

UNIVERSITY OF OTTAWA

The Influence of Follower Behaviour on Leaders' Trust in Followers

Nicholas Bremner

Supervisor: Laurent M. Lapierre, Telfer School of Management

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Abstract

This study reviews the burgeoning literature on followership and tests propositions from a recently developed theoretical framework to explore the relationship between follower behaviours, leaders' perceptions of follower trustworthiness (trusting beliefs), and leaders' subsequent willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of their followers (trusting intentions). Leaders' implicit followership theories (IFTs) were examined as a potential moderator of both relationships. Results revealed that passive followership influenced leaders' trusting beliefs negatively, whereas collaborative followership had a positive influence on leaders' trusting beliefs as well as leaders' trusting intentions. The most extreme form of proactive followership, challenging followership, had nonsignificant relationships with leaders' trusting beliefs and intentions. In addition, leaders' IFTs did not interact with followership behaviour to produce any change in leaders' trusting beliefs. However, IFTs were found to moderate the relationship between leaders' trusting beliefs and trusting intentions. Implications for research and practice are discussed in light of the results.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background and Purpose

Followers play an essential role in the leadership process. For an individual to be a leader, they must have followers. Despite this, follower behaviours and characteristics have been often overlooked in leadership research (Bennis, 2010). As a consequence of this, very little is known about what constitutes effective followership (Bennis, 2010; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009). The majority of previous leadership research has operated under the assumption that leader behaviours and characteristics are relatively more important than those of followers for producing high performance in teams and organizations (Meindl, 1995). This leader-centric bias has become so prominent that some have described it as a “romance of leadership” (Meindl, 1995).

It has not been until very recently that scholars have started to seriously consider the more active role that followers can play in the leadership phenomenon (Agho, 2009; Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009; Collinson, 2006; Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2007). In order to achieve a more complete understanding of the leadership process, it has been argued that research should be shifted to consider the role of followers (Shamir, 2007). The purpose of my research is to examine whether or not followers' behaviour can influence their leader's trust in them. It is my intention to uncover how much of an impact followers can make on their leader by closely examining the active role that the follower can play in the leadership process. It is hoped that the results of this research will inspire others to pay greater attention to followers and acknowledge their importance in organizations.

Research on leader-follower relational dynamics suggests that trust is one of the key variables explaining the influence of one party on the other (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995; Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000). Considering the frequent reference to trust in relational models of leadership, it is reasonable to expect that trust is one of the main avenues through which followers can influence their leader's behaviour at the dyadic level (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010).

To be able to predict under what circumstances a leader will trust his or her employees is of value to both parties involved. From the theoretical perspective of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), the more that individuals in a dyad (e.g., a leader and follower) reciprocate behaviours that build trust, respect, liking, and a sense of obligation, the higher will be the quality of their relationship (Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). Thus, for followers to create a higher quality relationship with their leader and receive the form of leadership they desire, it is important to determine the most effective way of interacting with the leader to engender the leader's trust. For example, a leader who places more trust in a particular follower will be more willing to take risks with that follower and provide challenging assignments or greater latitude in decision-making (Brower, et al., 2000; Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995; Lapierre & Bremner, 2010). My research seeks to explain how a follower must behave, depending on the leader's expectations, to be trusted by his or her leader.

1.2 Research Question and Objectives

Recent theoretical work by Lapierre and Bremner (2010) explains how employees' particular enactment of followership can influence the leadership behaviours of their immediate superior in the formal organizational hierarchy. This relationship is mediated by the leader's trust in the

follower. Lapierre and Bremner also propose that the leader's implicit followership theory or IFT (i.e., assumptions regarding the traits and behaviours of effective followers) will moderate the degree to which follower actions influence the leader's trust in the follower. The present thesis recounts Lapierre and Bremner's (2010) model and propounds to empirically test several of the model's propositions.

My general research question is: how does the behaviour of a follower influence the leader's trust in that particular follower?

In order to address this question, the objectives of this research are:

- i. To determine how proactive and passive follower behaviours influence a leader's trust in a particular follower.
- ii. To assess the extent to which a leader's trust in a particular follower depends on the (mis)alignment between that follower's behaviour and the leader's IFT.

1.3 Thesis Outline

The key components of this thesis proposal are as follows:

- Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive review of the relevant scholarly literature. Specifically it focuses on followership, IFTs, and the multifaceted construct of trust within the context of organizations.
- Chapter 3 explains the key arguments put forth by Lapierre and Bremner (2010) that are relevant to this thesis and presents the hypotheses that are tested.
- Chapter 4 describes how the data were collected, who the data were collected from, lists the scales chosen for measuring each construct, and explains why these scales were chosen. Finally, it provides a detailed description of the statistical techniques applied.

- Chapter 5 details the process of the analysis and the results obtained.
- Chapter 6 concludes the proposal. This section contains the author's interpretation of the results, as well as a discussion of their significance in terms of research and practice. In addition, the strengths and limitations of the research are acknowledged and a brief agenda for future research is outlined.

2. Literature Review

In the following subsections, a summary of scholarly literature that is relevant to the current thesis will be presented. This review will address the current state of knowledge in each stream of literature by identifying the strengths, weaknesses, and gaps present.

2.1 Followership

Recent work defines followership as the behaviours of individuals acting in relation to individuals of higher status (i.e., leaders; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009; Carsten, Uhl-bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010). Follower behaviours must be enacted in deference to the leader, otherwise they cannot be considered acts of followership (Uhl-Bien & Pillai, 2007).

Followers have been recognized and discussed by psychologists, anthropologists and sociologists since the beginning of the 20th century. However, research that acknowledged the active role that followers could play in the leadership process did not begin to emerge within the management literature until later on (Baker, 2007). Hollander and Webb (1955) contributed to the recognition of followers by conducting one of the first empirical studies acknowledging the importance of followership. They proposed that the qualities associated with effective leaders

and followers were interdependent, and concluded that individuals who were not desirable as leaders were not desirable as followers either.

While noteworthy, it was publications by Kelley (1988) and Chaleff (1995) that became the seminal works that truly considered followers as active in the leadership process, and that subsequent examinations of followers were based on (Baker, 2007). In his article entitled *In Praise of Followers*, Kelley (1988) states that “organizations stand or fall partly on the basis of how well their leaders lead, but partly also on the basis of how well their followers follow,” (p. 2). If followers are just as essential as leaders in ensuring the success of teams and organizations, it is imperative to find ways in which mutually beneficial relationships can be forged between managers and their subordinates to maximize performance. To date, the leader-centric view has focused exclusively on how leaders contribute to the development of such relationships. Considering the growing view that followers can be active participants in this relationship building process, it would be valuable to determine what characteristics and behaviours of followers can effectively foster these kinds of relationships with leaders.

The practitioner literature can serve as a viable starting point for examining effective follower characteristics. Kellerman (2007) suggests that good followers are highly engaged at work. They also choose to invest the time and energy into making informed judgments about who their leader is, and are consequently more predisposed to actively supporting a good and ethical leader (while also being willing to actively oppose a bad leader). These characteristics are echoed by Bennis (2010) who describes followers willing to wrest the power from a rogue leader as heroic, while referring to followers in the same situation who remain acquiescent as toxic. Self-management, commitment to the organization’s mission, competence, focus, and courage are other effective follower behaviours that have been cited (Kelley, 1988).

A number of typologies have also been proposed in an attempt to categorize (in)effective followers. These typologies differentiate between followers based on their level of independence or critical-thinking and activity (Kelley, 1988), and their level of dominance/submissiveness and their level of engagement (Kellerman, 2007). Similarly, Chaleff (1995) described four different types of followers: implementers, partners, individualists, and resources. These followers were classified based on their willingness to support leaders, and their willingness to challenge them. One recently developed classification takes a post-structuralist approach by emphasizing that followers' actions can only be understood within the complex social environment in which they exist. While not intended to be exhaustive, the paper proposes that conformist, resistant, and dramaturgical selves are some of the different social identities that followers can enact in the workplace (Collinson, 2006).

A recent empirical study by Agho (2009) had 302 senior-level executives rank 20 characteristics of followers in order of importance. The five most important follower characteristics included possessing honesty and integrity, being competent, dependable, cooperative, and being loyal. The five least important characteristics included being inspiring, independent, ambitious, forward looking, and courageous. A limitation of this study, however, is that all respondents were executive managers above the age of 55; this is a potential threat to the generalizability of these results. Furthermore, because the researchers pre-selected the characteristics to be ranked by respondents, the questionnaire provided to participants may not have presented an exhaustive list of follower characteristics.

Although by no means methodologically rigorous, Cavell (2007) described the most frequently identified traits of good followers by a business leadership class. The top five traits

(which would be better described as a collection of traits and behaviours) included supporting a leader's decisions, making suggestions, loyalty, trustworthiness, and being ethical.

While the literature reviewed above provides some indication of what constitutes an effective follower, some important questions are left unanswered. For instance, are certain kinds of followers always effective in every situation? Do all leaders prefer followers with the same characteristics, and who behave a certain way? The research summarized below suggests that the answer to both of these questions is no.

