarchies, virtual information, enhanced autonomy, a more rapid pace of change, and much greater need for interdependencies, the question needing to be addressed is whether leadership systems have changed to accommodate these dramatic transformations (Avolio, 1996).

Theorists and researchers conclude that to be effective, a leader's behavior should match the given circumstances. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) called for a situational leadership model that matches four leadership styles (telling, selling, participating, and delegating) to the maturity level (competence and commitment) of followers. Zierden (1984) identified four aspects of a leadership situation. The first of these is the nature of the people being managed. The more experienced the worker, the more committed to organizational goals; and the more competent the worker, the less guidance required. The second aspect is characteristics of the work itself, whether structured or open-ended. For open-ended, complex, ambiguous work, workers need skills that require creativity and flexibility. The third aspect is the relationship between manager and employees and the relationship among the employees. The degrees of trust and good feelings between the leader and followers and among the followers contribute to the amount of participation toward organizational goals. If trust and good feeling are minimal, the leader may resort to coercion and control in order to make things happen. The fourth aspect is the manager's personality and preferred management style.

These situational circumstances require that the leader have adaptability skills. However, not all leaders possess such skills, as Zierden (1984) recognized:

> Most contingency approaches assume that managers can alter their behavior at will. But managers are influenced by their personalities, their own ingrained patterns of rigidity and flexibility. And they are also influenced by their past, successful managerial behaviors that may have served them well. (p. 145)

The need to just supervise and give orders to subordinates has become an outdated managerial practice. The old traditional leadership styles no longer match the requirements in today's organizations. Instead, management today provides services to subordinates, forms cross-functional teams, shapes strategy, helps clients in the field, and leads cross-departmental and cross-company teams (Kanter, 1989).

According to Drucker (as cited in Harris, 1993), this means that managers "have to learn to manage in situations where [they] don't have command authority, where [they] are neither controlled nor controlling" (p. 115). Furthermore, Conger (as cited in Harris, 1993) states that managers need to learn to manage upward and sideways in addition to managing downward. In addition, the way followers are perceived by their leaders and the way leaders are perceived by their followers can have a profound effect on productivity and efficiency (McGregor, 1960).

By embracing empowerment, some managers incorporate strategies that range from increased worker participation in decisions which surrounded their immediate job tasks (job content) up to and including full self-management of both job content and job context (Ford & Fottler, 1995). Although there are many possible forms of empowerment, all essentially involve the passing of some degree of responsibility from

those traditionally called "leaders" to those traditionally called "followers." In a very real sense, full empowerment distributes leadership throughout the organization, although those in different positions will be accountable for different leadership functions (Offermann, 1996).

This new form of responsibility fits a sleeker organization—one built for the speed, flexibility, quality, and service essential for global competition. Leaders must rely on an integrated and consistent system to get work done in an integrative unity (Follett, 1949). They must use order, not control, to accomplish the organization's objectives (Wheatley, 1992). Leaders must shape their organizations through concepts and feelings rather than through rules or structures (Howard, 1995). As for workers, Mohrman and Cohen (1995) pointed out that some may feel uncomfortable with such co-dependency and threatened by the movement from individual to team. They stated that more needs to be understood about these possibilities.

The Favored Democratic Style

In several studies involving preference of leadership styles, subjects of both sexes tended to favor managers who were closer to the ideal of a democratic manager (friendly, helpful, and encouraging participation) over those closer to the ideal of an autocratic manager (directive, controlling, and discouraging or suppressing participation). This inclination became most obvious in those studies where the depiction of autocratic and democratic behavior on the part of managers was clear-cut. For example, Haccoun, Haccoun, and Sallay (1978), in their study of three management styles, found that the subjects preferred the "emotional, friendly" style most and the "directive, authoritarian" style least.

It certainly makes sense that in our society democratic managers would be more favorably viewed and evaluated in the workplace than autocratic managers. In North America, where much of the research cited has taken place, people live in a democratic society, are embedded in democratic institutions, and expect to participate in decisions that may affect them. Since people cannot put away these values simply because they enter into the workplace, it follows that they would tend to positively evaluate democratic managers relative to autocratic managers.

In a comprehensive meta-analysis of 61 experimental studies of gender bias in leadership—studies spanning two decades of research from 1967-1987—Eagly et al. (1992) found that when leaders used a democratic, consensus-building style, subjects rated both male and female leaders equivalently. However, similar to the findings of many experiments, the meta-analysis results also showed that females in leadership roles tend to be devalued relative to men when engaging in an autocratic form of leadership. Although this finding suggests that an interaction between managerial style and the gender of the manager exhibiting such a style may explain how male and female leaders are evaluated, it is also consistent with the notion that leadership style itself may have a strong and meaningful main effect. In other words, there may be a general tendency for people to respond more positively to democratic leaders relative to autocratic leaders irrespective of gender.

The Follower

An effective follower must have a great deal of emotional and spiritual strength. Effective followers are ones who do not need the approval of the leader even though approval may be a strong desire. They are sufficiently confident about their contributions

to the group that they do not worry about loss of favor with the leader if they oppose him or her on an issue. It is the willingness not to follow the leader on every issue that makes for outstanding followers (Chaleff, 1995). The act of following requires a type of discipline that enables individuals to balance personal goals with the goals of the organization so that they can move beyond themselves and make the contributions needed to advance the welfare of their organizations.

Can leadership styles foster this type of follower? Followers trail leaders for many reasons. Kelly (1992) described seven pathways to followership. Some take the (1) apprentice road while they study leadership by being a good follower. The goal of this pathway is skill mastery. The role of the (2) disciple may appeal to some, as they bond with and emulate a leader. This identification allows them to become part of something that they consider bigger, better, and more important than they are individually. The (3) mentee path leads to personal benefits for maturation, not necessarily for leadership alone. On this pathway, the follower attaches to the leader for personal development. Others may be (4) comrades who seek intimacy and social support. This develops when people bond together, seeking the psychological need of belonging so that they transcend their feelings of isolation once they feel part of something. These individuals make great team players. Another path to followership is the (5) loyalist. One who takes this pathway makes a one-to-one emotional commitment, believing that loyalty is an inherent obligation of existence. When a person follows a leader not because of who the leader is, but rather because the leader embodies an idea or a cause that is meaningful to the follower, then this is the path for the (6) dreamer. These individuals are committed to their own personal dreams, with the message being first and the leader second. Finally,

the last pathway is known as the (7) lifeway, for which following is a matter of compatibility between personalities. These individuals may be inherently altruistic, and helping others may be their primary interest. It is doing, not directing, that is the impetus. Whatever the pathway, followers need leaders just as much as leaders need followers.

Neilsen and Gypen (1985) claimed that followers find themselves in a series of self-protecting dilemmas spurred on by organizational hierarchy. The superior tends to manipulate the subordinate while losing sight of the subordinate's feelings and emotions and special abilities. Largely drawing from Erik Erikson's theory of individual development, Neilsen and Gypen (1985) offered the following dilemmas that followers must resolve in dealing with superiors: (1) alliance vs. competition, (2) clarifying expectations vs. second guessing, (3) initiative vs. dependence, (4) competence vs. inferiority, (5) differentiation vs. identification, (6) relating personally vs. relating impersonally, (7) mutual concern vs. self-interest, and (8) integrity vs. denial. They said,

> Subordinates who see their superiors as competitors are unlikely to be candid with them. Those who lack self-confidence will be preoccupied with what the superior wants to hear. Those who are afraid of taking the initiative will not speak with their heart. Those who are inferior will steer the conversation toward trivial issues. Those who rely on their superiors to define their identities will be unable to take consistent positions. Those who insist on maintaining a strictly task-oriented relationship will reject the exercise as out of place in the work setting or will fail to grasp its relevance to the total situation. Those who are self-centered will not listen to the superior's needs, and those who lack integrity will paint pretty

pictures of themselves and place the total burden for change on the powerful superior. (p. 123)

The organization's hierarchy may also set off tensions that are produced internally by the responses produced by subordinacy conflicts (Zaleznik, 1985). These inner tensions are delineated on two polar axes: dominance and submission, and activity and passivity. On the first axis, the potential source of conflict is the balance achieved between the follower's wishes, at one end of the continuum, to control and overpower authority figures and, at the other extreme, to be dominated and controlled by these same figures. On the other axis, followers at one end initiate and intrude into their environment; at the opposite end, they wait for others to initiate action and response to external stimuli. These active-passive modes are usually well-established characteristic traits that reflect the tensions of reward and deprivation, energy expended and gratification realized, and risks which come from frustration and the need to defend against these risks.

Based on these two polar axes, Zaleznik (1985) unraveled the basic dynamics of subordinacy conflicts into four patterns: impulsive, compulsive, masochistic, and withdrawn (see Table 1).

Impulsive subordinates are high on dominance and high in active behavior. The main feature aimed at dominating relationships is rebellion, which in work situations often leads to an inability to hold jobs and to diffuse conflict with superiors. Other forms of rebellion, however, can be more constructive in that they overcome complacency and the status quo, modeling spontaneous and courageous followers. The degree of self-control is the determining factor between constructive and destructive impulsivity. Constructive

rebels know how to use the urge to dominate and act appropriately, while destructive rebels exert no self-control and are dominated by their own fantasies.

Table 1

Patterns of Subordinacy

Patterns of Subordinacy	Dominance (polar-submission)	Activity (polar-passivity)
Impulsive	High	High
Compulsive	High	Low
Masochistic	Low	High
Withdrawn	Low	Low

Compulsive subordinates are high on dominance and low on active behavior. They strive to secure dominance and control, but through passive means of indirect and manipulative attempts at influence. Compulsive types act under the effect of overelaborated thought processes that indicate a powerful conscience and strong guilt feelings. This guilt is connected with the wish to dominate and control authority figures, while hesitation, doubt, and rigidity are connected with the defense against these wishes. Doubt, attitude reversal (ambivalence), hidden aggression, and denial of responsibility are the four qualities or themes of compulsive subordinates.

Subordinates who desire pain and engage in an active attempt to submit to the control and assertiveness of authority figures are known as masochistic subordinates. This type of pattern is explained by Zaleznik (1985) as follows:

> The pattern of subordinacy that seeks to evoke aggression from an authority figure is basically a means of guarding against one's own aggressive tendencies. The individual fears their own aggression and the prospect that, once they begin to

> show aggression, the destructive potential will get beyond control. Instead of hurting others, this individual will hurt himself or herself through provoking others. The aim is self-destructive. (p. 101)

For example, accident-prone employees solicit sympathy and attention from others, inviting control from others and abdicating responsibility. Employees who intentionally perform poorly to endure persecution and shame at the hands of the imagined aggressor, and who flee praise and responsibility constitute another example. Masochistic subordinates seek pleasure in becoming the targets of aggression.

The fourth pattern, withdrawnness, is low on control (submissive) and low on active behavior (passive). It is a form of submission because such subordinates no longer care about the orientation and content of their work, releasing energy sparingly. This kind of withdrawnness through passive submission is in its extreme form a serious human disability that comes about because of lack of trust. The subordinates' lack of trust, interest, and involvement make them insensitive to influence. They will do what they are told, without orientation and interest, contributing little to the creative, innovative process. They appear loyal and compliant, but underneath they are dissatisfied with their careers.

As mentioned in an earlier section, Kelley (1992) delineated five types of followers based on 700 surveys: alienated, conformist, pragmatist, passive, and exemplary. The alienated followers make up 15% to 25% of an organization. These types of followers are capable, but cynical. Somewhere they got turned off and have become hurt and angry. Perhaps unmet expectations, a broken trust, or failure to be recognized caused this, or a company failed to capitalize on their efforts. Whatever the reason, they

tend to want to punish someone for it. Unproductively, emotional energy is channeled into fighting against the parts of the present organization that they dislike rather than into their work or desired future. Hostility is directed toward the "boss" or "system," with the individual lashing out whenever an opportunity presents itself. In short, alienated followers are deeply unhappy about their work situation. See Table 2 for some descriptive characteristics.

Table 2

Alienated Characteristics

Their self-image	Other's perception
• Maverick	• Troublesome, cynical, negative
• Healthy skepticism	• Have chip on shoulder
• Play devil's advocate	• Headstrong & lacking judgment
• Be the organizational conscience	• Not a team player
• Stick up for the little person	• Adversarial to the point of hostile

Comformist followers comprise 20% to 30% of an organization and are known as the "good children." Structure, order, and predictability create the organizational culture of comfort for these followers. They know their place and do not question the social order. They are too eager to take orders, defer to the leader's authority, and yield to the leader's views and judgments, turning over too much thinking to the boss. Consequently, they lose credibility because they do not think for themselves. The task of creating ideas in the face of freedom is overwhelming, making them feel powerless and afraid. To counteract this, they seek escape, turning to anyone who offers to remove the burden of freedom. Most societies encourage conformity and submission to authority at home, school, church, work, and in the military and on sport teams. Domineering leaders,

expressing themselves through charisma or authoritarianism, encourage conformists because they need "yes-people" to feel fulfilled. During stable times, conformists contribute to the wheels of efficiency; however, during changing times, they do not contribute the needed creativity. A summary of characteristics is depicted in Table 3.

Table 3

Conformist Characteristics

Positive attributes viewed as	Feedback from leader/co-workers
• Accepting tasks easily & gladly doing the work • Team players • Trusting and committed to leader & organization • Minimizing conflict • Being nonthreatening to the leader	• Lacking own ideas • Obsequious & self-deprecating • Unwilling to take unpopular position • Averse to conflict; will risk failure • Comprise personal/ family needs to please boss & organization

Twenty-five to thirty-five percent of an organization consists of pragmatist type followers. Pragmatists are mediocre workers who look out for themselves. Required tasks are performed, but the pragmatist seldom ventures beyond them. Simply, commitment is not there. Pragmatists seldom question and critique their leader's decisions, possess a low risk tolerance, and have a "better safe than sorry" mindset. This leads to a preferred feeling of safety in the middle and the use of office politics to increase personal security. Pragmatists often face a dilemma of complacency mixed with anxiety: they are complacent inasmuch as they are on automatic pilot, doing less than they are capable; they are anxious because they do not know whom to trust or to feel safe enough with to let their defenses down. Unfortunately, much of their energy is drained by monitoring the grapevine, building alliances, and protecting their flanks. Sadly, leaders and organizations

often promote this style of followership. However, simply stated, this style works! People keep their jobs, but they do not necessarily get promoted. Table 4 helps delineate some of the characteristics of the pragmatist.

Table 4

Pragmatist Characteristics

Personal view in this style as	Other's interpretation
• Being attuned to the shifting winds of organizational politics	• Playing political games
• Knowing how to work the system to get things done	• Bargaining to max own self-interest
• Keeping things in perspective	• Being averse to risk & prone to cover tracks
• Toeing middle line, keeping organization from going overboard in either direction	• Carry out tasks with middling enthusiasm
• Playing by the rules and regulations	• Being a bureaucrat who adheres to the letter of the rule rather than the spirit

Passive followers only make up 5% to 10% of an organization's workforce. They look to leadership to do their thinking, lack initiative and a sense of responsibility, and require constant direction. Sometimes these followers are referred to as having a "herd instinct," like sheep. Leaders sometimes attribute this type of behavior to the follower's personality, as being lazy, incompetent, unmotivated, or even downright stupid. However, Kelley (1992) suggested that these followers are often ones who simply have not yet developed good followership skills. Leaders who assign all goals, make every decision, and watch over shoulders may find some followers slipping into this passive role. See Table 5 for a summary description of the passive follower.

Table 5

Passive Characteristics

The passive's belief	Boss and co-workers perception
• Rely on the leader's judgement • Take action only when the boss gives instructions • Let people who get paid for it handle the headaches	• Only putting in time, but little else • Do not do your share • Require an inordinate amount of supervision relative to contribution • Follow without considering why

Followers who give leadership their best thinking, thereby complementing the leader's own strength, are known as exemplary. These individuals tend to be actively engaged, critical thinkers who often take initiative independently of the leader and other group members. Exemplary followers are focused and committed, and their talents are applied to the benefit of the organization, even when they are confronted with bureaucratic inanities or nonproductive co-workers. They see clearly how their jobs relate to the bigger picture. Competence is developed in critical path activities, i.e., tasks that are important to the organization. Exemplary followers ask the question, "How can I add value to the company by filling a critical void?" Once committed to an important goal, they put themselves on the critical path toward its accomplishment by attempting to determine the bottom line of the goal, as well as how and by whom it will be measured. Then all the necessary steps are integrated into their daily actions. A summary of characteristics is shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Exemplary Characteristics

Descriptive phrases for exemplary followers		
• "thinking for themselves"	• "their own person"	• "innovative & creative"
• "give constructive criticism"	• "willing to stand up to leader"	• "go above & beyond job"
• "assume ownership"	• "participate actively"	• "self-starters"
• "support team & leader"	• "extremely competent"	• "take initiative"

The Relationship

Korda (1984) emphasized the power of followership in helping to produce effective leaders in the following account:

> Our strength makes him strong; our determination makes him determined; our courage makes him a hero; he is, in the final analysis, the symbol of the best in us, shaped by our spirit and will. And when these qualities are lacking in us, we can't produce him; and even with all our skill at image building, we can't fake him. He is, after all, merely the sum of us. (p. 63)

Success is directly associated not only with good leadership, but rather also with good followership awaiting leadership. If the leader takes his or her followers to the goal, to great achievements, it is because the followers were capable of that kind of response. If followers are strong, then strong leaders are redundant. If followers have their own dreams and are self-motivated, then inspirational leaders are unnecessary. In addition, if followers can figure out for themselves where, how, and why, then "visionaries" become less important, because without the dependent follower, the leader sits idly or postures comically on an empty stage (Kelley, 1992).

This process called leadership, whether good or bad, very much depends on the relationship between leader and follower (Hollander, 1984). The two exist in a dialectic relationship where they both depend on each other for existence. Chaleff (1995) claimed, "The mark of a great leader is the development and growth of followers: The mark of a great follower is the growth of leaders" (p. 30). Without followers there are no leaders. Without leaders there are no organizations. Both the leader and the follower revolve around the organizational purpose just as the teacher and student form around a body of knowledge (Chaleff, 1995). When people in both roles of leader and follower turn in top performances, then the greatest organizational successes occur (Kelley, 1992).

The follower role has gained new attention and with it, an increased responsibility. The nature of the psychological contract has changed, with contracts tending to place increasing responsibility on individuals to develop themselves and see themselves more proactive as independent contractors rather than indentured servants (Rousseau, 1995). These changing work contracts put leader-follower relationships in a totally new light, and they encourage a shift from employee dependence on formal leaders as authority structures to employee empowerment as organizationally coordinated independent contributors.

Today's leaders must begin to cultivate this independent, self-directed attitude found in the art of followership. The ultimate test of leadership is the quality of the followers (Kelley, 1992). According to Bass (1990), future research must use "more sophisticated evaluations of the interactional processes of leaders, not only with subordinates, but also with peers [and] superiors" (p. 880). Consequently, the relationship

between leadership style and followership is one of these "interactive processes" to be evaluated by the researcher.

Followers Evaluate and Experience Leadership

Leaders do not function alone, but operate in a context in which they are involved with other people. Therefore, their authority requires a legitimate basis via appointment, election, or follower support, and their legitimacy is related to the followers' perceptions of the leader (Hollander, 1984). Chester Barnard's acceptance theory of authority (as cited in Hollander, 1978) stated that the follower has a pivotal role in judging whether an order is authoritative, insofar as (1) he or she understands it, (2) believes it is not inconsistent with organizational or personal goals, (3) has the ability to comply with it, and (4) sees more rewards than costs in complying and remaining with the organization or group.

With the ground of authority in the followers' granting or withholding obedience, leaders are constrained to lead in ways construed by followers to be consistent with the goals of the organization. The leader then must also "follow" the goals as understood by those under him or her. Bennis (1989) acknowledged that leaders' goals must be synchronized with the needs and aspirations of their followers, and they must know, understand, and permit themselves to be influenced by the people they presume to lead; otherwise, their plans will be subverted. Litzinger and Schaefer (1984) claimed that the school of leadership is followership, a followership that is fully preserved within leadership, but is transformed for having moved beyond itself. The true leader cannot just have been an average follower, but rather a follower in the fullest sense because the leader is more a follower than the follower. In short, a leader must be the paragon of followership. The leader follows, though he or she is a step ahead; therefore, followers

hold power over the leader since they judge whether the leader leads or conducts them to their goal (Korda, 1984). Because of this acceptance of authority, mastery of followership is even more important in the leader than the follower (Korda). Followers will determine if a leader will be accepted and effective (Kelley, 1992).

Moreover, researchers have questioned whether any evidence on the magnitude of the effects of leadership even exists. According to Pfeffer (1984), surprisingly little evidence could be found. He argued that there are at least three reasons why there might be small observable effects of leaders on organizations. First, leaders are normally selected into the leader position, so perhaps only limited styles of behavior are chosen. Second, leaders are embedded in a social system which constrains behavior, and this begs the question of who is leading: the social system or the leader. Third, leaders can only impact a few of the many variables that contribute to organizational performance.

In this leader/follower relationship, followers are the ones who experience the actuality of a leader's approach to leadership, and are uniquely able to evaluate it and its effects. A prominent example of the usefulness of this source was shown in a study on "derailment" (McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988) with 400 promising managers who were seen to be on a fast track. Those who failed to reach their expected potential were often found to lack interpersonal skills, especially in relating to subordinates, but to have no deficit in their technical skills. Also, in a survey of 3,400 organizational respondents about qualities, such as being honest, competent, forward looking, and inspiring, that the respondents admired in their leaders, Kouzes and Posner (1987) found the relational realm to be significant. Followers' evaluations of their leaders are among one of the major determining factors of the success or failure of leadership.

Another body of research shows how inattention to these matters can lead to dysfunctional outcomes. For instance, Hogan, Raskin, and Fazzini (1990) found that organizational climate studies from the mid-1950s onward showed 60% to 75% of organizational respondents reporting their immediate supervisor as the worst or most stressful aspect of their job. Such findings highlight the importance of followers as perceivers with expectations of and attributions about leader performance. They also indicate the impact that a leadership style has on an organization. Leadership competency, which is also evaluated by followers, determines the willingness to follow and develop into productive workers. From a 10-year perspective, DeVries (1992) estimated that the base rate for executive incompetence is at least 50%. Similarly, Kelley (1992) concluded from survey results that one out of five bosses had questionable abilities to lead, one in seven leaders was someone that followers viewed as potential role models to emulate, less than half of leaders were able to instill trust in subordinates, and nearly 40% of bosses had ego problems, were threatened by talented subordinates, needed to act superior, and did not share the limelight. Lord and Maher (1991) said that such perceptions are checked against prototypes held by followers and their related expectations of how leaders should perform, i.e., "implicit leadership theories."

Leadership Style Impact

Leadership style can be developed so that it has a favorable impact on groups or followers in terms of satisfaction, group cohesiveness, and determination. For instance, Goodson et al.'s (1989) research indicated that high relationship-democratic leadership styles (high consideration; i.e., selling and participating) were associated consistently with higher levels of employee satisfaction. A telling-autocratic style (low

relationship/high task) typically was associated with undesirable job attitudes (low overall job satisfaction and lower organizational commitment). The delegating-laissez-faire style (low relationship/low task) was associated with the poorest work-specific attitudes (dissatisfaction with supervision and communication).

Poor leaders can create poor followers when they are not as much engaged and involved as they are capable of being (Hollander, 1984). Experimental work is required to determine which leadership style will strengthen or weaken the leadership position for each individual and each encountered circumstance. This relationship between leadership style and group effectiveness was brought out by Mueller (1984):

> Since for managers, the way they relate to their subordinates and direct them at the workplace is in large part a measure of managerial ability and effectiveness, the management style should have a direct bearing on how positively their leadership ability and performance are evaluated. Because ability is often directly inferred from performance, measures of leadership ability and managerial performance should expect to be highly correlated. (p. 330)

Theorists are also well aware of the reciprocality between leader and follower. They realize that "poor" subordinates affect leadership style profoundly (Chaleff, 1995; Hollander, 1978, 1979, 1984, 1992; Kelley, 1992; Korda, 1984). Yet the kind of follower the leader was can have as significant an effect on the way he or she leads as the kinds of followers the leader now commands (Korda, 1984). Does the "right" choice of a leadership pattern presuppose that subordinates must have learned to choose a "right" followership pattern (Korda, 1984)? Is flexibility in the choice of followership style

possible in anything like the way in which flexibility is possible in choosing one's leadership style?

Korda (1984) emphasized the direct relationship between leader and follower styles:

> McGregor's distinction invites concern over which leadership style is best in particular circumstances. Whatever style may be appropriate, however, distinct styles of leadership must elicit distinct styles of followership. Appropriate types of followership will be expected as responses to, and support for, particular styles of leadership. Should we designate a follower's response to autocratic leaders as "X-style followership," or would the nuances of the concept require a separate designation? Whatever the answer, identifying followership styles seems a condition for understanding the kind of follower the leader was, which is crucial for knowing the kind of leader he is now. The most appropriate followership training needed for a specific style of leadership will probably depend on the style of leadership in question. (p. 142)

Other Theories

Social exchange theory.

The social exchange theory emphasizes the interaction of the group leader with group members. Leaders and followers are viewed as bargaining agents, where relative power regulates an exchange process as benefits are issued and received (Hollander, 1979). The leader exchanges resources, such as increased job latitude, influence on decision-making, and open communication, for members' commitment to higher involvement in organizational functioning. As these exchanges take place, two groups

emerge, with the leader categorizing followers as belonging to (a) the cadre or "in-group" or (b) the hired hands or "out-group" (Yukl, 1994). According to Yukl, the leader allows those in the in-group greater latitude, which results in higher performance ratings, lower propensity to quit, more supervisory relationships, and greater job satisfaction. Those in the outgroup are allowed less latitude, which results in poor outcomes.

The life cycle model, which is a subset of the social exchange theory, is presented by Grean and Scandura and Grean and Uhl-Bien (as cited in Yukl, 1994). According to this model, leaders and followers develop mutual commitment as leaders select in-group members during the initial-testing phase to further groom and refine the leader-follower relationships through mutual trust, loyalty, and respect as they progress through the second phase into the third phase of total commitment.

Operant conditioning model.

The operant conditioning model explains the leader-follower relationship process differently, using the concept of positive reinforcement. According to the model, reciprocal processes occur (Gordon, 1991). The leader's behavior prompts behavior by followers. In turn, the followers' responses can reinforce, extinguish, or punish the leader's behavior, thereby shaping the leader. Simultaneously, the followers' behaviors evoke responses in other parts of the organization. These responses can in turn reinforce, extinguish, or punish the followers' behavior, which can lead to organizational consequences such as job training, job redesign, or transfers for leaders or followers.

An example of this model can be seen when a leader engages in goals setting with followers. If the followers accomplish the goals, then the leader will continue joint goal setting. On the other hand, if goals are not accomplished, then the leader will most likely

extinguish future attempts at goal setting. This, in turn, may lead to organizational consequences such as failure, low production, or poor morale. Leaders and followers repeatedly exchange and interact in a series of independent events, thereby repeatedly reinforcing, punishing, or extinguishing given behavior (Davis & Luthans, 1979). Gordon (1991) suggested that on the basis of this model, the following diagnostic questions could be asked:

1. What behavior does the leader prompt in his or her followers?
2. How do the followers respond?
3. Do these followership responses reinforce, punish, or extinguish leader behavior?
4. Have the leader and followers identified the influences within these conditioning processes that may affect followership behaviors?
5. Does the reinforcement by followers of the leader's behavior and vice versa produce the individual behavior?
6. Do the organizational consequences of leadership behaviors reinforce follower behaviors?

Theory X and theory Y.

McGregor (1960), one of the most influential behavioral scientists, suggested that managers generally hold one of two contrasting sets of assumptions about people and that these two dichotomous sets of assumptions influence the manager's leadership behavior. If the leader assumes that subordinates are lazy, indifferent, extrinsically motivated, incapable of self-discipline, uncooperative, and dislike work, then the subordinates are treated accordingly. Conversely, if leaders perceive their subordinates as energetic,

intrinsically motivated, self-controlled, responsibility-seeking, bright, and friendly individuals, then this tends to reciprocate behavior in the same fashion. Consequently, these negative or positive leadership behaviors (based on assumptions) can soon condition subordinates to behave in the expected manner. He called this result a self-fulfilling prophecy.