An interview study conducted on 255 employees asked respondents "what sort of behaviours do/would you expect from a subordinate of yours?" Answers were grouped into categories (some of them conflicting; Wernimont, 1971). For example, one predominant theme was "initiative and independence," which included behaviours such as offering suggestions, thinking for oneself, and avoiding yea-saying. Another predominant theme that partially conflicts with the former was "loyalty to supervisor's values", which included behaviours such as cooperation, doing as one is told, and accepting supervisory control. Furthermore, Wernimont (1971) noted that the initiative and independence theme partially conflicted with another frequently mentioned cluster of behaviours on "thoroughness." This was because the thoroughness dimension included providing follow-ups on routine details, while supervisors who emphasized the initiative and independence theme expressed that subordinates should be strongly independent, and be able to think for themselves. It can be inferred from these results that many respondents had differing views on what constitutes effective followership.

Literature on follower schemas also supports the idea that people may vary in the conceptualizations they have of followers. An individual's follower schema encompasses the feelings and ideas that the person has about followers, as well as what attributes he or she

perceives followers to have. A leader's follower schema can influence how he or she judges and reacts to follower performance or behaviour (Wofford & Goodwin, 1994; Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington, 1998). Wofford and Goodwin (1994) propose that transformational leaders expect their followers to have attributes such as self-reliance, innovativeness, and initiative. In addition, they propose that transactional leaders expect their followers to have a commitment to goals, expectancy of goal attainment and rewards, and a need for role clarity. Research by Goodwin, Wofford, and Boyd (2000) confirms that transformational and transactional leaders do indeed have different follower schemas. They found that when leaders were provided positive or negative feedback about follower performance, the cognitions accessed varied depending on whether leaders had transformational or transactional leadership styles.

A recent qualitative study by Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, and McGregor (2010) used semi-structured, open-ended interviews to better understand how people socially construct the notion of effective followership. They found individual constructions of effective followership can vary along a passive-to-proactive continuum. For participants who believed that effective followers should behave passively, followership involved actions such as being obedient, being flexible and open to change, and not challenging the status quo. The authors noted that this corresponds to the traditional view of followership. Such a view is exemplified by Burns (1978) who described followers as the "drab powerless masses" (p. 3). In contrast, other participants indicated that effective followership requires significant proactivity and would involve behaviours such as taking ownership, taking initiative, voicing concerns, and offering solutions before being asked to do so by the leader (Carsten, et al., 2010).

Lapierre and Bremner (2010) contend that describing effective followership using a passive-to-proactive continuum is a useful approach that is consistent with previous empirical work. For

example, they mention that Wernimont's (1971) "initiative and independence" and "loyalty to supervisor's values" emergent themes of effective subordinate descriptions seem to correspond to proactivity and passivity, respectively. Furthermore, Agho's (2009) findings regarding the most and least important characteristics of effective followers appear to reflect passivity and proactivity, respectively. This is in contrast to the practitioner literature which views effective followership as proactive by including self-management, commitment to the organization's mission, independence, and critical thinking (Bennis, 2010; Kellerman, 2007; Kelley, 1988).

The passive-to-proactive continuum of followership also has much in common with what Self-Determination Theory (SDT) scholars refer to as causality orientations (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Such orientations are described by Causality Orientations Theory (COT), a mini-theory of SDT. COT posits that each individual possesses varying levels of three motivational orientations: autonomy orientation, controlled orientation, and impersonal orientation. These orientations concern individual differences in how and why behaviours are initiated and regulated (Baard, et al., 2004). Individuals with a high autonomy orientation display behaviours that exemplify proactivity. They prefer environments that stimulate intrinsic motivation and are more likely to perceive their current environment as more autonomy promoting. These individuals are more likely to provide feedback, display more personal initiative, and take greater responsibility for their own behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Individuals with a predominantly controlled orientation typically behave in accordance with passivity and deference. The behaviour of these individuals is highly regulated by and dependent on formal structures such as directives, rewards and deadlines. They are more attuned to the demands of others than to their own wants and needs (Deci & Ryan, 1985). However, where the controlled orientation departs from passivity (and followership) is when individual responses to

controls take the form of rebellion or defiance (e.g., doing the exact opposite of what is demanded). Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that compliant and defiant behaviour are both considered as "controlled" because they are not chosen but instead occur as a response to pressure. However, an employee choosing to defy his/her leader in this way would not be considered an effective follower by the leader under any circumstances. Finally, those with an impersonal orientation experience their behaviour as being beyond their own control. These individuals see themselves as incompetent and view the outcomes of tasks as external to their own volition (Deci & Ryan, 1985). No aspect of this orientation overlaps with effective followership.

When considering proactive and passive forms of followership, some leaders are more likely to endorse more of one type of followership than the other. Research by Carsten and Uhl-Bien (2009) shows that individuals' beliefs of what constitutes effective followership can range anywhere from proactivity to passivity (these two factors had a correlation of $r = -.54$). Thus, either form of followership could be potentially more effective than the other. One reason for the variance in what constitutes effective followership may be that whether or not an employee's followership is perceived as effective by the leader is contingent upon the leader's expectations of the follower. For followers to be considered effective consistently, they must adjust their behaviour according to the situation and the expectations of their leader.

In accordance with the literature summarized above, Lapierre and Bremner (2010) proposed a behavioural definition of potentially effective followership that applies to the context of formal, hierarchical leader-follower relationships:

“Followership refers to the manner in which a person behaves in relation to his or her leader. While it requires some degree of deference to the leader, it can vary along a passive-

to-proactive continuum. Compared to passive followers, proactive followers display less defence to the leader and try to partner with the leader” (p. 9).

Lapierre and Bremner (2010) also suggest that followers are more likely to be considered effective if their actions more closely align with their leader's expectations. Since effective followership is in the eye of the beholder, it is necessary to establish a means of understanding and measuring the variation in leaders' expectations of followership. Implicit followership theories are a promising means of accomplishing this task.

2.2 Implicit Followership Theories (IFTs)

Research on implicit followership theories, or IFTs, is still in its infancy. Although there are very few publications pertaining to IFTs, the extant research is promising. Research on IFTs began to appear in the literature about two decades ago (Eden, 1990). IFTs closely resemble implicit leadership theories (ILTs) – which have been studied more frequently, and for a comparatively longer period of time than IFTs (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord & Maher, 1993; Shondrick & Lord, 2010).

Both IFTs and ILTs are subsumed by the body of literature on implicit theories. Rooted in Kelly's (1955) theory of personality, implicit theories represent naive assumptions about the self and social reality (Dweck, Chiu, & Hong, 1995). According to Kelly, these everyday implicit assumptions guide social information processing and understanding. Research strongly supports this notion that implicit theories are responsible for individual differences in judgments and behavioural responses (Coleman, 2004; Dweck, et al., 1995), and similar results have been obtained in research studies on ILTs (Lord & Maher, 1993). Consequently, future research on

IFTs should provide similar results in terms of guiding leaders' judgments and behavioural responses to followers.

IFTs are possessed by both leaders and followers and represent cognitive structures or schemas that specify the array of associated attributes one expects followers (in general) to possess (Carsten, et al., 2010; Engle & Lord, 1997; van Gils, van Quaquebeke, & van Knippenberg, 2010; Wofford & Goodwin, 1994). These followership schemas develop over time through exposure to stimuli relative to leadership and followership (Carsten, et al., 2010). For example, information contained within IFTs can be influenced or "updated" through exposure to novel or surprising experiences, such as norms and standards enforced within an organization that are unfamiliar to or conflicting with an individual's previously held beliefs (Louis, 1980). Although the formation of IFTs may be influenced by both individual characteristics and context, IFTs considerably stable and well-defined once they have been used for sensemaking (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). Furthermore, IFTs are conceptualized to pertain to followers across a wide variety of situations (i.e., followers in general) and thus are expected to vary more as a function of individual differences than within one individual across different situations (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009; Sy, 2010). Some indirect support for this is provided by a longitudinal study extended over 1 year that found ILTs to be stable over time (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004).

IFTs have been defined in two different ways. Sy (2010) defines IFTs as individuals' personal assumptions about the traits and behaviours that characterize followers. Carsten & Uhl-Bien (2009) take a slightly different approach and define IFTs as an individual's assumptions regarding the traits and behaviours that *effective* followers should possess or exhibit. These definitions differ in terms of the type of prototype used by the individual possessing the IFT. A follower is considered prototypical if he or she is the most representative member, or possesses

commonly shared attributes of a particular category (Sy, 2010). Central tendency prototypes correspond to how followers *are* (e.g., average or typical follower), while ideal prototypes correspond to how followers *should be* (e.g., exemplary follower). Definitions by Sy (2010), and Carsten & Uhl-Bien (2009) are based on central tendency prototypes and ideal prototypes, respectively. While these definitions are not necessarily in conflict with one another, they differ regarding the scope of IFTs, which has implications for how IFTs are to be measured.

To date, there are two known measures of IFTs. Carsten and Uhl-Bien (2009) developed a measure of IFTs examining participants' assumptions about how followers should be (ideal prototypes). A quantitative study was conducted to test the reliability and validity of the measure. They found that IFTs are best represented by two negatively correlated factors, one denoting proactive followership (e.g., "followers need to proactively identify problems that could affect the organization") and one denoting passive followership (e.g., "because one is a follower, he/she does not have to worry about being involved in decision-making"). Although two factors were present, Carsten and Uhl-Bien chose to conceptualize IFTs along a passive-to-proactive continuum (in the same manner in which followership was conceptualized above) and reported satisfactory estimates of internal consistency reliability for the combined measure in each of their three samples (.86, .78, and .80). They suggest that the presence of two factors was due to the tendency for reverse scored items to load on a separate factor than positively scored items. They also mention that the measure was designed with the intention to act as a continuum.