McGregor (1960, 1967) calls the first of these two dichotomous sets of assumptions "Theory X" and the second "Theory Y" and postulates that autocratic leadership and democratic leadership are induced by Theory X and Theory Y organizational climates, respectively. McGregor's Theory X postulates that most human beings dislike work and that they must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational goals. In short, Theory X leads naturally to an emphasis on the tactics of control—telling people what to do, determining whether they are doing it, and administering rewards and punishments—i.e., management by direction and control. Theory Y, on the other hand, is based on the belief that people really want to do a good job, accept and seek responsibility, and are driven by internal rather than external controls. The preoccupation of Theory Y is on the nature of relationships and with the creation of an environment that encourages commitment to organizational goals and opportunities to maximize initiative, ingenuity, and self-direction in achieving them. A work environment in which the leader exhibits a democratic leadership style and encourages subordinates' autonomy characterizes this type of relationship and work situation.

Gordon (1991) postulates that Theory Y leaders assess both their internal modifiers (e.g., preferred leadership style, motives and limitations, and past experiences) and external modifiers (e.g.,, characteristics of the task, time constraints, organizational norms, structure and climate, past history with the group, economic and legal limits, and degree of stability of the organization) and then chooses a leadership style which may be autocratic depending on the situation. On the other hand, Theory X leaders just have one leadership style: autocratic. They have a limited view of the world and do not consider internal and external modifiers.

Summary

The study of leadership has progressed to the point where followership has gained recognition as having equal, if not greater, moment than leadership. The use of teams and empowerment throughout the organizational hierarchy has challenged both leaders and followers to work as collaborators, not as adversaries. The boss-subordinate mindset needs to be abandoned because it occludes creativity and self-directedness among teams and between members. Leaders and followers must work together as partners within a relationship that accepts differences between and among each other so that the potential in all can be utilized. Leaders need followers to produce excellent work. Followers need leaders to reflect back the organization's vision and to work effectively with them so that they can materialize the work needed for successful productivity (Kelley, 1992).

The role of follower is a difficult one to perform. A true follower does not just obey orders. Instead, a follower is driven by purpose, a purpose that advances both the organization's goals and objectives and the follower's personal needs and desires. This balance is controlled internally by the follower's discipline to subjugate personal for

organizational gains. Followers recognize their own aspirations in the leader's vision. They follow their own vision, which the leader can help intensify by recognizing that the spirit of the activity is within the follower. A follower is interdependent with, not dependent on, the leader (Chaleff, 1995).

In the dynamic, interrelated leader-follower relationship, leadership is just the form, while followership is the substance (Kelley, 1992). The leadership style is the structure which can shape and control the dynamics of followership. In some cases, the leader's behavior can influence a follower to adopt a followership role that may make for a comfortable relationship between leader and follower but that does not necessarily lead the follower to be especially productive. Learned helplessness from a parental leader and isolation caused by stress and frustration are two of the many problems that can result from mismatched leader-follower styles. Leaders cultivate followership through their style of leadership (Kelley, 1992). Since good followership is the requisite for organizational success, both leaders and followers need to recognize that leadership styles influence and shape followership.

Chapter III

Methodology

Participants

The sample consisted of 567 United States Air Force enlisted members who attended Professional Military Education (PME) training at airman leadership schools (ALS) at three locations of the United States Air Forces European (USAFE) Command. The schools were located at Ramstein, Germany (214 respondents), Spangdalem, Germany (151 respondents), and Lakenheath, United Kingdom (202 respondents). Airman leadership schools are aimed at increasing supervisory and managerial skills. Completion of the PME course is a requirement for first-time supervisory positions and mandatory for advancement to the rank of staff sergeant. The participants were senior airmen, many of whom were staff sergeant selects, and had no supervisory experience within the Air Force. They came from a wide range of Air Force career specialties, providing a thoroughly diversified representation of workers.

The participants had to meet several criteria for ALS attendance: (1) a mandatory minimum time-in-service (TIS) of 48 months, (2) one year time-on-station after graduation, (3) no pending court martial trials, and (4) no derogatory behavioral or administrative reasons that would have placed them on a control roster. Once those requirements were met, admission was determined based on the most TIS. However, priority was given to those who were selected for promotion to staff sergeant (grade E5).

Procedure

The researcher obtained approval to conduct the study from the Air Force Personnel Command through the Air University Command. Colleges of Enlisted

Professional Military Education (CEPME) sponsored the research. After Air Force approval, the researcher submitted a written request to all three ALS commanders within the USAFE Command. The research project and data collection procedures were explained to all of the ALS commandants. The researcher administered the survey packets to the leadership schools in Ramstein and Spangdalem Germany, while a colleague administered them at Lakenheath, England.

The survey packets were administered during three consecutive PME classes. The participants were provided with a packet of material that included (1) a consent form, (2) a demographics/ data survey, (3) Kelley's followership survey (see Appendix A), and (4) the LEAD Other questionnaire. The survey packets provided straightforward written instructions, while the researcher and his colleague gave oral instructions during the survey introduction. Student consent forms were kept separate from the survey packets to help assure and to reinforce participants' perception of anonymity. The participants were asked to respond to each question. They were instructed to respond to a question with information that was to the best of their knowledge in the event that they were uncertain of its answer.

Instrumentation

A standard questionnaire and two measurement instruments were used to examine the impact of leadership styles on followership. The measurement instruments were (1) Kelley's (1992) followership survey, from which measurements of the dependent variables were derived, and (2) Hersey's (1993) LEAD Other questionnaire, which was used to clarify the leadership style of each subordinate's immediate supervisor.

Kelley's (1992) followership survey was selected because it was the only instrument available in which to measure followership. The researcher made several unsuccessful attempts to correspond with Kelley regarding the instrument's reliability and validity. Consequently, there is no available data concerning the reliability and validity of Kelley's instrument. Therefore, the researcher performed a factor analysis to validate the instrument.

This followership instrument of Kelley (1992) was originally designed to measure two dimensions of behavior—independent, critical thinking and degree of active engagement in task—that contribute to effective or ineffective followership. The questionnaire used a Likert scale that was slightly modified to avoid possible instrument bias and to align the scale adjectives and their corresponding numerical values with the other Likert scales within the survey packet. Specifically, the word "rarely" was replaced with "never" at scale zero. This change was made because the term "rarely" implies "sometimes," whereas reference to a weight of "zero" implies "nothing" or "never." The numeric scale and the adjectival scale were thus not compatible and could have led to confusion on the part of the respondent. For example, a respondent who wanted to answer "rarely" but who also saw a weight of zero associated with that answer might have decided to instead mark a different answer, one with a weight above zero.

The LEAD Other questionnaire (Hersey, 1993) was purchased from the Center for Leadership Studies. It was designed to measure leadership style from the perspective of the follower and hence, was ideal for this study. The researcher made several attempts, but was unable to acquire its reliability and validity data. However, this instrument has been used over two decades by the Center for Leadership Studies. It was used in this

study to measure, from the perspectives of the respondents, their immediate supervisors' leadership style (autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire). Participants marked each of 12 vignettes according to how they thought their immediate supervisor would respond. The completed surveys were then scored by following Hersey's (1993) LEAD Other Scoring Instrument. Respondents' answers were rated according to what they indicated about their supervisors' degree of task orientation (high or low) and degree of relationship orientation (high or low). This enabled the perceived leadership style of each respondent's immediate supervisor to be determined. Autocratic supervisors were those who rated low in relationship and high on task; democratic supervisors were those who rated high on relationship and either high or low on task; and laissez-faire supervisors were those who rated low on relationship and low on task.

Hypotheses

The study had one major hypothesis and three subhypotheses. The major hypothesis was the following: Supervisors' leadership style is significantly related to followership among United States Air Force senior airmen (E4s) stationed in Europe.

In evaluating the major hypothesis, supervisors' leadership styles (the independent variable) were categorized as autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire, depending on their degrees of task orientation and relationship orientation as determined by their subordinates' responses to Hersey's (1993) LEAD Other Questionnaire. The dependent variable of followership was determined by using Kelly's (1992) followership survey. This instrument was initially thought to measure followership on only two dimensions—active engagement and critical, independent thinking. However, factor analysis showed that two additional dimensions of followership could be determined on

the basis of survey results: passion and team mindedness (see Chapter IV). The major hypothesis was thus evaluated in terms of four dimensions of followership. That is, confirmation of the major hypothesis required that leadership style be shown to be significantly related to all four dimensions of followership measured by the followership survey.

Each of the three subhypotheses focused on one of the leadership styles and compared it to the other two in respect to the followership dimensions. These three subhypotheses were the following.

Subhypothesis 1: Subordinates whose supervisors exhibit a democratic leadership style will rate significantly higher than those with autocratic and laissez-faire supervisors on all dimensions of followership measured by the followership survey.

Subhypothesis 2: Subordinates whose supervisors exhibit an autocratic leadership style will rate significantly higher than those with laissez-faire supervisors, but significantly lower than those with democratic supervisors on all dimensions of followership measured by the followership survey.

Subhypothesis 3: Subordinates whose supervisors exhibit a laissez-faire leadership style will rate significantly lower than those with democratic and autocratic supervisors on all dimensions of followership measured by the followership survey.

Data Analysis

To evaluate the major hypothesis and the three subhypotheses, four statistical procedures were used. First, a factor analysis on the dependent variable scale was performed to determine how many separate dimensions of Kelley's (1992) followership survey existed. If more than two components of followership were found, the appropriate

number-factor solution with Oblimin rotation was employed. Second, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether leadership style was significantly related to each dimension of followership. Third, to test the three subhypotheses, Scheffe's post hoc comparison was performed to compare the three leadership styles in relation to each dimension of followership. Fourth, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was done to further test the relation of leadership style to followership by using personal, supervisory, and organizational variables as covariates. The level of statistical significance chosen for the study was .05.

Chapter IV

Findings

This chapter presents the findings of the data analysis, based on the responses of 567 airmen who were drawn from three airman leadership schools throughout the USAFE command and who each completed a data sheet and two survey instruments: Kelley's (1992) followership survey and Hersey's (1993) LEAD Other questionnaire. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section describes the findings of the factor analysis that was undertaken to determine the followership dimensions measured by the followership survey. The second section provides a detailed description of the demographic characteristics of the sample, along with supervisory and organizational characteristics.

The third and fourth sections examine the findings in relation to the study's hypotheses. The third section details the findings of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and focuses on each of the subhypotheses in light of the results of Scheffe's post hoc comparisons test. The fourth section focuses on the analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) that was used to examine the major hypothesis.

New Dimensions of Followership

Initially, it was thought that Kelly's (1992) followership survey would measure followership on only two dimensions—active engagement and critical, independent thinking. To test whether administration of the survey would allow more than two dimensions to be identified, a factor analysis was done on the responses of all 567 participants to the 20 questions of the survey. This analysis resulted in four eigenvalues greater than one (6.23, 2.17, 1.33, and 1.02), which corresponded to four groups of

Table 7

Initial Factor Analysis of Kelley's (1992) Followership Questions

Factor	Eigenvalue
1	6.237
2	2.179
3	1.333
4	1.025
5	.906
6	.885
7	.780
8	.735
9	.700
10	.659
11	.616
12	.587
13	.544
14	.491
15	.470
16	.421
17	.372
18	.368
19	.356
20	.335

survey questions. After further analysis, which is described below, this finding allowed four followership dimensions to be identified. Table 7 shows the results of the factor analysis.

After the factor analysis, all responses were re-entered as a four-factor solution, and Oblimin with Kaiser normalization was selected. This procedure resulted in the elimination of question 12 because it loaded on components one and four (.42 and .49, respectively).

A new four-factor solution was then performed with 19 questions and an Oblimin rotation. This produced four components of the survey which corresponded to four

subgroups of questions. Component one loaded questions 5-11 with eigenvalues of .59, .54, .73, .55, .59, .47, and .69, respectively; questions 17-20 loaded under component two with eigenvalues of .63, .79, .77, and .58, respectively; component three loaded questions 1-4 with eigenvalues of .74, .77, .71, and .58, respectively; and questions 13-16 loaded eigenvalues of .65, .57, .55, and .71, respectively, comprising component four. See Table 8 for these results.

Table 8

Factor Analysis of Kelley's (1992) Followership Questions

			Loadings for 4-Factor Solution			
Factor	Eigenvalue	Question	Oblique Rotation			
			1	2	3	4
1	5.763	1	-.005	.006	**.746**	-.001
2	2.163	2	-.002	-.001	**.773**	-.003
3	1.295	3	.126	-.002	**.719**	.101
4	1.025	4	.128	-.007	**.589**	.127
5	.901	5	**.597**	.007	.226	-.001
6	.875	6	**.548**	.006	.294	.003
7	.779	7	**.737**	-.003	-.007	-.156
8	.722	8	**.557**	.003	-.131	.337
9	.685	9	**.590**	-.004	.194	.160
10	.646	10	**.473**	.004	.003	.380
11	.612	11	**.692**	.003	.005	.133
12	.587	13	.006	-.100	.113	**.651**
13	.517	14	.200	.104	.002	**.574**
14	.490	15	.009	-.117	.294	**.558**
15	.443	16	-.007	.005	-.007	**.712**
16	.421	17	.133	**.639**	-.008	-.005
17	.371	18	.001	**.790**	.141	-.180
18	.357	19	-.001	**.779**	.001	**.006**
19	.347	20	-.002	**.583**	-.101	.363

Definitions of the new followership components.

Using the pattern matrix produced by the factor analysis described above, the researcher analyzed the groups of questions for each component. Accordingly, four subscales of followership were identified as being measured by the followership survey. These were (1) active engagement, items 5 through 11; (2) critical, independent thinking, items 16 through 19; (3) passion, items 1 through 4; and (4) team mindedness, items 12 through 15. This reflects two new dimensions of followership, passion and team mindedness, not identified by Kelley. "Passion" was defined as a characteristic possessed by individuals whose personal goals were aligned with their organization's goals and who thus possessed enthusiasm—i.e., passion—in their daily work (see items 1 through 4). These items contained the word "enthusiasm" when referring to one's work and perhaps this would be a more neutral label for this variable.