The other measure of IFTs, developed by Sy (2010), consisted of six correlated factors, which were grouped into two second-order factors. "Followership Prototype" was the first second-order factor and encompassed industry, enthusiasm, and good citizenship. "Followership Antiprototype" was the second second-order factor, which consisted of conformity,

insubordination, and incompetence. Questions for this measure examined participants' assumptions regarding the attributes that followers typically possess, and how they typically behave (central tendency prototypes). The factor measuring enthusiasm (excited, outgoing, happy) appears to be mostly consistent with Carsten and Uhl-Bien's (2009) factor representing follower proactivity, while the factors measuring conformity (easily influenced, follows trends, soft spoken) and good citizenship (loyal, reliable, team player) appear to be mostly consistent with their passive followership factor. However, there is some overlap between proactivity and passivity with these dimensions. For example, both proactive and passive followers can be considered "happy", and "reliable" by their leader. Similarly, most aspects of the factor measuring industry (hardworking, productive, goes above and beyond) appear to overlap with both proactivity and passivity. While not necessarily going above and beyond their prescribed roles, followers can remain passive and still be productive and work hard at a task they are told to perform. Followers can also be proactively industrious by taking the initiative to seek out projects to intensely engage in. The factors measuring incompetence (uneducated, slow, inexperienced) and insubordination (arrogant, rude, bad temper) seem to fit well with the defiant aspects of the controlled orientation and the impersonal orientation proposed by SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985), but do not clearly fit with notions of followership reported by Carsten and colleagues (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009; Carsten, et al., 2010). This is because each measure is in line with the way IFTs were conceptualized by their respective authors. Carsten et. al. focused on the enactment of effective followership (ideal prototypes), while Sy's approach focused on average or typical followership (central tendency prototypes) which are broader in scope and include both effective and ineffective representations of followers (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010).

The passive-to-proactive continuum that Carsten and Uhl-Bien's (2009) IFT measure is said to capture is the conceptualization that is most consistent with the research objectives of this proposal and the chosen behavioural definition of potentially effective followership. The intention of the proposed research is to determine how a follower can positively influence the leader's trust in that particular follower by behaving in accordance with the leader's expectations. Essentially, it is expected that the leader's IFT will moderate the relationship between follower behaviour and the leader's trust in the follower. Incorporating traits such as insubordination and incompetence that are likely to be perceived as universally negative by leaders are of little value to the proposed research (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010). This is because a follower who is rude and/or cannot complete assigned tasks is not likely to earn the trust of his/her leader, irrespective of the leader's IFT.

There is additional theory and research that can provide further understanding about how leaders are likely to use their IFT to react to follower behaviour. Van Gils, van Quaquebeke, and van Knippenberg (2010) have posited that IFTs capture expectations about the follower role and about appropriate follower contributions that are specific to the LMX relationship. They have proposed that both leaders and followers use their IFTs as a benchmark to determine the appropriateness of the follower's contribution to the LMX relationship. In short, a leader's IFT is the lens through which the contributions of his/her followers are judged. Although no specific behaviours were provided as examples, they suggest that followers who behave prototypically, or behave in a manner that "matches" the leader's IFT, are considered to be making effective contributions to the LMX relationship in the eyes of the leader (van Gils, et al., 2010). Recent research on IFTs provides some support for this notion by demonstrating that leaders' IFTs are associated with relationship quality from both leader and follower perspectives (Sy, 2010). Van

Gils and associates further suggest that the difference between leader and follower IFTs are one of the reasons behind LMX (dis)agreement. If followers' and leaders' IFTs differ, they will likely experience lower LMX because they have different views about what should be contributed to the relationship.

Research by Engle and Lord (1997) also supports the effects of IFTs on leaders' perceptions of relationship quality. They determined that congruence of implicit performance theories (IPTs) between supervisors and subordinates has a significant impact on supervisors' perceptions of LMX quality and supervisors' liking of subordinates. IPTs are another form of implicit theory that may play a role in guiding leader behaviour (Engle & Lord, 1997). IPTs represent leaders' expectations regarding effective employee performance and serve as a benchmark for leaders to help interpret performance as either effective or ineffective. This interpretation can in turn be used to guide leaders' response. Although very similar to IFTs, IPTs are narrower in scope and are restricted to employee performance. IFTs capture a more diverse set of attributes and behaviours related to the follower role such as providing suggestions, initiative-taking, and enthusiasm (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009; van Gils, et al., 2010). Consequently, one could argue that IPTs are subsumed by IFTs and that the empirical findings mentioned above provide some additional, albeit indirect, support for the influence that IFTs can have on leaders' reactions to followers.

It is evident that leaders' IFTs do play a role in how they view their relationships with followers. However, research has treated leaders' IFTs as antecedent to interpersonal outcomes. It is more likely that leaders' reactions are due to the actions or characteristics of followers, and are not direct outcomes of their own IFT (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010). The current thesis treats the leader's IFT as a moderator between follower behaviour and leader reactions, and seeks to

demonstrate how followership behaviour can interact with the leader's IFT to influence the leader's trust in the follower.

2.3 Interpersonal Trust in Organizations

Trust is a pervasive phenomenon in organizational life, and is a well-known term that is often used in passing in everyday conversation (McAllister, 1995). It is mentioned in a wide array of scholarly literature, it is the subject of a vast volume of studies, and has generated much interest over the past few decades (Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Despite its ubiquity, when it comes to specifying exactly what trust is in the context of organizations, it becomes apparent that it is easy to get lost in the labyrinth of literature pertaining to this complex and multidimensional construct (Kim, Dirks, & Cooper, 2009).

The trust literature has offered many definitions of trust but offered much less consensus regarding which definition to use (Chughtai & Buckley, 2009). Although there has been some degree of convergence on common definitions and theoretical conceptualizations of trust, the same cannot be said for measures used to operationalize this construct. A review of 119 measures of trust reported that only 11 of these measures had been used in more than one study (McEvily & Tortoriello, 2005). It is apparent that trust is a construct in which empirical research is very fragmented, and has failed to keep pace with theory (Lewicki, et al., 2006).

In an effort to categorize the body of theoretical knowledge pertaining to trust, Lewicki and colleagues (2006) assert that trust research can be organized into two different camps or “traditions”:

- i. The behavioural tradition, in which trust is rational-choice behaviour.

- ii. The psychological tradition, in which trust is a complex process encompassing interpersonal states such as expectations, intentions, affect, and dispositions.

The behavioural tradition is grounded in observable choices made in an interpersonal context by the actor or trustor. This form of behaviour is comparable to cooperative choices made in a game (Lewicki, et al., 2006). Indeed, researchers in this camp often observe interactions and behaviours in simulated environments where cooperative and competitive behaviours are seen as a proxy for measuring trust cognitions (Deutsch, 1958).

In contrast, the psychological tradition focuses specifically on the cognitive and affective processes of the trustor (the individual making the decision to trust, or not trust), and acknowledges that the decision to trust may not always be strictly rational (Lewicki, et al., 2006). Within the psychological tradition, trust can be further divided into three distinct categories of trust definitions: unidimensional, two-dimensional, and transformational (Lewicki, et al., 2006).

The term “unidimensional” is misleading since in this category trust is defined as consisting of two major components: confident expectations in the trustee (the individual being trusted), and a willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of the trustee (Mayer, et al., 1995; McAllister, 1995). This definition of trust can be further broken down into cognitive, affective and behavioural intention elements or subfactors; making this definition of trust rather multifaceted (Lewicki, et al., 2006; McAllister, 1995). According to this view, trust and distrust are opposite ends of the same continuum (hence the label unidimensional).

The two-dimensional view of trust considers trust and distrust as two opposing, yet distinct constructs. High trust and distrust involve a certainty regarding the positive and negative actions of the trustee, respectively. In contrast, low trust evokes feelings of uncertainty or lack of faith in the trustee, while low distrust involves feeling the lack of a need to monitor or fear potential

actions of the trustee (Lewicki & McAllister, 1998). According to this view, interpersonal relationships are complex and can span several different contexts, where trust and distrust vary independently each other and can be present simultaneously (Lewicki, et al., 2006). For example, a leader can have high trust in his/her follower's analytical skills and simultaneously have high distrust in this follower's oral presentation skills. Consequently, the leader would likely count on this follower to skilfully complete important financial documents, but not let this individual present the results of a project in front of an important client.

The transformational view considers trust as a phenomenon that alters its nature over time. Trust is defined in terms of its basis, such as the expected cost of trusting, knowledge of the trustee, and the degree to which the trustor shares the values of the trustee. The goals of transformational models of trust are to understand trust beyond simple transactional exchanges and to differentiate between this deeper form of trust and its transactional counterpart (Lewicki, et al., 2006). Due to the richness and complexity of this definition of trust, transformational trust studies often measure trust using qualitative indicators (Lewicki, et al., 2006).

Lewicki and associates (2006) observe that among all of the predominant models of trust, there are two central components that each has in common:

- i. Positive or confident expectations about another party
- ii. A willingness to accept vulnerability to the actions of another party under conditions of risk

It is worth noting that these two central components are also consistent with the literature on trust repair (Kim, Dirks, & Cooper, 2004; Kim, et al., 2009), which was not reviewed by Lewicki et al. (2006).

Arguably the most well-known model of organizational trust to date was developed by Mayer et al. (1995). According to the Web of Science, this seminal paper has been cited to date

well over 1,000 times. Mayer and colleagues' definition of trust, and the specification of its component elements have been considered to be the most robust of the models reviewed above (Lewicki, et al., 2006). This definition and theoretical conceptualization of organizational trust has been adopted for the purpose of the proposed research and is consequently worth elaborating on.

Mayer and colleagues' (1995) model falls under the unidimensional definition of interpersonal trust and is in accordance with the two central components of trust described above. They propose that trust is defined as “the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party” (p. 712). They contend that trust is composed of trusting beliefs (i.e., perceived trust-relevant qualities of the trustee) and trusting intentions (i.e., the willingness to make oneself vulnerable to the actions of another), with the former influencing the latter. The model breaks trusting beliefs down into three trust-relevant characteristics of the trustee, namely: ability, benevolence, and integrity. Ability is the situational-specific group of skills, competencies and characteristics that the trustor perceives the trustee to be in possession of, which enable one to have influence in a specific domain. This characteristic is comparable to expertise or competence (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Benevolence is the extent to which the trustor believes the trustee wishes to do good to the trustor. This characteristic represents the trustor's perceptions regarding the motivations behind the actions of the trustee. Finally, integrity is the trustor's perception that the trustee adheres to a set of principles or values that are similar or acceptable to his or her own. Together, these characteristics of the trustee are argued to influence the trustor's willingness to expose him or herself to the actions of the trustee in the presence of interdependence and risk.

Mayer et al.'s (1995) model of trust was considered the most appropriate choice for the proposed research because it is suitable for examining interpersonal interactions at the dyadic level in an organizational setting. It has also led to the development of scales with established validity and reliability (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Mayer & Davis, 1999; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Schoorman & Ballinger, 2006).

3. Theoretical Background

In order to establish hypotheses about the influence of follower behaviour on the leader's trusting beliefs and intentions, and the moderating role that is played by the leader's IFT, this thesis draws on theoretical work by Lapierre & Bremner (2010). The following sections contain a brief summary of their paper's unique contributions to the followership literature and the arguments put forth. Testable propositions from the paper are then presented in the form of research hypotheses.

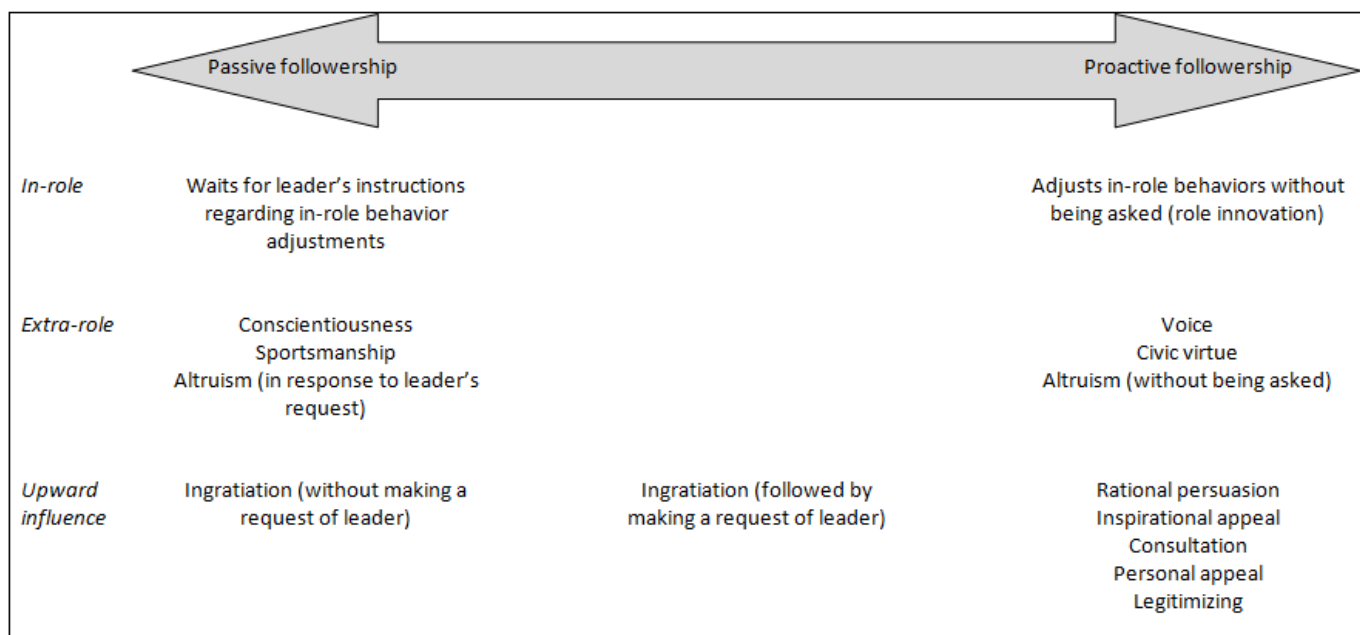
3.1 Passive-to-Proactive Followership Behaviour

Presently there are no known measures of passive-to-proactive followership behaviour. However, Lapierre and Bremner (2010) contend that using adapted measures of several well-studied employee behaviours can effectively serve as a means of measuring followership. For example, scales measuring job performance and various organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs; behaviours that contribute to the maintenance of, or enhance the context of one's work environment; Organ, 1997) can be categorized according to their degree of passivity or proactivity and adapted to measure each behaviour as they are enacted specifically in relation to the leader. Thus, it is necessary to determine which employee behaviours are considered as

followership, and where these specific behaviours should be placed along the passive-to-proactive continuum. The current research used a scale developed specifically to measure proactive and passive followership behaviour, in addition to a number of proxies which are presented in Chapter 4.

In addition to offering testable propositions pertaining to how follower behaviour can influence the leader, Lapierre and Bremner (2010) provide a thorough comparison of passive-to-proactive followership and commonly studied employee behaviours. The classification compares followership to in-role behaviour, extra-role behaviours, and upward influence and impression management tactics (presented in Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Followers' Display of In-Role Behaviors, Extra-Role Behaviors, and Upward Influence Tactics (Source: Lapierre & Bremner, 2010)



In-role behaviour refers to the degree to which one can effectively carry out formal duties and responsibilities associated with one's job. Responsibilities considered to be in-role are those that would be listed in a job description (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Followership, even in its

most passive form, requires doing as one is expected (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010). Passive followers will do their best to follow the leader's formal performance expectations. While proactive followers will also strive to fulfill formal performance expectations, one can expect them to show more initiative that would serve the interests of the leader's group. One way would be to improve aspects of their work role, in some cases by working with the leader to determine what the follower's in-role responsibilities should be. This form of behaviour is termed role innovation, which is a form of job crafting (Morrison & Phelps, 1999; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). It is important to note that there are situations where in-role behaviour does not constitute followership. There are circumstances where employees do not need to receive direction from a manager. For example, when an employee is intimately familiar with his or her in-role responsibilities and these responsibilities do not change over time, there is no need for leadership and thus, no need for followership (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010).

Extra-role behaviours are contributions made by employees that transcend their formally prescribed (in-role) responsibilities. Behaviours such as conscientiousness (adhering to the leader's rules at all times), and sportsmanship (maintaining a positive attitude despite less than ideal circumstances) are examples of extra-role behaviours that are consistent with Carsten et al.'s (2010) depiction of passive followership which emphasizes loyalty, deference, and submissiveness as part of the follower role. Voice behaviour (attempts to benefit the leader or group by constructively challenging the leader) and civic virtue (displaying concern about, or participating responsibly in the political life of the leader's group or organization) would be clear examples of Carsten et al.'s (2010) depiction of proactive followership. Proactive followers see themselves as active participants or partners with the leader. They may seek to assist the leader in advancing the mission of their team or organization and see voice and civic virtue behaviours

as an effective means of achieving this goal. Altruism is behaviour that can be considered as both passive and proactive followership. It involves going out of one's way to help another member of one's team or organization. Altruism can be considered as passive followership when an employee makes an effort to help after being asked by the leader to do so, and can be considered as proactive followership when an employee initiates the act of altruism without the leader's request (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010).

Upward influence and impression management tactics denote actions taken by a subordinate to advance a personal or organizational goal by influencing his or her boss. Although treated separately, it is likely that influence tactics subsume impression management (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010). Most upward influence tactics are not considered to be passive followership behaviours because they are not simply reactions to a leader's behaviour. Indeed, rational persuasion, inspirational appeal, consultation, personal appeal, and legitimizing are all examples of upward influence tactics that are considered to be proactive attempts to influence one's superior. An exception can be made in the case of ingratiation (i.e., attempts to make the target view the agent in a positive light). Some scholars have made the assumption that individuals would use ingratiation prior to making a request of the target (Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992), yet this is not always the case. Ingratiation is considered passive followership when it is not followed by a request, and considered as a mid-level form of active followership when it is followed by a request. In contrast, proactive followers would not feel the need to be ingratulatory and would simply make a request of the leader. This is because followers who see themselves as "silent leaders" or partners with the leader believe they are entitled to make such requests and not likely to worry about the leader's negative reaction to his or her initiative (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010).