"Team mindedness" was defined as characteristic of followers who helped others achieve organizational tasks. They were individuals whose responses to items 12 through 15 indicated that they shared in their organization's successes and failures.

Table 9

New Grouped Followership Questions

(1)Active Engagement
5. Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most critical for achieving the organization's priority goals?
6. Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?
7. When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the leader?
8. Can the leader give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your deadline with highest-quality work and that you will "fill in the cracks" if need be?
9. Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?
10. When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?
11. Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader's or the organization's goals?
(2) Critical Thinking
17. Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the leader's decision rather than just doing what you are told?
18. When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?
19. Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or the group's standards?
20. Do you assert your views on important issues, even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the leader?
(3) Passion
1. Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?
2. Are your personal work goals aligned with the organization's priority goals?
3. Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?
4. Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your co-workers?
(4) Team Mindedness
13. Do you help out other co-workers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?
14. Do you help the leader or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?
15. Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?
16. Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation?

Note. Questions are taken from Kelley (1992) followership survey.

Followership redefined.

As a result of the new dimensions of followership that were found on analyzing responses to the followership survey, Kelley's (1992) original definition of followership was expanded. The researcher redefined a follower as one who helps obtain organizational goals by exhibiting four characteristics—(1) active engagement in the organization's critical activities; (2) critical, independent thinking; (3) passion, and (4) team mindedness—while not in a leadership role.

In accordance with this redefinition, the major hypothesis was evaluated in terms of four, rather than two dimensions of followership as measured by the followership survey. That is, to show a significant relation between leadership style and followership, it was necessary to show leadership style to be significantly related to all four followership dimensions: (1) active engagement; (2) critical, independent thinking; (3) passion; and (4) team mindedness. Similarly, the subhypotheses were evaluated in terms of four, rather than two dimensions of followership.

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

The sample consisted of 567 airmen, representing three of the five Air Force wing commands that comprise the United States Air Forces in Europe (USAFE), a major Air Force command. A wide range of career fields was represented within and across each Air Force wing. The demographic characteristics of the sample are detailed below, with data divided into three subsections: (1) participant data, (2) immediate supervisory data, and (3) organizational data.

The typical research participant had the following profile: male (79.5 %), 24 years of age (22.6%), Caucasian (66.3 %), some college education but no degree (63%), 74 months (4.2%) total time in military service, 12 months in the current duty position (4.2%), and a desired pay grade upon retiring of E9, chief master sergeant (34.2%). Regarding supervisor-subordinate interaction, the largest percentages of participants worked under a democratic leadership style (63.7%) for male supervisors (89.1 %) for six months (11.3%) with one hour per week of direct contact with their immediate supervisor on a one-to-one supervisory basis (10.6 %). In regard to working relationships and trust of their immediate supervisors, the most frequent responses of participants indicated that they experienced a slightly below excellent relationship (29.3% selected 5) and an excellent trust level of 6 (29.6%) on a scale from 0 (very poor) to 6 (excellent). Typical participants experienced a moderate level of job satisfaction (24%) and a slightly below excellent level of commitment to their organizations. A more detailed description of the personal, supervisory, and organizational data is provided in the following sections.

Personal data.

Research participants provided personal data in eight categories: (1) school, (2) age, (3) gender, (4) race, (5) education level, (6) total number of months in the Air Force, (7) total number of months in current duty position, and (8) desired pay grade at time of retirement. A description of the personal data statistics follows.

The majority of research participants attended professional military education at Ramstein Airman Leadership School, Kapaun Air Station, Germany (37.7 %) while 35.6% attended the ALS at Lakenheath, England, and 26.6% attended the ALS at Spangdahlem, Germany. The most frequently reported age (22.6%) of the 565

participants who marked their age was 24. Twenty-five-year-olds were the second highest group of participants (20.8 %), followed by those who were 26 (16.8 %) and 27 (10.4%). The other participants fell into two groups of 21-23 and 28-35 years of age (9.6% and 19.2%, respectively). In the latter group, each of the ages of 33 and 35 was represented by only one participant (0.2 %). Overall, the age of participants averaged 25.8 years old (SD = 2.2). The biggest percentage of participants were 24 years of age (128 of 565, 22.7%) across all three leadership styles: 23.3% democratic, 18.3% autocratic, and 26.6% laissez-faire.

Within the three airman leadership schools, the number of male airmen exceeded the number of female airmen (n = 566, as one participant did not mark gender). Approximately four-fifths of the participants were male (79.5 %). Grouped according to supervisor's leadership style, males held the highest percentage across all three groups (autocratic 88.9%, democratic 77%, and laissez-faire 75.9 %).

Most participants were Caucasian (66.3%), while African Americans (11.8%) and Hispanics (5.8%) were the second and third most numerous groups, respectively. Interestingly, 9.9% of participants chose "no response" when asked about race. Asian Americans comprised the fourth largest group (3.2%), and Mexican Americans and Native Americans made up the smallest groups (.2% each). Grouped according to supervisor leadership style, Caucasians, as expected, comprised about the same percentage of the total in each of the autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire groups (67.5%, 65.7%, and 67.5%, respectively). African Americans, Hispanics, and Asian Americans each comprised about the same percentage of the total for the autocratic and

democratic groups (11.1% and 13%, 6.3% and 6.4%, and 3.2% and 3.3%, respectively), but not for the laissez-faire group (7.5%, 2.5%, 2.5%, respectively).

Regarding educational level among 566 reporting participants, the highest percentage had some college education (63%), while 25.7% had achieved only a high school diploma. Associate degrees were held by 7.9% of the participants, and 2.5% held baccalaureate degrees. Two participants (0.4%) had masters degrees, while one participant (0.2%) had achieved a graduate equivalency diploma. Grouped according to leadership style of their immediate supervisor, comparable percentages had attended some college without receiving a degree across the autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire groups (63.5%, 63.4%, and 60.8%, respectively).

Among the 566 participants who responded, total months in the Air Force ranged from 38 to 113 months, with an overall mean of 73.4 months (SD = 11.5). The greatest percentage (4.2%) had 74 months, while 3.9% had 76 and 77 months and 3.7% had 78 months TIS. Grouped according to leadership style of their immediate supervisor, there were no major differences in the mean number of months the participants had been in the Air Force (73.5 months for the autocratic group, 73.5 months for the democratic group, and 72.7 months for the laissez-faire group). Under the autocratic leadership style, participants had a minimum of 45 months and a maximum of 105 months in the Air Force. The democratic group had participants with a minimum of 38 months and a maximum of 113 months TIS, and participants who had laissez-faire supervisors had a minimum of 52 months and a maximum of 98 months TIS.

The total time in duty position was widely dispersed (range .50-94 months), with an overall mean time of 33.2 months and a large standard deviation of 23.7. The largest

group of participants (4.2%) had 12 months in their current duty position. The largest group who had autocratic leaders had 12 months time in duty position (4.8%) with an overall mean of 32.3 (SD = 23.8); the largest group with democratic leaders had 12 months time in duty position (4.2%) as well, with an overall mean of 33.8 (SD = 24.3); and the largest groups with laissez-faire leaders had 12 and 17 months time in duty position (3.8% each) with an overall mean of 32 (SD = 21.3).

In regard to pay grade at time of retirement, 34.2% of the participants aspired to the chief master sergeant (CMSGT) E-9 grade, while 23.6% marked the master sergeant (MSGT) E-7 grade, and 16.4% chose the senior master sergeant (SMSGT) E8 grade. Eight and one-half percent of the participants planned to become officers, one participant wanted to become the chief master sergeant of the Air Force, and one did not respond. Grouped according to leadership style of their immediate supervisor, percentages fluctuated somewhat among those who chose the CMSGT (E9) grade across the autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire groups (30.2%, 36.6%, 30.4%, respectively). However, comparable percentages within leadership style chose the MSGT (E7) grade across the autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire groups (23%, 23.5%, and 25.39%, respectively) as well as SMSGT-E8 (17.5%, 16.1%, and 16.5%, respectively).

Immediate supervisor data.

The demographic data collected regarding the participants' immediate supervisors included the supervisor's (1) leadership style, (2) gender, (3) months of total supervision, and (4) average hours per week of one-to-one contact supervision. Other supervisor data obtained focused on (5) the quality of the subordinate-supervisor working relationship and (6) trust level.

The democratic leadership style was most widely experienced (63.7%, n = 361) by the 567 participants. One hundred twenty-six participants (22.2%) worked under the autocratic leadership style, while 80 respondents (14.1%) experienced the laissez-faire leadership style.

Among the participants, 89.1% had male supervisors and 10.9% had female supervisors. Grouped according to leadership style, 92.9% of autocratic leaders, 92.5% of laissez-faire leaders, and 87% of democratic leaders were males. The order was of course reversed for female supervisors, with 13%, 7.5%, and 7.1% of democratic, laissez-faire, and autocratic supervisors, respectively, being females.

Regarding total months of immediate supervision, there was again a wide range (.50 to 54 months, SD = 9.2). The highest percentage of participants (11.3%) had 6 months of immediate supervision by their present supervisor, while the overall mean was 11.8 months. For 9.9% of the participants, their current leader had supervised them for 12 months, and 6.3% had maintained their supervisor-subordinate relationship for 2 or for 3 months. One participant had been supervised for only 15 days, which was the minimum, while 2 had been supervised for a total of 54 months, which was the maximum. The laissez-faire group had the longest mean duration of continuous supervision (a mean of 12.9 months, SD = 10.5), followed closely by the democratic group (a mean of 12.1 months, SD = 9.12), and the autocratic group (a mean of 10.4 months, SD = 8.62). The differences between the groups were not great. This finding may be explained by the fact that generally, job position, rather than supervisor style, dictates the supervisor and subordinate roles and, unless there is a change in the employee's job position within the agency, or a change in employer, the supervisor-subordinate match will remain constant.

In other words, supervisors and subordinates ordinarily do not have a choice in the way they are matched, regardless of the supervisor's style.

The number of hours of supervision (one-to-one contact) per week that subordinates had with their immediate supervisors ranged from 0 (11.1%, the highest category) to 72 hours (0.2%). Within this wide range of times, the data were dispersed. Four participants did not respond (n = 563). In the second and third highest percentages of cases, 10.6% had 1 hour and 10.4% had 2 hours per week of one-to-one contact supervision with their immediate supervisor, while 6.9% had 20 hours, and 6.7 % had 5 hours. The participants had an overall mean of 11.8 hours of one-to-one contact supervision with their immediate supervisors. Grouped according to leadership style, the mean number of hours per week in supervisor-subordinate contact for the autocratic group was 8.6 (SD = 12.2), for the democratic group was 12.5 (SD = 14.4), and for the laissez-faire group was 9.0 (SD = 13.5). As expected, subordinates with democratic supervisors generally received the greatest number of hours of direct supervision among the leadership groups, which may have been due to democratic leadership characteristics. It was somewhat surprising, however, that the mean for the laissez-faire group was greater than that for those with autocratic leaders.

On a scale from 0 to 6 (0 = very poor, 3 = moderate, and 6 = excellent), about a third of the participants had a slightly less than excellent working relationship with their immediate supervisors (29.3 % marked 5.0). The second highest percentage (24.5%) marked 6, indicating that they experienced an excellent working relationship with their supervisors. The overall mean for participants was 4.3 (SD = 1.5), which is about halfway between a moderate and excellent working relationship. Grouped by leadership style, the

largest percentage of those who worked for both autocratic and laissez-faire supervisors experienced a moderate working relationship (26.2% and 30.4%, respectively), while the most frequent percentage (34.6%) of the democratic group experienced, not surprisingly, an excellent working relationship.

On a similar scale of 0 to 6 (0 = not at all, 3 = halfway, and 6 = totally), almost one-third (29.6%) of the participants experienced total trust, while 24.7% experienced slightly less than total trust, and 17.6% indicated that they trusted their supervisors slightly more than halfway by marking 4. Almost two-fifths of the participants with democratic leaders (39.3%) had total trust, while another third (31%) marked 5, indicating that they had slightly less than total trust. However, 24.6% of participants with autocratic leaders and 22.5% of participants with laissez-faire leaders marked 4, which was slightly above the halfway mark on the trust scale. Mean trust levels for the three groups were 3.5 (SD = 1.7), 4.8 (SD = 1.3), and 3.0 (SD = 1.9) for the autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles, respectively.

Organizational data.

The agency data were broken down according to the participants' perceptions of (1) how often their organizations recognized good performance, (2) how much satisfaction they received from the job, and (3) how committed they were to their organizations.

When asked how often their organizations recognized good performance, participants scored a mean of 3.3 (SD = 1.3) on a scale of 0-6 (0 = never, 3 = sometimes, and 6 = always). The highest percentage (34.7%) marked 3, indicating that they felt that their organizations recognized good performance sometimes. The next highest percentage

(23.3%) marked 4, indicating that they perceived their organization as rewarding good performance slightly more than sometimes. The third highest group (14.1%) marked 2, indicating that they felt their organizations recognized good performance slightly less than sometimes. A total of 13.8% of participants marked 5, indicating that they felt that their organizations recognized good performance slightly less than always, while only 4.8% of participants marked 6. Grouped according to leadership style, the mean response of the democratic group to this item was 3.5 (SD = 1.3), while the means of the autocratic and laissez-faire groups were lower (3.0, SD = 1.2; and 2.9, SD = 1.3, respectively). The autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership groups marked a 3 for this item at similar frequencies (36.5%, 33.9%, and 36.3%, respectively).

On the job satisfaction Likert scale (0 = none, 3 = moderate, and 6 = complete), participants scored a mean of 3.6 (SD = 1.5). The highest percentage (24.0%) marked 3, indicating that they received moderate satisfaction from their jobs; 22.9% marked 5, indicating that they received almost complete satisfaction; and 22.2% marked 4, indicating that they experienced slightly more than moderate job satisfaction. Only 8.8% (50 out of 567 participants) received complete job satisfaction, and 2.3% (13 participants) recorded none. Grouped according to supervisor's leadership style, the democratic group experienced, on the average, a little better than moderate job satisfaction (mean = 3.8, SD = 1.5); the autocratic group recorded slightly more than moderate satisfaction (mean = 3.3, SD = 1.4); and the laissez-faire group experienced a moderate degree of satisfaction (mean = 3.1, SD = 1.6). For both the autocratic and laissez-faire groups, moderate job satisfaction was the most frequently registered response (35 of 126 participants, 27.8%; and 21 out of 80, 26.3%, respectively). However, 93 of 361 (25.8%) participants with

democratic leaders marked 5 on the scale, indicating that they experienced slightly less than complete job satisfaction.