This comparison of specific employee behaviours to passive and proactive followership can help build hypotheses pertaining to the effects of specific follower behaviours on the leader. In addition, it can assist in operationalizing followership as a construct that ranges from passivity to proactivity. The operationalization of followership will be discussed in Chapter 4.

3.2 Effects of Followership Behaviour on Leader's Trusting Beliefs

Lapierre and Bremner (2010) propose that the influence of an employee's followership on the leader's trusting beliefs toward that employee should depend on the leader's IFT. They argue that the more an employee's particular enactment of followership is in alignment with the leader's IFT, the more that employee will be considered as trustworthy by the leader. Conversely, the more an employee's followership and the leader's IFT are misaligned, the more the leader will perceive the employee as less trustworthy. However, depending on the type of (mis)alignment, the leader will consider the employee as (un)trustworthy for different reasons. The reasoning behind each scenario is explained in more detail in the following paragraphs.

It is important to note that a leader will not perceive an employee as trustworthy (at the very least in terms of ability) if performance is not acceptable regardless of the degree of alignment between followership behaviour and the leader's IFT. To mitigate this potential issue, several methodological considerations have been made which are discussed in Section 4.1.

The proactive follower as perceived by a leader with a proactive IFT

In a situation where a leader with a proactive IFT is paired with a proactive follower, it is expected that the leader will react favourably to his/her employee. In the leader's eyes, the employee would possess all of the situational-specific abilities or competencies that the leader

believes (at least implicitly) are necessary for the employee to influence performance outcomes at work. Role innovation, voicing concerns with the intention of benefitting the group, and working with, or consulting the leader in identifying and implementing change initiatives for the group are examples of followership behaviours that the leader would view as evidence that the follower possesses the domain specific knowledge and skills that the leader views as required to be successful at work.

A follower who displays proactivity would be likely to be perceived as benevolent by a leader with a proactive IFT. When a follower takes various forms of initiative to advance the interests of the leader's group, the leader is likely to interpret the actions of the follower as stemming from a genuine concern about his/her needs and interests.

A leader with a proactive IFT would also deem an employee's proactive followership as evidence of integrity. In this situation, the employee would be behaving in accordance with principles that the leader holds in high regard. For example, an employee who chooses to take initiative with the intention of advancing the interests of the group, or who steps up to take an informal partner role alongside the leader would be embodying principles that a leader with a proactive IFT is likely to value. A leader with a proactive IFT would value those who act accountable for the performance of their team and take steps to get others on track when things go wrong.

The passive follower as perceived by a leader with a proactive IFT

In comparison to a proactive follower, an employee enacting passive followership behaviour is likely to be perceived as less trustworthy by a leader with a proactive IFT. Passive followers are capable of adequately following specific directions and may perform an outlined task

exceptionally well, but a leader with a proactive IFT would view passive followers as lacking some of the capabilities or skills required to truly influence their work domain. For instance, a leader with a proactive IFT would view a passive follower as lacking personal initiative and self-management, which are skills that the leader would believe are necessary to be successful at work. In some cases, the leader may misinterpret acts of deference by a passive follower for incompetence. For example, when a leader with a proactive IFT is asked by a follower to outline each specific step required to complete a task, the leader may think that the follower does possess the proper training or knowledge to perform the task correctly without instruction. In reality, the passive follower may actually be quite competent in his/her role and could simply be attempting to gain approval from the leader by making an effort to understand the leader's preferred method for performing the task. Regardless of the follower's actual capabilities, the leader will view a passive follower as having only moderate ability at best. The follower's passive behaviour will not indicate to the leader that the follower has the abilities that the leader implicitly views as required to be successful in the work domain (e.g., initiative, the ability to work autonomously).

While an employee who is highly willing to follow orders from the leader (i.e., high deference) could be perceived as possessing some degree of benevolence, his/her lack of proactivity may instead thwart the degree to which he/she is viewed as truly concerned with the success of the leader or his/her group. For instance, if a passive follower sees his/her leader clearly struggling with a task, the follower is not likely to offer assistance until asked by the leader. Baffled by the follower's inactivity, a leader with a proactive IFT would question whether the follower truly cared about his/her success. In addition, ingratiation attempts (which typify passive followership) would not be viewed favourably by a leader with a proactive IFT and may

be viewed as an insincere impression management attempt. Therefore, to a leader with a proactive IFT, an employee displaying passive followership would be considered as comparatively less benevolent than an employee displaying proactive followership.

Finally, an employee enacting passive followership (e.g., high deference, passivity, unquestioning obedience) would not be considered as adhering to the values and principles considered acceptable by the leader. Thus, such an employee would be considered as having lower integrity than an employee who behaves proactively.

Hypothesis 1. An employee who enacts more proactive as opposed to more passive followership will be viewed by the leader as displaying higher a) ability, b) benevolence, and c) integrity when the leader holds a more proactive IFT.

The passive follower as perceived by a leader with a passive IFT

A leader with a passive IFT is expected to react to employee behaviour in a much different manner than a leader with a proactive IFT. A passive follower working under a leader with a passive IFT would be perceived by the leader as possessing all of the abilities that are required to perform successfully. In this situation, proactivity is not expected by the leader, nor is it provided by the employee. This does not mean, however, that a passive follower is limited to mediocre levels of task performance. A passive follower can complete a task with record speed and precision, but would make no attempt at trying new or innovative methods of task completion. This is the type of behaviour expected by a leader with a passive IFT. Thus, when an employee does exactly as he or she is told, and does it well, a leader with the passive IFT would perceive that the employee as possessing high ability.

A passive follower's unquestioning obedience to the leader would indicate to the leader that the follower is doing the best he/she can within the boundaries of his/her role to benefit the leader. This would contribute to the leader's perceptions of that follower's benevolence. Furthermore, the ingratiation attempts that characterize passive followership would be welcomed by a leader with a passive IFT and would serve to reinforce the leader's belief that the employee wishes to benefit him or her, contributing to the leader's perceptions of the employee's benevolence.

A passive follower would be considered as having high integrity by a leader with a passive IFT because the leader would perceive that the follower adheres to a set of values that the leader deems appropriate, namely loyalty and obedience.

The proactive follower as perceived by a leader with a passive IFT

A leader with a passive IFT would consider an employee enacting proactive followership as engaging in activities that are beyond the scope of how followers should behave. These proactive behaviours may be considered potentially threatening to the leader's authority, or at best, unnecessary. For example, an employee who is asked to tidy up a stock room and instead reorganizes all of the inventory such that (in the opinion of the employee) it is more logically organized and easily accessible, a leader with a passive IFT may accuse the employee of wasting time that could have been better spent elsewhere. A leader with a passive IFT is likely to take a more autocratic than democratic approach to leading followers. Thus, proactive followership would constitute a particularly serious threat to his/her sense of success as a manager. Such a leader would consider a proactive follower to possess potentially counterproductive characteristics and lack confidence in that follower's ability to properly follow instructions.

While a leader with a passive IFT may recognize that a proactive employee has the requisite skills, knowledge, and abilities to be successful, this employee would likely be viewed as less efficient and recalcitrant in comparison to his/her passive counterpart.

Moreover, because an employee's proactive behaviour would be viewed as potentially threatening, a leader with a passive IFT would perceive the employee as being less benevolent than an employee displaying more passive followership. For instance, an employee attempting to rationally persuade such a leader to change his/her mind about a delegation decision could be regarded by that leader as manipulative and self-serving.

Finally, a leader with a passive IFT would likely find the principles valued by proactive employees (such as challenging his/her superior's ideas) to be inappropriate and may even interpret them as disloyalty or insubordination. Consequently, such a leader would view an employee displaying proactive followership as having little integrity.

Hypothesis 2. An employee who enacts more passive as opposed to more proactive followership will be viewed by the leader as displaying higher a) ability, b) benevolence, and c) integrity when the leader holds a more passive IFT.

3.3 Effect of Leader's Trusting Beliefs on Trusting Intentions

In accordance with the literature on organizational trust, it is suggested that the leader's trusting beliefs concerning an employee should lead to trusting intentions toward that employee. However, Lapierre and Bremner (2010) propose that this relationship is also moderated by the leader's IFT.

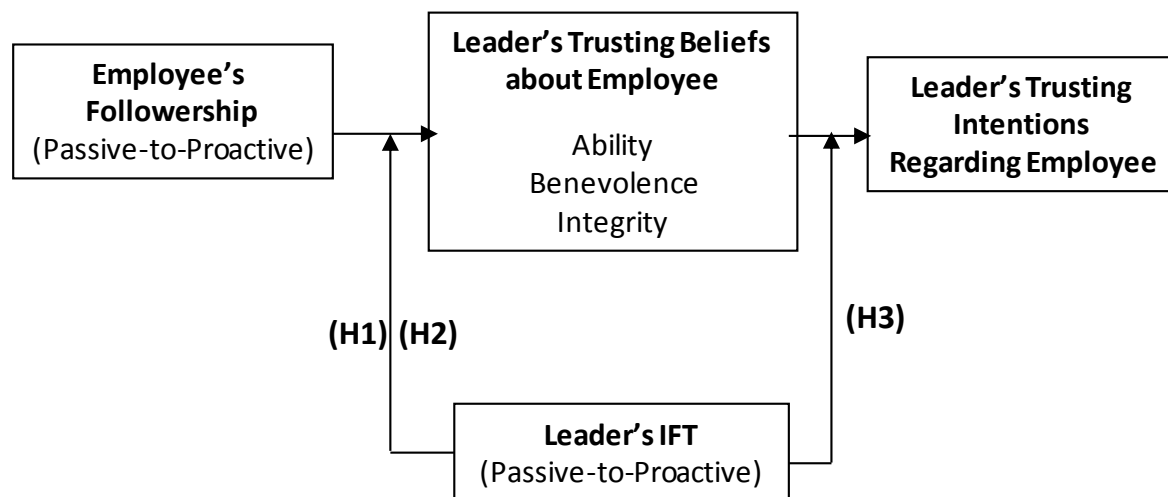
In Chapter 2, it was noted that trusting intentions refer to a person's willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another in the presence of risk. The magnitude of a leader's willingness to be vulnerable is likely to be contingent upon the nature of his/her IFT. Specifically, Lapierre and Bremner (2010) note that giving an employee more influence and decision-making freedom is much more consistent with the proactive IFT than with the passive IFT. When a leader has a proactive IFT, he/she expects the employee to co-lead the group with the leader. Such a leader should be more inclined to share his/her power with a follower, consequently making him or herself more vulnerable to that follower's actions.

In contrast, employees are expected to follow orders very closely when a leader has a passive IFT. In this scenario, the leader expects to have a high degree of control over the actions of his/her followers, consequently mitigating any vulnerability or risk. Thus, although it is possible for a leader with a passive IFT to have high trusting beliefs about an employee, the moderating effect of the leader's IFT is expected to limit the strength of the trusting intentions that would follow. This relationship is perhaps best illustrated using an example: while a leader with a passive IFT may be able to trust a follower to carry out specific tasks that he/she assigns, the leader would not feel that it would be appropriate for the follower to decide which tasks should be carried out on his/her own. In contrast, a leader with a proactive IFT would be much more comfortable allowing a trusted follower to determine how to spend his/her time.

Hypothesis 3. The positive effect of a leader's perceptions of an employee's a) ability, b) benevolence, and c) integrity on the leader's trusting intentions regarding that employee will be stronger when the leader has a more proactive IFT.

To summarize, it is expected that the leader is generally more likely to hold trusting intentions toward an employee when that employee's particular enactment of followership is consistent with the leader's IFT (i.e., when there is substantial alignment between the form of followership and the leader's IFT). However, a leader with a proactive IFT will hold stronger trusting intentions toward a follower he/she perceives as trustworthy than a leader with a passive IFT. A visual summary of these hypotheses is presented below in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 A conceptual framework summarizing the hypothesized relationships between followership, leader's trusting beliefs and intentions, and the moderating role of the leader's IFT



4. Methodology

In order to test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 3, survey data were collected from manager-subordinate dyads. Dyads are pairs of individuals who are considered to be nonindependent (i.e., they have something in common; Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006). Typical data collection and analysis of individuals operates under the assumption that all observations are independent. Manager-subordinate dyads are considered nonindependent because they share a common working relationship. Nonindependence can be more formally defined by explaining

that “if the two scores from the two members of the dyad are nonindependent, then those two scores are more similar to (or different from) one another than are two scores from two people who are not members of the same dyad,” (Kenny, et al., 2006, p. 4). In the present research, it was expected that nonindependence would be manifested in the form of a *partner effect*. This effect represents a situation where the characteristics or behaviours of one member of a dyad affect outcomes pertaining to the other member (Kenny, et al., 2006). For instance, it is expected here that a follower’s behaviour will influence his or her leader’s trust in that particular follower. While it was likely that, in reality, leader-follower relationships are characterized by mutual influence, the focus of the present research is on the influence of followers on their leaders.

This chapter details the recruitment process of the samples and the procedures employed to collect data. In addition, it contains the list of measures included in the questionnaires distributed to followers and their leaders. Certain statistical techniques for analyzing dyadic data require that the dataset be organized in a way that differs from how it would be organized when analyzing independent observations. This concept, along with the process of how the data were analyzed is also explained in detail in this chapter.

4.1 Samples and Data Collection Procedures

All data were collected under the assumptions that all respondents answered all questions honestly and that they understood the terms used in the questionnaire. Data were collected from two sources. Unfortunately, one of the sources yielded no usable dyads due to procedural difficulties. The first successful source will be discussed first, followed by the unsuccessful data collection attempt using the second source.

Participant Source 1: Study Response Project (Successful)

Participants were recruited using the Study Response Project (<http://www.studyresponse.net>), an online resource for researchers seeking participants. The Study Response Project is maintained by professors at Syracuse University and provides incentives to those individuals who qualify to participate in online surveys. In the case of the present research project, participants were required to be over the age of 18 and employed full time. Individuals sign up voluntarily to this service to serve as panellists who are occasionally invited to participate anonymously in various research projects. Registered users are provided with a unique 2-6 digit *StudyResponse ID* (SRID) which serves as a means of verifying their identity when filling out surveys. For the current project, Study Response provided a list of pairs of SRIDs which were used to pair dyad members together while maintaining their anonymity. Registered users identified by Study Response as meeting the age and employment requirements were pre-screened to verify whether they were willing to provide contact information for their work partner (either their manager or a subordinate), and whether that work partner was willing to participate in a paired study on a given topic. Those who agreed were asked to provide the contact information for the other member of their dyad. After verifying the legitimacy of the contact information provided, Study Response emailed these individuals and provided them with a URL used to access the survey online and their own unique 2-4 digit SRID. If both members of a dyad returned their surveys, each member was awarded a small monetary sum. Other researchers have successfully used Study Response to collect data from manager-subordinate dyads indicating that this service is a viable means of collecting dyadic data (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006).

The size of the sample surveyed using Study Response was 492 dyads (492 employees and 492 managers). Each member of the dyad was provided with a personalized version of the survey with questions to answer about the other member (see Appendix A for the manager and subordinate surveys). These surveys were created using an online service called Survey Monkey (<http://www.surveymonkey.com>) which enables users to create surveys, distribute them online (or print hardcopies for distribution), and perform basic data analysis. For more advanced analyses, data can be exported in spreadsheet format for use in SPSS or other statistical software. Links to the questionnaires were sent out in three waves. The first wave was sent to 150 dyads in which employees (who were already signed up with Study Response) invited their managers to participate. The second wave was distributed to 153 dyads. For 73 of these dyads, previously registered individuals who held management positions asked one of their employees to participate. For the remaining 80 dyads in wave 2, previously registered individuals invited their managers to participate. To ensure managers randomly selected an employee to participate, we included an extra paragraph in the recruitment letter. In this paragraph we instructed the manager to alphabetically list each full-time direct report who had been working for the manager for at least 4 months on a piece of paper. The manager was instructed to invite the employee who appeared first on the list to fill out a survey (this same employee was also to be the focal employee of the manager's survey). A third wave was distributed to another sample of 189 dyads in which employees invited their managers. Each wave of surveys was sent out approximately two weeks apart, and reminders were sent out after the first week. Response rates for each wave are presented in Chapter 5.

Participant Source 2: Contract Drilling Service Organization (Unsuccessful)

To acquire additional dyads, the Canadian division of an international contract drilling service organization based in France was also surveyed, albeit unsuccessfully. This company was chosen because it has a large pool of employees working in manager-subordinate dyads all occupying the same positions (i.e., drillers = managers, and driller helpers = subordinates). Furthermore, the company is not unionized and low performing employees are promptly let go to boost workflow efficiency and because of the safety hazards associated with underperformers in this line of work. Thus, the distribution of job performance was expected to be skewed such that the entire sample would have low variance and consist of moderate to high performers. This provided a partial control for follower performance and helped address the caveat mentioned in Section 3.2 regarding the requirement of minimally acceptable follower performance for the leader to perceive a follower as trustworthy.

To collect data from these employees, paper versions of the manager and subordinate surveys were distributed to 60 manager-subordinate dyads ($n = 120$) working in the field. The employees surveyed work throughout Canada and report to offices in Ontario, Alberta, and British Columbia. The majority of the employees surveyed in this organization communicate primarily in French (~60%). To ensure accurate responses from these employees, the surveys were translated, back-translated, and then validated by two subject matter experts. Survey content was identical to the surveys distributed to Study Response participants except that the terms “manager” and “subordinate” were substituted for “driller” and “helper”, respectively. Questions regarding industry did not need to be collected for these surveys either.

Surveys were distributed independently from each of the three Canadian offices. The procedure outlined below was followed by each to distribute the surveys:

1. Each driller and helper receive the following:
 - i. A recruitment (consent) form
 - ii. The appropriate survey (manager or subordinate) in the appropriate language (English or French)
 - iii. A return envelope
2. The job/crew list (a list of all drillers and helpers currently in the field) is used to determine which employees are currently paired with one another. Employees at each office use these lists to assign each driller and helper a unique code (e.g., D1, H1).
3. A list of matching codes is produced from the job/crew list and provided to the researcher for data analysis and to retain the anonymity of the respondents.
4. Each code is written on the appropriate survey and placed in an envelope addressed to the individual whose name matches the code on the survey. The survey is accompanied by a consent form in the appropriate language and a return envelope.
5. Surveys are distributed with paystubs during the next pay cycle.
6. Surveys are returned to the nearest office or to the foreman (crew supervisor).