In regard to commitment to organization, the mean response was 4.1 (SD = 1.4) on a Likert scale of 0 = not at all, 3 = halfway, and 6 = totally. Twenty-eight percent of the participants (159 out of 567) marked a 5 on the scale, indicating almost total commitment to their organizations; 16.8% (95 participants) marked 6, indicating that they were totally committed; and 24.9% (141) marked 4, indicating that they were more than halfway committed to their organizations. Ten respondents (1.8%) were not at all committed. For those respondents with democratic leaders, the average response indicated more than halfway commitment (mean = 4.31, SD = 1.3); those with autocratic leaders and those with laissez-faire leaders had averages of slightly more than halfway commitment (mean = 3.8, SD = 1.4; and mean = 3.7, SD = 1.7, respectively). For participants with autocratic leaders, the most frequent responses on the commitment to organization scale were 4 and 5, with each of these scores being marked by 27.8% (35 of 126) of the group. The most frequent response (109 of 361, 30.2%) of those in the democratic group was 5 on the Likert scale. For the laissez-faire group, the most frequent response (16 of 80, 20%) was 4, which indicated that these individuals had a level of commitment to their organizations of slightly more than halfway.

Hypotheses

The major hypothesis of this study was that supervisor's leadership style is significantly related to followership among United States Air Force Senior Airmen (E4s) stationed in Europe. For this hypothesis to be confirmed, leadership style had to be shown to be significantly related to each of the four components of followership measured by the

followership survey: (1) active engagement; (2) critical, independent thinking; (3) passion; and (4) team mindedness.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test whether supervisor's leadership style was significantly related at the bi-variate level to all four followership dimensions (see Table 10). The analysis showed that leadership style was not significantly related ($\alpha = .34$) at the bi-variate level to the critical, independent thinking component of the followership survey. Therefore, since supervisor's leadership style was not shown to be significantly related to all four of the dimensions measured by the survey, the major hypothesis was rejected.

It is noteworthy, however, that supervisor's leadership style was found to be statistically significant at the bi-variate level on three of the four followership subscales. Specifically, leadership style was related to each of the dimensions of active engagement, passion, and team mindedness at the .00 level (again, see Table 10).

Table 10

Analysis of Variance of Followership Subscales by Leadership Style(a)

Dependent variable		Type III sum of squares	df	F	Sig.
Active engagement	Between groups	463.250(b)	2	6.462	.002
	Within groups	20215.964	564		
	Total	20679.214	566		
Critical thinking	Between groups	41.132(c)	2	1.075	.342
	Within groups	10788.614	564		
	Total	10829.746	566		
Passion	Between groups	525.443(d)	2	14.189	.000
	Within groups	10443.057	564		
	Total	10968.500	566		
Team mindedness	Between groups	234.388(e)	2	10.780	.000
	Within groups	6131.753	564		
	Total	6366.141	566		

a. Autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership style
b. R squared = .022 (Adjusted R square = .019)
c. R square = .004 (Adjusted R square = .000)
d. R square = .048 (Adjusted R square = .045)
e. R square = .037 (Adjusted R square = .033)

Scheffe's Test of Differences Between Leadership Styles

Democratic leadership style.

Subhypothesis 1 compared the democratic leadership style to the other two leadership styles in regard to their relations to followership. It stated the following: Subordinates whose supervisors exhibit a democratic leadership style will rate

significantly higher than those with autocratic and laissez-faire supervisors on all dimensions of followership measured by the followership survey. These four dimensions were (1) active engagement; (2) critical, independent thinking; (3) passion, and (4) team mindedness.

To test this and the other subhypotheses, Scheffe's procedure was used. This test showed that on the critical, independent thinking component of the followership survey, participants with supervisors who exhibited the democratic leadership style did not score significantly higher than either those with autocratic supervisors ($\alpha = .37$, with a means difference of .64) or those with laissez-faire supervisors ($\alpha = .78$, with a means difference of .38). See Tables 11 and 12. Therefore, subhypothesis 1 was not confirmed for all followership dimensions and was rejected.

Notably, however, the democratic group scored significantly higher on Scheffe's comparisons test than both of the other groups on the other three scales of followership. Participants with democratic leaders scored significantly higher than those with autocratic leaders at the .02, .00, and .02 levels and significantly higher than those with laissez-faire leaders at the .02, .00, and .00 levels on the active engagement, passion, and team mindedness scales, respectively.

Table 11

Multiple Comparisons Test within the Independent Variable—Leadership Style

Multiple Comparisons

Scheffe

Dependent Variable	(I) Leadership style	(J) Leadership style	Sig.
Active engagement	autocratic	democratic	.021
		laissez-faire	.918
	democratic	autocratic	.021
		laissez-faire	.020
	laissez-faire	autocratic	.918
		democratic	.020
Critical thinking	autocratic	democratic	.372
		laissez-faire	.920
	democratic	autocratic	.372
		laissez-faire	.780
	laissez-faire	autocratic	.920
		democratic	.780
Passion	autocratic	democratic	.001
		laissez-faire	.514
	democratic	autocratic	.001
		laissez-faire	.000
	laissez-faire	autocratic	.514
		democratic	.000
Team minded	autocratic	democratic	.019
		laissez-faire	.285
	democratic	autocratic	.019
		laissez-faire	.000
	laissez-faire	autocratic	.285
		democratic	.000

Based on observed means.

Table 12

Means of all the Followership Subscales Grouped According to Leadership Style

	Lead style	Mean	N
Active engagement	Autocratic	29.9405	126
	Democratic	31.6704	361
	Laissez-faire	29.5875	80
Critical thinking	Autocratic	14.5873	126
	Democratic	13.9501	361
	Laissez-faire	14.3313	80
Passion	Autocratic	12.7540	126
	Democratic	14.4321	361
	Laissez-faire	12.0438	80
Team mindedness	Autocratic	17.6349	126
	Democratic	18.6011	361
	Laissez-faire	16.8875	80

Autocratic leadership style.

Subhypothesis 2 compared the autocratic leadership style to the other two leadership styles in regard to their relations to followership. This subhypothesis stated the following: Subordinates whose supervisors exhibit an autocratic leadership style will rate significantly lower than those with democratic supervisors but significantly higher than those with laissez-faire supervisors on all dimensions of followership measured by the followership survey.

This subhypothesis was also tested using Scheffe's procedure. The test showed that participants whose supervisors exhibited an autocratic leadership style did not score significantly higher than those whose supervisors exhibited a laissez-faire style on any of the dimensions of followership. (See Table 11.) Moreover, as already reported in the previous section, those with autocratic supervisors did not score significantly lower than

those with democratic supervisors on the critical, independent thinking component of followership. Because of these results, subhypothesis 2 was rejected.

It should be noted that those with autocratic supervisors scored significantly lower than those with democratic supervisors on the active engagement, passion, and team mindedness components of followership at the .02, .00, and .02 levels, respectively. These results are the same as those reported in the immediately previous section, except from the standpoint of subhypothesis 2's focus on participants whose supervisors exhibited the autocratic leadership style.

Laissez-faire leadership style.

Subhypothesis 3 compared the laissez-faire leadership style to the other two leadership styles in regard to their relations to followership. The hypothesis was as follows: Subordinates whose supervisors exhibit a laissez-faire leadership style will rate significantly lower than those with democratic and autocratic supervisors on all dimensions of followership measured by the followership survey.

Subhypothesis 3 was tested, as were the other two subhypotheses, by using Scheffe's procedure (see Table 11). The test showed that participants with supervisors who exhibited a laissez-faire leadership style did not score significantly lower than those who exhibited an autocratic leadership style on any of the four followership components. Further, the laissez-faire group did not score significantly lower than those with democratic supervisors on the critical, independent thinking dimension of followership. Subhypothesis 3 was therefore rejected.

The laissez-faire group did score significantly lower than those with democratic supervisors on the active engagement, passion, and team mindedness components of

followership at the .02, .00, and .00 levels, respectively. These results are the same as those reported two sections above, except from the standpoint of subhypothesis 3's focus on participants whose supervisors exhibited the laissez-faire leadership style.

Multivariate Test of Differences Between Followership Sub-scales

To further investigate the relation of supervisor's leadership style to followership, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed for each of the followership subscales, with leadership style as the variable of focus and personal, supervisory, and organizational variables as covariates. This analysis was done to determine whether any significant relation that might be found between leadership style and the followership dimensions could be attributed to a causal relationship.

For the first scale of followership—active engagement—the variables of age, education level, job satisfaction, and commitment to the organization scored significance levels of .03, .00, .00, and .00 respectively on the ANCOVA. Details are shown in Table 13.

Table 13

Analysis of Co-variance of Active Engagement by Leadership Style, Controlling for Personal, Supervisory, and Organizational Factors

Sources of Variation	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Co-variables (Controls):				
Age	**127.040**	**1**	**4.360**	**.037**
Gender	36.903	1	1.267	.261
Race	34.041	1	1.168	.280
Education level	**384.693**	**1**	**13.203**	**.000**
Total months in Air Force	.008936	1	.000	.986
Total months in duty position	42.687	1	1.465	.227
Pay grade upon retirement	92.159	1	3.163	.076
Supervisor's gender	6.962	1	.239	.625
Total months under supervisor	13.117	1	.450	.503
Hours of weekly supervision	1.263	1	.043	.835
Working relationship with supervisor	.106	1	.004	.952
Trust	70.803	1	2.430	.120
Organization recognizes good performance	3.671	1	.126	.723
Job satisfaction	**418.996**	**1**	**14.381**	**.000**
Commitment	**692.920**	**1**	**23.782**	**.000**
Leadership style	6.583	2	.113	.893
Error	14859.501	510		

Note. The bi-variate relationship between active engagement and leadership style, noted in table 10, disappeared once the control variables are in the model. This showed that leadership style was correlated with the statistically significant co-variables in this table—age, education level, job satisfaction, and commitment.

For the second followership scale—critical, independent thinking—education level and trust had significance levels of .00 and .01, respectively. These results are displayed in Table 14.

For passion—the third followership subscale—total months in duty position (.04), pay grade upon retirement (.01), trust (.02), job satisfaction (.00), and commitment to the organization (.00) all showed statistical significance. Results are shown in Table 15.

For the fourth subscale of followership—team mindedness—total months in the Air Force (.04), total months under current supervisor (.02), job satisfaction (.00), and commitment to organization (.00) all had statistical significance. These results are shown in Table 16.

These results from the ANCOVA show that the variable of supervisor's leadership style is confounded with other independent variables for three of the four followership dimensions. As a result, though supervisor's leadership style is significantly related to the active engagement, passion, and team mindedness components of followership, it cannot be concluded that it is causally related to those components.

Table 14

Analysis of Co-variance of Critical Thinking by Leadership Style, Controlling for Personal, Supervisory, and Organizational Factors

Sources of Variation	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Co-variables (Controls):				
Age	5.091	1	.278	.598
Gender	27.548	1	1.507	.220
Race	65.596	1	3.588	.059
Education level	**125.700**	**1**	**6.875**	**.009**
Total months in Air Force	1.925	1	.105	.746
Total months in duty position	.225	1	.012	.912
Pay grade upon retirement	.593	1	.032	.857
Supervisor's gender	.001757	1	.001	.975
Total months under supervisor	2.908	1	.159	.690
Hours of weekly supervision	65.611	1	3.589	.059
Working relationship with supervisor	65.065	1	3.559	.060
Trust	**100.737**	**1**	**5.510**	**.019**
Organization recognizes good performance	.334	1	.018	.893
Job satisfaction	9.257	1	.506	.477
Commitment	18.608	1	1.018	.314
Leadership style	5.154	2	.141	.869
Error	9324.416	510		

Note. The bi-variate relationship between critical thinking and leadership style was not significant as noted in table 10. This table showed that education level and trust are statistically significant with critical thinking.

Table 15

Analysis of Co-variance of Passion by Leadership Style, Controlling for Personal, Supervisory, and Organizational Factors

Source of Variation	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Co-variables (Controls):				
Age	3.451	1	.339	.560
Gender	1.835	1	.180	.671
Race	.988	1	.097	.755
Education level	4.327	1	.426	.514
Total months in Air Force	13.654	1	1.343	.247
Total months in duty position	**41.324**	**1**	**4.064**	**.044**
Pay grade upon retirement	**66.791**	**1**	**6.568**	**.011**
Supervisor's gender	4.602	1	.452	.501
Total months under supervisor	3.755	1	.369	.544
Hours of weekly supervision	2.543	1	.250	.617
Working relationship with supervisor	26.450	1	2.601	.107
Trust	**50.962**	**1**	**5.011**	**.026**
Organization recognizes good performance	1.378	1	.136	.713
Job satisfaction	**1103.031**	**1**	**108.464**	**.000**
Commitment	**685.065**	**1**	**67.365**	**.000**
Leadership style	20.742	2	1.020	.361
Error	5186.457	510		

Note. The bi-variate relationship between passion and leadership style, noted in table 10, disappeared once the control variables are in the model. This showed that leadership style was correlated with the statistically significant co-variables in this table—total months in duty position, pay grade upon retirement, trust, job satisfaction, commitment.

Table 16

Analysis of Co-variance of Team Mindedness by Leadership Style, Controlling for Personal, Supervisory, and Organizational Factors

Source of Variation	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Co-variables (Controls):				
Age	.06305	1	.007	.935
Gender	11.684	1	1.228	.268
Race	.393	1	.041	.839
Education level	1.029	1	.108	.742
Total months in Air Force	**36.963**	**1**	**3.886**	**.049**
Total months in duty position	8.089	1	.850	.357
Pay grade upon retirement	.141	1	.015	.903
Supervisor's gender	4.212	1	.443	.506
Total months under supervisor	**48.130**	**1**	**5.060**	**.025**
Hours of weekly supervision	1.113	1	.117	.732
Working relationship with supervisor	10.097	1	1.061	.303
Trust	15.502	1	1.630	.202
Organization recognizes good performance	.930	1	.098	.755
Job satisfaction	**68.326**	**1**	**7.183**	**.008**
Commitment	**107.948**	**1**	**11.348**	**.001**
Leadership style	27.147	2	1.427	.241
Error	4851.439	510		

Note. The bi-variate relationship between team mindedness and leadership style, noted in table 10, disappeared once the control variables are in the model. This showed that leadership style was correlated with the statistically significant co-variables in this table—total months in the Air Force, total months under supervisor, job satisfaction, and commitment.