This procedure was necessary to retain the anonymity of the respondents. The employees tasked with creating codes for drillers and helpers were not made aware of any survey results and the researcher analyzing the data was not exposed to any information that could potentially identify participants (e.g., name, address).

Employees were afforded 8 weeks to return their surveys. One reminder was sent out 4 weeks after the initial distribution date. After the elapsed time, only 10 surveys were returned (response rate of 8.3%). The low response rate was likely due to several reasons. First, employees were highly dispersed geographically, with most working in highly remote areas.

Employees rarely had access to mail and had an even more difficult time returning surveys through the mail system. Second, employees changed locations frequently, often jumping from project to project and spending little time at their home address. Employees commonly take up residence in remote camps near the job site while the project is ongoing. Third, employees likely perceived the survey content as irrelevant to their own work life (i.e., lack of face validity; Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). This may have been remedied with the presence of an internal champion to promote the relevance and importance of the survey to members of the organization. Finally, due to administrative difficulties in following the procedure outlined above, 4 of these surveys were not marked with unique identifiers and were thus unusable. Of the 6 remaining responses, there were no complete pairs thus rendering all surveys unusable.

4.2 Ethics Approval

In order to conduct a research project involving human subjects, it was necessary to apply to the University of Ottawa Office of Research Ethics and Integrity. After the successful defence of the thesis proposal on March 3rd, 2011, an application was submitted to the research ethics office on the same date. A summary of the project, detailed account of the recruitment process, and sample questionnaires were provided. On April 13th, 2011, feedback was received from the board and the application was given the status of delayed approval. After clarifying the means by which the data were to be conserved, the application was resubmitted. Full approval was subsequently granted on May 19th, 2011.

4.3 Measures

The measurement instruments used in the manager and subordinate versions of the surveys are outlined below. With one exception, the measures used in this research are established scales

that have consistently shown good reliability and validity. Previously reported internal consistency reliability coefficients are included for each measure (where available). The internal consistency reliability coefficients obtained in the current research are provided in Table 5.12 of the results section (Chapter 5). A summary of the scales used in each survey is presented in Table 4.1. The full version of each scale can be found in the Appendix A of this thesis.

Table 4.1 Summary of Measures used in Manager and Subordinate Surveys

Measure and Subscales		Authors	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Number of Items	Subordinate Survey	Manager Survey
Followership Behaviour		(Carsten, Uhl-bien, & West, 2008)	N/A	10	X	
Proxy 1: Submissiveness to Manager (Adapted)		(DeZoort & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 1997)	.79. to .83	5	X	
Proxy 2: Proactive Personality (Adapted)		(Bateman & Crant, 1993; Claes, Beheydt, & Lemmens, 2005)	.76 to .86	6	X	
Proxy 3: Voice (Adapted)		(Van Dyne & LePine, 1998)	.82 to .89	6	X	
Proxy 4: Rational Persuasion (Adapted)		(Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980)	.71	4	X	
Proxy 5: Constructive Resistance		(Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001)	.82	5	X	
Implicit Followership Theories (IFTs)		(Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009)	.78 to .86	9		X
Supervisor-rated Task Performance		(Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008)	.86	4		X
Trusting Beliefs	Ability	(Mayer & Davis, 1999)	.85 to .93	6		X
	Benevolence		.87 to .95	5		
	Integrity		.82 to .96	6		
Trusting Intentions		(Schoorman & Ballinger, 2006)	.84	7		X

Both subordinate and manager versions of the survey included specific demographic variables. Participants were asked to indicate their gender, age, industry, position tenure, tenure with the organization, relationship tenure with dyad partner, and the number of full-time direct reports (i.e., span of control; this question was asked of managers only). Subordinates were also asked to indicate their specific occupation. They were first required to select the job family their occupation fell under. Once selected, they were presented with a drop-down menu consisting of all of the positions within that particular job family. Job families and positions included in the survey were taken from the directory available on the O*NET Code Connector (<http://www.onetcodeconnector.org>). The O*NET database provides a wealth of information on hundreds of standardized occupations. Most occupations on O*NET are associated with an interest code consisting of two or three letters which correspond to the nature of the work environment and the vocational personality profile that is likely to fit most appropriately with the work environment and work outcomes. These codes, termed Holland Occupational Themes, or simply Holland Codes, were developed to classify both work environments and vocational personality types to help aid in finding a fit between individuals and their work (Holland, 1997). The codes, abbreviated as RIASEC, are termed Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional. Realistic occupations involve work activities that require practical hands-on problems and solutions (e.g., labourers, electricians). Investigative occupations require an extensive amount of thinking and involve working with ideas, searching for facts, or solving problems mentally (e.g., market research analysts, chemists). Artistic occupations can be done without following a clear set of rules. These occupations typically involve working with patterns and designs and require self-expression (e.g., painters, actors). Social occupations involve helping others. They require teaching, working, and/or frequently

communicating with people (e.g., food servers, counselling psychologists). Enterprising occupations can involve executive decision-making and leading people. They often involve risk-taking and require individuals to start up and carry out projects (e.g., general managers, lawyers). Conventional occupations involve following a strict set of procedures and routines. These occupations usually exist within a clearly defined organizational hierarchy and have a clear line of authority (e.g., cashiers, accountants).

For the current research, this classification system was of interest because of its utility for objectively classifying occupations into environments where various types of behaviours are preferred or required. For instance, proactivity would likely not only be valued, but required for high performance and success in enterprising occupations. In contrast, conventional occupations are likely to require passivity and strict obedience to authority. Six dummy variables were created indicating whether or not each subordinate's occupation was characterized by each of the Holland codes. Six separate variables were deemed appropriate because each of the six facets vary independently of one another. To enter this data, the principal investigator looked up the occupation of each respondent on O*NET and entered the top three Holland Codes associated with the position manually into SPSS.

Subordinate Survey

In the subordinate version of the survey, participants were asked to answer a series of questions about their own behaviour when interacting with their supervisor. The measures included in this survey are described below. The full scales can be found in Appendix A.

Followership behaviour was measured using a 10 item scale developed by Carsten et al. (2008). The domain of followership behaviours (passive to proactive) are captured in this scale.

These items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*). This scale has no previous data associated with it. To safeguard against this scale having unacceptable levels of reliability and validity, seven additional measures were included in to serve as proxies of followership behaviour.

Followership Proxy 1: Submissiveness to manager was measured using a 5 item scale that was adapted from a scale developed by DeZoort and Roskos-Ewoldsen (1997). These items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*). This scale was originally intended to measure authoritarian submission to the will of established authorities in general but was modified to capture the degree to which a subordinate is submissive to his/her specific manager. High scores on this scale were intended to exemplify passive followership.

Followership Proxy 2: Proactive personality. The Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) was developed by Bateman and Crant (1993) and validated by Claes and associates (2005). This 6 item scale was adapted so items would capture self-reported behaviour that was engaged in specifically in relation to one's leader (as opposed to general patterns of self-reported initiative at work). These items were measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *never*; 5 = *always*). High scores on this scale were intended to exemplify proactive followership behaviour.

Followership Proxy 3: Voice is proactive behaviour that is intended to be constructive. It involves making innovative suggestions for change or recommending improvements to standard procedures despite disagreement from others (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). It was measured using an adapted 6 item measure developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998). Items were reworded so that the voice behaviour measured was directed at respondents' manager instead of the work group as a whole. Items were answered using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*;

5 = *strongly agree*). Higher scores on this scale should serve to measure proactive follower behaviour.

Followership Proxy 4: Rational persuasion is a form of upward influence tactic that involves the use of logic or bargaining (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985). It was measured using a 4 item scale adapted from Kipnis et al. (1980). Items were changed so they referred to “my manager” and the fourth item was changed from “wrote a detailed plan” to “explained a detailed plan” to broaden its applicability to occupations where writing a proposal is infrequently done or not possible. Participants responded by indicating how frequently they used rational persuasion tactics with their supervisor on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *never*; 5 = *always*). More frequent attempts at this influence tactic should serve to measure proactive follower behaviour.

Followership Proxy 5: Constructive resistance (negotiating) was measured using a 5 item scale developed by Tepper et al. (2001). Negotiating involves an effort to engage in a meaningful dialogue with one's manager to provide a reason for refusing the manager's request. Participants indicated on a 5-point Likert-type scale how often they chose to constructively resist their supervisor's request when it was perceived as unreasonable (0 = *I cannot remember ever using this tactic*; 4 = *I use this tactic very often*). Higher scores on the negotiating scale should serve to measure proactive follower behaviour.

Manager Survey

In the manager version of the survey, participants were asked to respond to questions about their own IFT, and a series of questions about a randomly selected direct report. This survey employed each of the scales described below. The full scales used in the manager survey can be found in Appendix A.