Summary

This chapter provided a description of the personal, supervisory, and organizational characteristics of the sample. It also detailed the research findings in relation to the study's major hypothesis and three subhypotheses.

The major hypothesis was that supervisor's leadership style is significantly related to followership among United States Air Force senior airmen (E4s) stationed in Europe. This hypothesis was tested by analysis of variance and was rejected because leadership style was not found to be significantly related to critical, independent thinking, which was one of the four components of followership measured by the followership survey.

Each of the three subhypotheses focused on one of the leadership styles. Subhypothesis 1 predicted that airmen whose supervisors exhibited a democratic style would score significantly higher on all four dimensions of the followership survey than those whose supervisors exhibited an autocratic or a laissez-faire style. Subhypothesis 2 predicted that airmen whose supervisors exhibited an autocratic style would score, on all four dimensions of the followership survey, significantly lower than those whose supervisors exhibited a democratic style and significantly higher than those whose supervisors exhibited a laissez-faire style. Subhypotheseis 3 predicted that airmen whose supervisors exhibited a laissez-faire style would score significantly lower on all four

dimensions of the followership survey than those whose supervisors exhibited a democratic or an autocratic style. These three subhypotheses were tested by using Scheffe's post hoc procedure. Based on the results of this test, the three subhypotheses were rejected.

Although all of the study's hypotheses were rejected, a notable finding of the investigation was that leadership style significantly contributed to three of the followership components measured by the followership survey: active engagement, passion, and team mindedness. Further, Scheffe's procedure showed that participants with democratic supervisors scored significantly higher than those with autocratic or laissez-faire supervisors on those three dimensions of followership. However, these significant relations could not be attributed to causality since analysis of covariance showed that leadership style did not significantly contribute to followership, once other group variables such as trust, job satisfaction, and commitment were added as controls. However, leadership style may influence trust, job satisfaction, and commitment, acting as an intervening variable. This cross-sectional study, however, did not test for this possibility.

Chapter V

Conclusions, Discussion, and Implications

The primary goal of this research was to examine the relation of supervisor's leadership style to followership among enlisted Air Force airmen stationed in Europe. Originally, it was thought that followership would be measured on only two dimensions. However, it was shown by factor analysis that four components of followership could be identified from the study's administration of Kelly's (1992) followership survey: (1) active engagement; (2) critical, independent thinking; (3) passion; and (4) team mindedness. It was found that leadership style was not significantly related to all four of the followership dimensions. However, at the bi-variate level, leadership style was found to be significantly related to three of the dimensions: active engagement, passion, and team mindedness.

The literature reported that leadership styles are known to affect many variables within organizations, e.g., employee job satisfaction, productivity, work environment, gender differences, and team development. A natural assumption would thus be that perceived leadership style does influence the followership role. However, research has not specifically addressed whether leadership styles affect followership in terms of (1) active engagement; (2) critical, independent thinking; (3) passion; and (4) team mindedness. In fact, very few studies have been performed on the art of followership, with only two books having been published on the subject. Therefore, this study sought to expand the understanding of the relationship between leadership styles and followership.

The relationship between a leader and his or her followers is a partnership that, if well balanced, can help lead to organizational success. Unfortunately, discussion of this

relationship has been skewed, with the emphasis placed on leadership throughout the literature. However, if leadership styles affect employee job satisfaction, productivity, and team effectiveness, then it stands to reason that they affect followership. The purpose of this study was to differentiate and classify the leadership styles of subordinates' immediate supervisors and, subsequently, to examine the impact of particular styles on the dimensions of followership

Two critical dimensions of a leader's behavior frequently cited in the literature are task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behavior. Although task and relationship behaviors are no longer viewed as either/or leadership styles, prior research suggests that the dichotomy can be useful for classifying leadership style. In this study, an adaptation of Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) Situational Leadership Model was used to classify subordinates' perceptions of their immediate supervisor's leadership style into one of three groups: (1) autocratic (low relationship and high task behavior), (2) democratic (high relationship and either high or low task behavior), and (3) laissez-faire (low relationship and low task behavior).

The results of this study showed a relationship between leadership style and followership at the bi-variate level on three of the four subscales of followership; however, this relationship did not hold at the multivariate level. Two possible explanations exist:

(a) Leadership style is correlated with, but not causally connected to, followership. This could occur if airmen were assigned in such a way that the control characteristics were distributed disproportionately into the three leadership

styles. For example, airmen who have higher educational levels may have entered into specialty fields where supervisors were more democratic.

(b) Leadership style may have produced changes in trust, commitment, and job satisfaction, thus acting as an intervening variable. If so, then, the only effect leadership style had on followership was its increased effect in the levels of trust, commitment, and job satisfaction.

Unfortunately, the cross-sectional design does not allow us to determine which of these two conditions occurred; however, speculation as to how the second possibility (b) may have impacted followership is offered in the following sections.

The Impact of the Autocratic Leadership Style

In this study, autocratic leadership style was defined as being high in task behavior and low in relationship behavior. In view of the nature of the mission of the armed services, it was surprising to find that the autocratic leadership style was not the most prevalent among participants' immediate supervisors. Instead, the democratic style prevailed, with the autocratic style being the next most frequent. This finding does not support the belief that individuals who are attracted to serve in the armed services are typically highly task-oriented, though this may be true for certain military career fields, such as special forces and jet piloting.

It was believed that the leadership style of the participants' immediate supervisors would have an impact on the participants' followership development. In particular, it was thought that the autocratic leadership style would somewhat stifle followership development because of its low relationship factor. But it was also thought that because of its high task orientation, it would not stifle followership as much as the laissez-faire

style. Thus it was predicted that participants with supervisors who exhibited the autocratic style would score lower than those whose supervisors exhibited the democratic style (high-relationship/high task) but higher than those whose supervisors exhibited the laissez-faire style (low-relationship/ low task) on all four dimensions of followership.

On the followership subscale of active engagement, participants whose supervisors exhibited an autocratic leadership style reported significantly lower scores than those whose supervisors exhibited the democratic style on Scheffe's post hoc comparisons test, but not significantly higher than the laissez-faire group. However, the differences between the autocratic and laissez-faire scores were in the predicted direction (means of 29.94 and 29.59, respectively).

Scheffe's comparisons test showed participants with autocratic leaders did not score significantly lower than those with democratic or laissez-faire leaders on the second dimension of followership—critical, independent thinking. However, the autocratic group (mean = 14.59) did score slightly higher than the laissez-faire group (mean = 14.15), but only by a small margin.

In regard to passion, the third subscale of followership, participants with autocratic leaders scored significantly lower than those with democratic leaders, but not significantly differently from those with laissez-faire leaders on Scheffe's comparisons test. However, the autocratic group did score slightly higher than the laissez-faire group (mean 12.75 and 12.04, respectively).

On the team mindedness subscale of followership, Scheffe's comparisons test showed that participants with autocratic supervisors scored significantly lower than those with democratic supervisors, as expected. They did not score significantly higher than

those with laissez-faire supervisors, though their scores were somewhat higher (means of 17.63 and 16.89, respectively).

The Impact of the Democratic Leadership Style

The democratic leadership style was defined as involving high task and high relationship behaviors and was expected to be the prevailing leadership style for participants' immediate supervisors. The actual prevalence, 64%, was even higher than expected.

The ability of military leaders to balance both high task and high relationship behaviors is the preferred technique taught and cultivated in the United States Air Force. The adage "Take care of the people, and the people will take care of the mission" summarizes the philosophy underlying this preference. Therefore, the researcher expected participants with democratic leaders to score significantly higher than those with autocratic or laissez-faire leaders on all four followership dimensions: active engagement; critical, independent thinking; passion; and team mindedness.

Kelley (1992) defined active engagement as being actively engaged on the organization's critical path. In regard to this active engagement dimension of followership in the present study, supervisors exhibiting a democratic leadership style scored significantly higher than the other two groups when compared on Scheffe's post hoc comparisons test. This result may be partly due to the fact that democratic leaders tend to be more supportive of employees than leaders whose styles are autocratic or laissez-faire.

On the second followership scale—critical, independent thinking—participants with democratic leaders did not score significantly better than those with autocratic or

laissez-faire leaders on Scheffe's comparisons test. In fact, the mean score of the democratic group (14.0) was lower than for both the autocratic (14.6) and laissez-faire (14.3) groups.

When a follower exhibits energy and enthusiasm which spreads throughout an organization, that person is driven by passion, and this was the third subscale of followership. As predicted, participants with democratic leaders did have significantly higher scores than those with autocratic or laissez-faire leaders on Scheffe's comparisons test. This finding was consistent with previous studies showing that a leadership style that is more considerate and relationship-oriented (e.g., praising good performance, taking personal interest in employees, providing feedback, and listening to subordinates' concerns) is related to high levels of job satisfaction (Dobbin & Zaccaro, 1986; Rowley et al., 1992) as well as greater levels of employee satisfaction with supervisors (Vroom, 1964). Since democratic leaders have a leadership style that is more relationship-oriented than other types of leaders, it seems likely that in general, subordinates with democratic leaders would be less inhibited and more encouraged to show their passion for their jobs than those whose supervisors exhibited leadership styles less relationship oriented.

On the team mindedness scale, subordinates whose supervisors exhibited a democratic leadership style rated significantly higher scores than those with autocratic or laissez-faire supervisors on Scheffe's post hoc comparisons test. This result is in accordance with findings within the literature that a democratic leadership style tends to emphasize qualities such as sharing information, consideration, valuing contribution and diversity, listening, and encouraging others that can be expected to enhance team

mindedness (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Goodson, McGee, & Cashman, 1989; Greenleaf, 1982; Haccoun, Haccoun, & Sallay, 1978; Senge, 1990)

The Impact of the Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

Among the three leadership styles examined, the laissez-faire style represented the smallest group, as only 14% of the research participants described their immediate supervisors' leadership style as laissez-faire. This result was expected, given the military context of the investigation. In this study, the laissez-faire leadership style was defined as one with both low relationship behavior and low task behavior. Laissez-faire behavior is characterized by deliberate abstention from direction or interference, particularly with regard to individual freedom of choice and action. It was suspected that subordinates would prefer some direction from their supervisor as opposed to none, and that subordinates whose supervisors exhibited a laissez-faire leadership style would experience significantly lower scores across the followership dimensions.

As predicted, subordinates whose supervisors exhibited a laissez-faire leadership style reported significantly lower scores than those whose supervisors exhibited the democratic style on the active engagement dimension of followership when these two were compared by Scheffe's post hoc test. This finding supports research that suggests that vision (direction) contributes to the success of many organizations (Bennis & Biederman, 1997). However, the laissez-faire group did not score significantly lower than the autocratic group (mean scores of 29.6 and 30.0, respectively). Though scores were generally in the predicted direction, their difference did not approach significance.

On the critical, independent thinking scale of followership, the laissez-faire leadership style did not score significantly lower than the democratic or autocratic styles. Surprisingly though, the laissez-faire style did rate slightly higher than the democratic style (means of 14.3 and 14.0, respectively). This was the opposite of the researcher's prediction.

On the passion dimension of followership, the laissez-faire group did measure significantly lower on Scheffe's comparisons test than those with democratic leaders, as predicted. However, there was no significant difference between participants with laissez-faire leaders and those with autocratic leaders, though the mean score of the former (12.0) was lower than that for latter (12.8).

Team mindedness was the fourth component of followership. On this scale, participants with laissez-faire leaders scored significantly lower than the participants with democratic leaders on Scheffe's post hoc comparisons test. They did not score significantly lower than participants with autocratic leaders, although the scores were in the predicted direction (16.9 and 17.7, respectively).

Overall, when the three leadership styles were compared by Scheffe's post hoc comparisons test, it was found that on three subscales of followership–active engagement, passion, and team mindedness—participants with democratic leaders scored significantly higher at the .05 level of significance than those with either autocratic or laissez-faire leaders.

Discussion

This study did not show supervisor's leadership style to be significantly related to all dimensions of followership that were measured by administration of Kelley's (1992)

followership survey to 567 United States enlisted personnel stationed in Europe. Specifically, supervisor's leadership style was not found to be significantly related at the bi-variate level to the critical, independent thinking dimension of followership. However, supervisor's leadership style was found to be significantly related, again, at the bi-variate level to three dimensions of followership: active engagement, passion, and team mindedness. Further, Scheffe's post hoc comparisons test showed that participants with democratic supervisors scored significantly higher than those with autocratic or laissez-faire supervisors on those three components of followership.

These results did not necessarily indicate that there is a causal relationship between the independent variable of leadership style and the three dependent followership variables of active engagement, passion, and team mindedness. To determine whether a causal connection could be attributed to these relations, an analysis of covariance was done in which demographic and organizational variables served as covariates to determine whether the variable of leadership style was confounded. Such a procedure amounts to a kind of "purification" of leadership style to determine whether a significant relation between the independent variable and the dependent variable is due purely to the action of the independent variable. For each followership dimension, it was found that one or more of the demographic and organizational variables were also significantly related to the followership dimension. Thus these variables covaried with and confounded leadership style. As a result, it cannot be concluded that the significant relation that was found between supervisor's leadership style and the three followership components of active engagement, passion, and team mindedness can be attributed to a causal effect of leadership style on the followership components.

Numerous theoretical approaches have been applied to the study of leadership style and its effects on subordinate productivity. Among the theories frequently cited in the literature are situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969, 1982, 1988), the transformational and transactional theoretical approaches (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978), McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y (McGregor, 1960), and Yukl's multiple linkage model (Yukl, 1994). Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory was selected to classify the three leadership styles in this study because of its recognition that a leader may exhibit any combination of task- and relationship-oriented behaviors.

The social exchange theory (Hollander, 1979) was also included as part of the theoretical foundation for this study. Based on the findings of Scheffe's post hoc comparisons, the democratic leadership style produced the highest scores on three followership dimensions. This may be partly explained by the social exchange theory's view that democratic leaders tend to exchange resources such as increased job latitude, influence on decision-making, and open communication for members' commitment to higher involvement in organizational function

On the other hand, Goodson et al. (1989) found that a delegating style (low task behavior and low relationship) was associated with the poorest work-specific attitudes (i.e., low satisfaction with supervision and communication). Poor leaders can create poor followers when they are not as much engaged and involved as they are capable of being (Hollander, 1984).

The operant conditioning model was cited in this research as well. Based on this model, leaders and followers repeatedly exchange and interact in a series of independent events, thus repeatedly reinforcing, punishing, or extinguishing given behaviors (Davis &

Luthans, 1979). This could suggest that the democratic leadership style is great followership in disguise and may reproduce itself, as suggested in the research. This notion is consistent with Litzinger's and Schaefer's (1984) claim that the school of leadership is followership, a followership that is fully preserved within leadership, but is transformed for having moved beyond itself.

Interestingly, according to McGregor (1960, 1967), Theory Y leaders assess both their internal modifiers (e.g., preferred leadership style, motives and limitations, and past experiences) and external modifiers (e.g., characteristics of the task, time constraints, organizational norms, structure and climate, past history with group, economic and legal limits, and degree of stability of the organization) and then choose a leadership style which may be autocratic depending on the situation. On the other hand, Theory X leaders just have one leadership style—autocratic—because they have a limited view of the world and do not consider internal and external modifiers (Gordon, 1991).

The high task characteristic was a mutually shared attribute between the democratic and autocratic leadership styles; however, the democratic style has the ability to adapt its autocratic style to the situation. Participants with democratic leaders (high task/ high relationship) scored significantly higher at the bi-variate level on three of the four subscales. Moreover, those with autocratic leaders (high task/low relationship) scored higher than those with laissez-faire leaders (low task/ low relationship), as predicted, though not significantly higher on scheffe's comparisons test at the bi-variate level. This finding indicated that the high relationship characteristic of leadership was important because it separated the democratic from the autocratic leadership style.

Critical, independent thinking was the only subscale of followership for which no significant differences were found among participants with different styles of leaders. This finding suggests that critical, independent thinking was independent of leadership style. No research has investigated this relationship, however, but it is worth noting that the autocratic group scored the highest on this scale, followed by the laissez-faire and democratic groups on scheffe post hoc comparisons test. Autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles share the low relationship characteristic of leadership style, but differ in the task component. One possible explanation for these findings is that task assignments with little support relationship may call upon and thus develop critical, independent thinking among subordinates of autocratic leaders, while the high relationship factor inherent within the democratic style of leadership may thwart cogitation among the subordinates. Without further evidence, however, this suggestion is little more than speculation.

As stated above, the autocratic leadership style did score the highest among the three leadership styles on scheffe's comparisons test, although not significantly, on the critical, independent thinking scale. Mathieu (1990) found that individuals with high achievement needs preferred task-oriented leadership, whereas individuals with low need for achievement preferred relationship-oriented leader behaviors. Mathieu's research was conducted with Army and Navy Reserve Officer Training Corps cadets. The high need for achievement associated with high task leadership may contribute to the development of independent, critical thinking.

Most research studies advocate the democratic leadership style. Consistent with the research, this study found at the bi-variate level that subordinates whose supervisors

engaged in high task behavior and high relationship behaviors experienced significantly higher scores on three of the four dimension of followership: (1) active engagement, (2) passion, and (3) team mindedness when compared to those with supervisors who exhibited different leadership styles. However, on the critical thinking subscale of followership, subordinates whose immediate supervisors were high on task and low on relationship experienced the highest scores, although not significantly, when compared to the other groups on scheffe's post hoc comparisons test.

Limitations of the study.

In Chapter I, several limitations of the study were noted. These included the restriction of the study to participants within a military organization and within a certain geographical area, which affects the generalizability of the results. It also included the fact that some variables that might affect followership were not controlled for in the study.

Four other limitations that should be mentioned became evident once the sample was chosen and the study performed. First, no reliability and validity data was available for Kelley's (1992) followership survey and Hersey (1993) LEAD Other questionnaire. Second, the number of months under supervision for the participants averaged only 6, and a total of 65% of participants had only between 30 days and one year of supervision from their immediate leaders. This limit on supervisory time may have limited the development of the leader-follower relationship among some of the participants and may have affected the leaders' impact on them.

Third, the number of questions used to measure active engagement (7), and especially critical, independent thinking (4), passion (4), and team mindedness (4) were

few. Although the four dimensions were clearly demarcated by factor analysis, additional questions measuring each dimension would have probably made for an even more adequate instrument.

Fourth, a cross-sectional study did not allow the researcher to test whether leadership style acted as an intervening variable. For instance, trust, job satisfaction, and commitment were significantly related to followership at the multi-variate level—a causal relationship. A longitudinal study could have examined whether leadership styles impacted these three variables.

Implications.

Followership is an important concept to continue to study and its measurement is critical. No validity and reliability data was available for Kelley's (1992) followership survey. Therefore, one contribution made by this study is the validation of this followership instrument. As noted previously, Kelley's (1992) followership survey was designed to measure two dimensions of followership, active engagement and critical, independent thinking. Through factor analysis of 567 responses to this survey, two new dimensions were added: passion and team mindedness. Other researchers using Kelley's instrument should be alert to the possibility that Kelley's scale taps four rather than two dimensions.

Kelly (1992) suggested that the answers to greater productivity do not lie in leadership, but in the shadows of followership. Moreover, other research quoted in the Review of Literature suggests that leadership style may impact on followership indirectly. Although the present study did not find that leadership style was significantly related to followership, it did show that trust, commitment, and job satisfaction (in

various combinations) had a causal relationship with followership. More specifically, commitment and job satisfaction measured significantly on three dimensions of followership: active engagement, passion, and team mindedness. And by finding methods to increase these three variables of trust, commitment, and job satisfaction, organizations can produce higher levels of followership. One method may be just leadership style.

When leadership styles as a group were compared on Scheffe's post hoc comparisons test at the bivariate level, participants with democratic leaders scored higher on the (1) active engagement, (2) passion, and (3) team player subscales of followership, suggesting that of the three leadership styles, the democratic style may be the most effective in terms of its relation to followership. Further deduction pointed toward the possibility that the high relationship component of the democratic style seemed to be the contributing factor, given that the high task component was mutually shared between the democratic and autocratic styles. Moreover, previous research has shown that the greater the emphasis supervisors place on relationships, the better the subordinate performance (Leary et al., 1986).

To a certain degree, the research findings reinforced the value of a relational orientation rather than the traditional hierarchical downward-directed leadership influence. As suggested by Skaret and Bruning (1986), the supervisor, recognizing the importance of subordinates' ability to interact with leadership and affect relevant outcomes such as good followership, needs to be aware when leadership style can be functional and when it can be dysfunctional. By providing high levels of task and support, a democratic leader may facilitate higher levels on most dimensions of followership.

Of the four dimensions of followership, only critical, independent thinking did not show any significant differences in scores among the three groups on scheffe's comparisons test. Participants with autocratic supervisors (high task/low relationship) scored on scheffe's comparisons test the highest among the three leadership styles, followed by those with laissez-faire (low task/low relationship) and democratic (high task/high relationship) supervisors. A possible implication is that leaders who provide structured tasks but have minimal relationship with their subordinates may drive subordinates to think through issues for themselves rather than quickly asking for the direction that would be more readily available from leaders who are high in relationship behaviors. According to the operant conditioning model, leaders tend to inculcate behaviors similar to their own in their followers (Gordon, 1991). This suggests that if autocratic leaders tend to be critical, independent thinkers, then they would prompt the exhibition of that trait in their followers. This would help explain the higher score on the critical, independent thinking dimension of followership by participants with autocratic leaders. This suggestion is tenuous, however.

This study has sought to highlight the importance of followership as a correlate of leadership. As a result of this study, United States Air Force leadership may be encouraged to consider training programs designed to develop followership in addition to the leadership training found in the United States Air Force Professional Military Education programs.

Recommendations for Future Research

The research findings reported in this study are encouraging in terms of understanding the relations between leadership style and followership. In fact, this study

was the first of its kind. However, further research is needed in different kinds of organizations to further investigate these relations. The effects of intervening variables that may affect followership and/or the leader-follower relationship, such as dydadic duration, needs achievement, personality, and psychological factors, should also be further explored. The following specific recommendations are made for further research.

1. This study should be repeated at the Noncommissioned Officer (NCO) Academy, which is the second level of professional military education. One significant difference between the first and second levels of PME is that participants who attend the NCO Academy have Air Force supervisory experience, whereas participants in the present investigation were not yet Air Force supervisors. Such a study would also allow the followership instrument to be tested through factor analysis to determine whether the same four dimensions of followership are identified among the participants at the second level of PME.
2. This study should be repeated for the other branches of the United States Armed Forces—the Army, Navy, and Marines—to allow comparisons between the branches. The followership instrument should be examined in each case to determine whether the four dimensions found in the present administration to Air Force personnel remain present for personnel in the other armed services branches.
3. This study should be repeated in the private sector. In that sector, consumers drive organizations and money flows from the cash register to stockholders; whereas in public organizations, money is allocated top-down. Again, a factor analysis of the Kelley's (1992) followership instrument should be done for such studies.

4. Efforts should be made to expand Kelley's (1992) followership instrument to include more questions that are suitable for measuring each of the various followership dimensions.
5. Organizations need critical, independent thinkers to succeed, so critical, independent thinking is an important dimension of followership. Yet this study did not find a significant relationship between this dimension and leadership style. It is thus suggested that further research be done testing for such a relationship, perhaps by using different measures of critical, independent thinking than those used in the present study.
6. Trust, job satisfaction, and commitment were causally related to followership in various combinations. Leadership style was confounded with these variables on three of the four dimensions of followership, so it stands to test whether leadership style was acting as an antecedent variable that may have contributed to higher levels of trust, job satisfaction, and commitment. A longitudinal study is suggested.
7. Transformational leadership is a leadership style worth examining for its relational effect on followership. Bass (as cited in Yukl, 1994) proposed that transformational leadership transforms and motivates followers by 1) making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes, 2) inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization, and 3) activating their higher-order needs as well as their lower-order needs found in the transactional leadership of the social exchange theory. In the researcher's opinion, transformational leadership would naturally affect the subscales of followership. The challenge, however, would be to find participants whose immediate supervisors' leadership style was transformational. Most

transformational leaders are change agents and move onward to other organizations in need of change (Yukl, 1994).

In summary, it is important to conduct research on the relation of leadership style to followership in various contexts and using various measures. Ultimately, this type of research will help in the understanding of what many independent of organizational leadership seek to nurture—exemplary followership.

References

Avolio, B. J. (1996). The great leadership migration to a full range leadership development system. School of Management: Binghamton, NY: State University of New York at Binghamton (Center for Leadership Studies).

Baek, K. T. (1989, July). The quest for power in effective leadership. NCO Academy Correspondence Course 8C, Volume 1, 3-11.

Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. New York: The Free Press.

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

Benken, E. W. (1996) An interview with Chief Master Sergeant of the Air Force, Eric W. Benken on matters affecting today's U.S. Air Force. Eglin Air Force, Florida, website at http://www.eglin.af.mil. Available e-mail: eob@eglin.af.mil.

Bennis, W. (1989). Why leaders can't lead: The unconscious conspiracy continues. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bennis, W., & Biederman, P. W. (1997). Organizing genius: The secrets of creative collaboration. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Block, P. (1993). Stewardship: Choosing service over self-interest. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1991). Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Burns, J. M. (1978). Leadership. New York: Harper & Row.

Chaleff, I. (1995). The courageous follower: Standing up to and for leaders. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Davis, T. R. V & Luthans, F. (1979). Leadership reexamined: A behavioral approach. Academy of Management Review 4, 237-248.

DeVries, D. L. (1992). Executive selection: Advances but no progress. Center for Creative Leadership: Issues and Observations, 12, 1-5.

Dobbins, G. H., & Zaccaro, S. J. (1986). The effects of group cohesion and leader behavior on subordinate satisfaction. Group and Organization studies, 11 (3), 203-219.

Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T (1990). Gender and leadership style: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 108, 233-256.

Eagly, A. H., Makhijani, M. G., & Klonsky, B. G. (1992). Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 111, 3-22.

Einhorn, J. (1986). Leadership in health care and human service organizations. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher.

Elshtain, J. (1981). Public man, private women: Women in social and political thought. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Follett, M. P. (1949). Freedom and co-ordination: Lectures in business organization. London: Management Publications Trust, Ltd

Ford, R. C., & Fottler, M. D. (1995). Empowerment: A matter of degree. Academy of Management Executive, 9, 21-29.

Gardner, J. W. (1990). Strengthening followers. On Leadership. New York: Free Press

Goodson, J. R., McGee, G. W., & Cashman, J. F. (1989). Situational leadership theory: A test of leadership prescriptions. Group and organizational studies, 14(4), 446-461.

Gordon, J. R. (1991). A diagnostic approach to organizational behavior (3rd ed.). New York: Mcgraw-Hill.

Greenleaf, R. K. (1982). Servant as leader. Indianapolis, IN: Greenleaf Center for Servant-leadership.

Haccoun, D. M., Haccoun, R. R., & Sallay, G. (1978). Sex differences in the appropriateness of supervisory styles: A nonmanagement view. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 124-127.

Harris, T. E. (1993). Applied organizational communication: Perspectives, principles, and pragmatics. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Harris, T. G. (1993). The post-capitalist executive: An interview with Peter F. Drucker. Harvard Business Review, 71, 114-122.

Heller, T., & Van Til, J. (1986). Leadership and followership: Some summary propositions. In T. Heller, J. Van Til, & L. A. Zurcher (Eds.), Contemporary studies in applied behavioral science: Vol. 4. Leaders and followers: Challenges for the future (pp. 67-78). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Hersey, P. (1984). The situational leaders. New York: Warner Books.

Hersey, P. (1993). LEAD Other: Leadership style/perception of other. Escondido, CA: Center for Leadership Studies.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1969). Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1982). Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1988). Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources (5th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hogan, R., Raskin, R., & Fazzini, D. (1990). The dark side of charisma. In K. E. Clark & M. B. Clark (Eds.), Measures of leadership (pp. 343-354). West Orange, NJ: Leadership Library of America, Inc.

Hollander, E. P. (1978). Leadership dynamics: A practical guide to effective relationships. New York: Free Press/Macmillan.

Hollander, E. P. (1979). Leadership and social exchange processes. In K. Gergen, M. S. Greenberg, & R. H. Willis (Eds.), Group processes (pp. 103-118). New York: Winston-Wiley.

Hollander, E. P. (1984). What is the crisis of leadership? In W. E. Rosenbach & R. L. Taylor (Eds.), Contemporary issues in leadership (pp. 31-41). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Hollander, E. P. (1992). The essential interdependence of leadership and followership. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 1(2), 71-75.

Howard, A. (1995). Rethinking the psychology of work. In A. Howard (Ed.), The changing nature of work (pp. 513-555). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kanter, R. M. (1989). The new managerial work. Harvard Business Review, 37, 56-64.

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

Korda, M. (1984). How to be a leader. In W. E. Rosenbach & R. L. Taylor (Eds.), Contemporary issues in leadership (pp. 61-63). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1987). The leadership challenge: How to get extraordinary things done in organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Krug, S. E. (1993). Leadership craft and the crafting of school leaders. Phi Delta Kappan, 75(3), 240-244).

Leary, M. R., Robertson, R. B., Barnes, B. D., & Miller, R. S. (1986). Self-presentations of small group leaders: Effects of role requirements and leadership orientation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51(4), 742-748.

Lewin, K., & Lippit R. (1938). An experimental approach to the study of autocracy and democracy: A preliminary note. Sociometry, 1, 292-300.

Likert, R. (1961). New patterns of management. New York: Mcgraw-Hill.

Lindsay, M. L., Curtis, R. K., & Manning, G. E. (1989). A participative management primer. Journal for Quality and Participation, 12, 78-84.

Litzinger W., & Schaefer T. (1984). Leadership through followership. In W. E. Rosenbach & R. L. Taylor (Eds.), Contemporary issues in leadership (pp. 138-143). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (1991). Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions and performance. Boston: Unwin Hyman.

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

Mathieu, J. E. (1990). A test of subordinates' achievement and affiliation needs as moderators of leader path-goal relationships. Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 11 (2), 179-189.

McCall, M. W., Lombardo, M. M., & Morrison, A. M. (1988). The lessons of experience. Massachusetts: Lexington Books.

McGregor, D. (1960). The human side of enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill.

McGregor, D. (1967). The professional manager. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Mohrman, S. A., & Cohen, S. G. (1995). When people get out of the box: New relationships, new systems. In A. Howard (Ed.), The changing nature of work (pp. 365-410). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mueller, R. K. (1984). Leading-edge leadership. In W. E. Rosenbach & R. L. Taylor (Eds.), Contemporary issues in leadership (pp. 326-334). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Naisbitt, J. (1982). Megatrends: Ten new directions transforming our lives. New York: Warner Books.

Neilsen, E. H., & Gypen, J. (1985). The subordinate's predicaments. In E. G. C. Collins (Ed.), Harvard Business Review: The executive dilemma: Handling people problems at work (pp. 112-124). New York: Wiley and Sons.

Offermann, L. R. (1996). Leading and empowering diverse followers. (Report prepared for the Kellog Leadership Studies Project). Washington, DC: Washington University.

Peters, T. J., & Waterman, R. H., Jr. (1982). In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best run companies. New York: Harper & Row.

Pfeffer, J. (1984). The ambiguity of leadership. In W. E. Rosenbach & R. L. Taylor (Eds.), Contemporary issues in leadership (pp. 4-17). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Rousseau, D. M. (1995). Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rowley, D. J., Rosse, J., & Harvey, O. J. (1992). The effects of belief systems on the job-related satisfaction of managers and subordinates. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 22 (3), 212-231.

Senge, P. M. (1990). The fifth discipline: The art & practice of the learning organization. New York: Doubleday Currency.

Skaret, D. J., & Bruning, N. S. (1986). Attitudes about the work group: An added moderator of the relationship between leader behavior and job satisfaction. Group and organization studies, 11(3), 254-279.

Smith, D. K. (1995). The following part of leading. In F. Hesselbein, M. Goldsmith, & R. Beckhard (Eds.), The leader of the future (pp. 199-207). New York: The Drucker Foundation.

Spears, L. (1995). Introduction: Servant-leadership and the Greenleaf legacy. In L. C. Spears (Ed.), Reflections on leadership: How Robert K. Greenleaf's theory of servant leadership influenced today's top management thinkers (pp 1-14). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Tannenbaum, A. S. (1966). Social psychology of the work organization. Monterey, CA: Wadsworth.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). Work and motivation. New York: Wiley.

Wheatley, M. J. (1992). Leadership and the new science: Learning about organization from an orderly universe. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Wills, G. (1994). Certain trumpets: The nature of leadership. Riverside, NJ: Simon & Schuster.

Yukl, G. (1994). Leadership in organizations (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Zaleznik, A. (1985). The dynamics of subordinacy. In E. G. C. Collins (Ed.), Harvard Business Review: The executive dilemma: Handling people problems at work (pp. 92-111). New York: Wiley and Sons.

Zierden, W. E. (1984). Leading through the follower's point of view. In W. E. Rosenbach & R. L. Taylor (Eds.), Contemporary issues in leadership (pp. 144-161). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Appendix A

Appendix A contains the survey packet that was provided to the participants. The contents were as follows:

Section 1: Consent form

Section 2: Survey

Section 3: Kelley (1992) followership questionnaire (in part IV of the survey packet)

Section 4: Hersey (1993) LEAD Other questionnaire

Section 1: Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

A study of responses to leadership styles in the United States Air Force is being conducted through the College of Continuing Education Department at the University of Oklahoma, Norman Campus. The purpose of this research is to study the impact of leadership style on participation among United States Air Force enlisted members. The U.S. Air Force has approved this study: survey control 99-35. The Airman Leadership School Commander has granted permission to invite your participation in this survey. The Oklahoma University Human Subjects Review Board has approved this study.

Plans for Participation

Your participation will involve the completion of a survey packet and one questionnaire. The questionnaire will be used to determine the leadership style of your immediate supervisor. The survey packet will be used to gather other factors that will be used along with leadership styles to determine the effects on your participation. The survey packet and questionnaire will require approximately **20-30 minutes of your time.**

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this study is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. If you decline to participate or withdraw from the study you will in no way be penalized.

Risk There is no risk associated with participation in this study.

Confidential

Your responses will be made anonymously and will be held in strict confidence. No names are used in this study. Only the Principal Investigator and Faculty Sponsor will have access to your responses. The information gathered will be used for research purposes only.

Questions

If you have any questions at any time regarding this study, you are welcome to contact the Principal Investigator, Albert J. Colangelo at 06307-6135, or email at albert@kaiserslautern.netsurf.de

AUTHORIZATION: I (print your name)_____ consent to participate in the research described. My signature indicates that all my questions have been answered and that I consent to participate freely, without coercion, having completely read this document.

_____ _____

Signature Date

_____ _____

Section 2: Survey Packet

SURVEY PACKET

Air Force Survey Control Number: 99-35

Expiration Date: December 31, 1999

Sponsored By CEPME

RESEARCH

ON

ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP

BY

ALBERT J. COLANGELO

Ph.D. Candidate of Organizational Leadership
University of Oklahoma
College of Continuing Education
Norman, Oklahoma

SURVEY QUESTIONS

Directions: For each question, circle the appropriate response/number or fill in the blank. If you are uncertain of an answer, respond with information that is "to the best of your knowledge". Please be sure to answer every question.

I. PERSONAL DATA

1. Age: _____

2. Gender: Male Female

3. Race: _____

4. Your highest educational degree:

   GED High School Attended college (no degree)

   Associate's degree Bachelor's degree Master's degree

   Other (specify):_____

5. Total number of years and months in the Air Force: _____ years & _____ months.

6. Number of years & months in your current duty position: _____years &_____months.

7. Desired pay grade at time of your retirement:

   E6 TSGT E7 MSGT E8 SMSGT E9 CMSGT

   Other (specify): _____

II. YOUR IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR DATA

1. Gender of immediate supervisor: Male Female

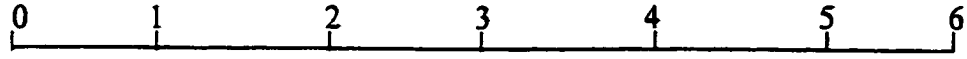
2. My immediate supervisor has supervised me for _____ years and _____ months.

3. I usually receive an average of _____ HOURS per week of supervision

(i.e., one-to-one contact) with my immediate supervisor.

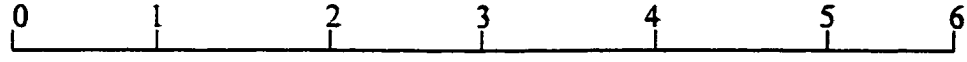
II. YOUR IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR DATA (Continued)

4. Rate your working relationship with your immediate supervisor? (Circle a number)



Very Poor Moderate Excellent

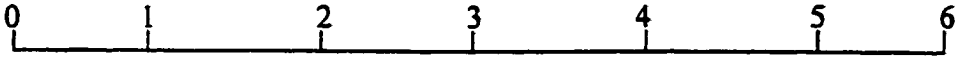
5. In terms of honesty and integrity, how well do you trust your immediate supervisor?



Not at all Halfway Totally

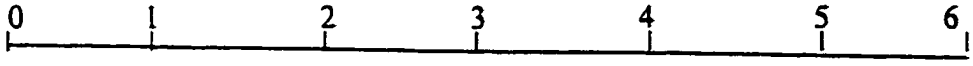
III. AGENCY DATA

1. How often does your organization recognize good performance? (Circle a number)



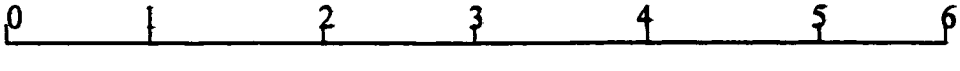
Never Sometimes Always

2. How much satisfaction do you receive from your job? (Circle a number)



None Moderate Complete

3. How committed are you to your organization? (Circle a number)



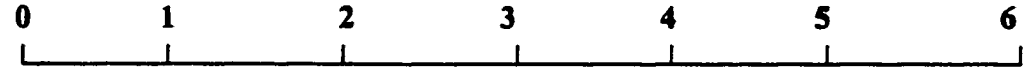
Not at all Halfway Totally

Section 3: Kelley's (1992) Followership Questionnaire Slightly Modified

IV. PARTICIPATION

Directions: For each statement on the next three pages, please use the scale below to indicate the extent to which the statement describes YOU. Think of a specific but typical participatory situation and how YOU ACTED. Please be accurate and frank as possible! Try not to deceive yourself by answering the way you think the best team-members answer, or the way that you would like others to view you.

Important: Your honest, accurate responses are vital to this study! Be direct and bold. Your answers are/will remain anonymous.



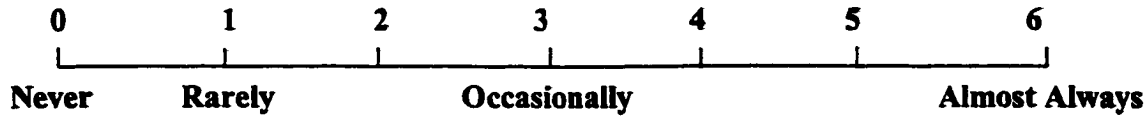
Never **Rarely** **Occasionally** **Almost Always**

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

_____ 2. Are your personal work goals aligned with the organization's priority goals?

_____ 3. Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?

_____ 4. Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your co-workers?



_____ 5. Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most critical for achieving the organization's priority goals?

_____ 6. Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?

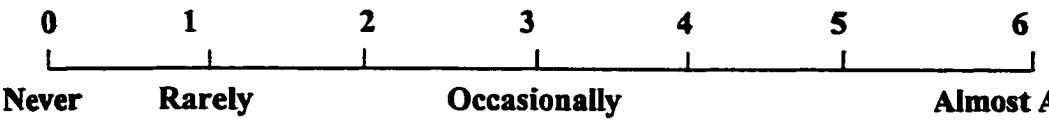
_____ 7. When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the leader?

_____ 8. Can the leader give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your deadline with highest-quality work and that you will "fill in the cracks" if need be?

_____ 9. Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?

_____ 10. When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?

_____ 11. Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader's or the organization's goals?



_____ 12. Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the leader to do it for you?

_____ 13. Do you help out other co-workers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?

_____ 14. Do you help the leader or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?

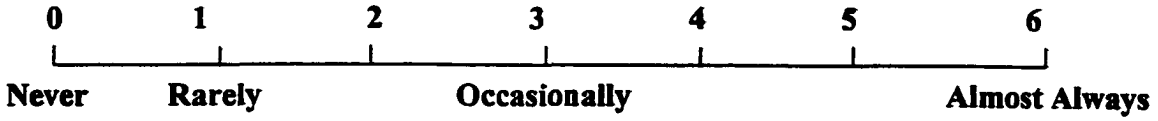
_____ 15. Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?

_____ 16. Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation?

_____ 17. Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the leader's decision rather than just doing what you are told?

_____ 18. When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?

_____ 19. Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or the group's standards?



_____ 20. Do you assert your views on important issues, even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the leader?

YOU'RE ALMOST DONE! ☺

JUST 12 MORE QUESTIONS!!

Open the LEAD Other booklet to continue.

V. LEAD Other Responses

Directions: Read each situation in the Lead Other questionnaire booklet and mark the appropriate response that reflects *how your immediate supervisor* would act in each of the situations. Use this answer sheet and circle the letter that matches your responses.

REMEMBER: It is **YOUR PERCEPTION** of what YOUR IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR WOULD DO in the given situations.

DO NOT MARK IN THE BOOKLET. Questionnaire booklets will be reused. Thanks!

MY SUPERVISOR WOULD.....

1.	A	B	C	D
2.	A	B	C	D
3.	A	B	C	D
4.	A	B	C	D
5.	A	B	C	D
6.	A	B	C	D
7.	A	B	C	D
8.	A	B	C	D
9.	A	B	C	D
10.	A	B	C	D
11.	A	B	C	D
12.	A	B	C	D