Implicit Followership Theories (IFTs) were measured using a 9 item scale developed by Carsten and Uhl-Bien (2009). Each item was measured using a 6-point Likert-type scale (*1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree*). The authors of the scale note that a 6-item response scale is typical of research on implicit theories. This is because individual's beliefs about implicit theories are thought to be stable and well-defined, thus eliminating the need for a neutral mid-point in the scale (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009). There is some previous data supporting the reliability and validity of this scale. Data were collected from three separate samples of fulltime employees (the third sample also contained MBA students) comprised of 185, 209, and 212 participants, respectively. The data collected with the IFT scale shows good internal consistency reliability for each sample (Cronbach's alpha = .86, .80, and .78, respectively). The same data also provide evidence of discriminant validity from personal characteristics of the sample (e.g., gender) and nomological validity in relation to personal beliefs and attitudes (e.g., need for approval), and follower behaviour (e.g., voice behaviour).

Supervisory-rated task performance was measured using a 4 item scale (Walumbwa, et al., 2008). Items were answered using a 5-point Likert-type scale (*1 = consistently performs way below expectations; 5 = consistently performs way above expectations*). This scale was included to control for dyads where the employee had unacceptably low levels of performance and would not be trusted by the leader regardless of the alignment between the follower's behaviour and the leader's IFT.

Trusting beliefs in the manager's subordinate was measured with a 17 item scale developed by Mayer and Davis (1999). To appropriately measure this construct, the target of each question was changed from "top management" to "my employee". The scale is comprised of three subscales, namely a 6 item scale measuring ability, a 5 item scale measuring benevolence, and a

6 item scale measuring integrity. Each item was measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*).

Trusting intentions toward the manager's subordinate were measured using a 7 item scale (Schoorman & Ballinger, 2006). To appropriately measure this construct, the target of each question was changed from “my supervisor” to “my employee”. Each item was measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*). This measure was created based on an original four-item trust scale developed by Mayer and Davis (1999). Due to issues with the internal consistency reliability with the original measure, Schoorman and Ballinger (2006) developed and tested a new measure with an additional 3 items. This scale demonstrated a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of .84 on a sample of veterinary hospital employees and has been suggested to be the most promising measure of trusting intentions to date (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007).

4.4 Procedures Employed for Statistical Analyses

Data were analyzed in several phases. This section describes the following topics in detail: data coding, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and how hypotheses were tested.

Data Coding

In order to analyze dyadic data so that the proper analyses can be conducted, the manager-subordinate dyads had to be organized such that each dyad represents one case in the data set (Kenny, et al., 2006). Cases were originally organized such that each dyad consisted of two cases: one case for the manager, and one case for the subordinate. A new variable, “Dyad”, was

created to pair each manager and subordinate in the data set. After assigning the proper number to each individual case, the data set was sorted by this variable and the following SPSS syntax was applied to combine each dyad in to a single case:

```
CASESTOVARS
  /ID = Dyad
  /GROUPBY = INDEX .
```

Organizing the data set in this way enables the treatment of paired manager and subordinate cases as nonindependent. This is essential to detect the desired partner effect (in this case, the influence of the subordinate's behaviour on his or her manager).

Exploratory Factor Analyses: Identification of Latent Constructs

In order to ensure that each set of items measures the construct(s) they are intended to measure, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) should be conducted on each of the scales included in the manager and subordinate surveys (Lattin, Carroll, & Green, 2003). This is especially important for scales that have little to no prior data associated with them such as the measure of followership behaviour developed by Carsten and colleagues (2008). To factor analyze each scale principal axis factoring (PAF) was used. Unlike the more commonly used principal components analysis (PCA), PAF recognizes that items may not be measured with perfect accuracy. This is especially useful when measuring psychological constructs because most measures used contain at least some degree of random error (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). PCA is most appropriate for data reduction (i.e., the reduction of a large set of measured variables to a smaller set that retains the maximum amount of information from the full set of variables as possible), not for identifying the latent constructs (Fabrigar, et al., 1999). Factors were rotated using direct oblimin rotation; a form of oblique, or nonorthogonal, rotation.

Oblique rotation allows the latent factors that emerge to be correlated (Fabrigar, et al., 1999). This form of rotation is most appropriate because there is theoretical reason to believe that the constructs employed by this research are correlated. Specifically, it is expected that passive and proactive forms of followership will be negatively correlated, passive and proactive dimensions of IFTs will be negatively correlated, and each dimension of trusting beliefs will be positively correlated. It is expected that the followership and IFT scales will produce two factor solutions. This is because these scales contain reverse scored items, which have been shown to load on separate factors even though they represent the same latent construct (Schriesheim & Eisenbach, 1995). A solution with two negatively correlated factors for the IFT scale is also consistent with previous research (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009).

The overarching goal of conducting exploratory factor analyses on the items measuring subordinate behaviour was to ensure that each adapted scale was unidimensional and that scales that were intended to measure proactive and passive followership were negatively correlated with each other. The purpose of conducting exploratory factor analyses on the manager-measured items (e.g., trust and IFT) was simply to ensure that each item measured their intended constructs.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a form of structural equation modeling (SEM) that is used to evaluate a measurement model specified a priori. CFA determines how well a series of indicator variables (e.g., questions on a survey) “fit” with a given amount of theoretically specified latent constructs. Each indicator reflects one of the latent factors previously specified by the researcher (Kline, 2005). Accordingly, a CFA measurement model is appropriate for the

proposed research because it distinguishes between observed and latent variables (Kline, 2005). Proactive followership, IFTs, and trust are all examples of latent variables or hypothetical constructs. It would be unrealistic to assume that a hypothetical construct could be accurately captured using only one indicator variable. Thus, multiple indicators (survey items) are used to represent each latent variable. CFA is advantageous for the present research because it accounts for imperfect score reliability of measured variables, producing corrected and more realistic loadings and provides indicators of overall model fit (e.g., Chi-Square, AIC, RMSEA, and CFI; Kline, 2005). Measures of model fit are also useful for comparing other competing factor structures to the hypothesized structure. A model that is theoretically argued a priori is stronger when it is shown to be more empirically valid than other theoretically plausible alternatives. Specifying alternative measurement models and comparing their fit statistics to the hypothesized model is one way of accomplishing this.

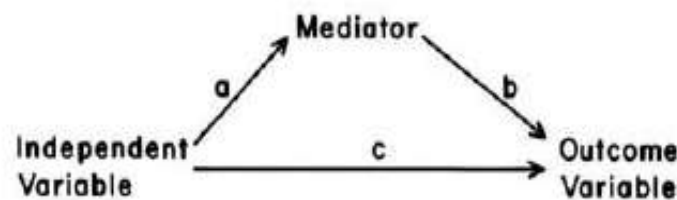
Hypothesis Testing

To test the hypotheses outlined above several methods were employed. First, an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression procedure outlined by Preacher and Hayes (2008) that allows simultaneous estimation of the path coefficients in a multiple mediator model was used to examine the direct and indirect effects of followership on leaders' trusting beliefs and trusting intentions, respectively. Second, interaction effects were tested with a procedure gleaned from Baron and Kenny (1986), and Cohen and Cohen (1975) to determine the moderating effects of leader IFT. Third, the Baron and Kenny procedure was supplemented with a procedure outlined by Hayes and Matthes (2009) that is used to probe for the specific nature of interactions if a significant interaction term is found. These procedures are explained in more detail below.

Preacher and Hayes (2008): SPSS Macro INDIRECT

This study proposes trusting beliefs as a mediating variable between followership and trusting intentions. In essence, the mediating variable intervenes and explains the relationship between the independent (followership) and the outcome (trusting intentions) variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Hypothetical instances of full (paths A and B), and partial mediation (paths A, B and C) are illustrated below in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Diagram displaying hypothetical full and partial mediation (Source: Baron & Kenny, 1986)



To test for mediation traditionally, three regression equations are run (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In the first equation, the mediator is regressed on the independent variable (path A). In the second equation, the outcome variable is regressed on the independent variable (path C). Finally, the dependent variable is regressed on both the independent and mediating variables (paths B and C). For full mediation to be present, paths A and C from first two equations must be significant, and path C must be reduced to nonsignificance in the third equation (however, other researchers have more recently argued that path C need not be significant initially for the detection of mediation; see Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Partial mediation is present when the coefficient in the third equation associated with path C is reduced when compared to equation two, but still remains significant (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

The hypothesized model consists of three mediators (i.e., leader's perceptions of an employee's ability, benevolence, and integrity). Thus, this process would need to be repeated

three times and would yield three different sets of results. With the SPSS macro developed by Preacher and Hayes (2008) termed “INDIRECT”, all paths for all three mediators are tested simultaneously. In addition, all paths are adjusted for the potential influence of covariates. A summary of the estimated direct, indirect, and total effects of the independent variable on the outcome variable is also provided.

Preacher and Hayes (2008) articulate several advantage of using the INDIRECT macro over employing several simple mediation models. First, testing the total indirect effect of the independent variable on the outcome variable is essentially equivalent to conducting a simple linear regression with several predictors (in this case, the mediators) to determine if an overall effect exists. If an effect is found, it can be concluded that the relationship between the independent and outcome variable is mediated by the proposed set of mediators. Second, it is possible to determine to what extent a particular mediating variable mediates the relationship between the independent and outcome variables in the presence of the other proposed mediators. Third, because the INDIRECT macro considers all mediators simultaneously, parameter bias caused by variable omission is reduced (this can be a significant problem when running several linear regressions). Finally, the relative contribution of each mediator can be easily compared using this approach (i.e., the magnitude of each indirect effect can be compared).

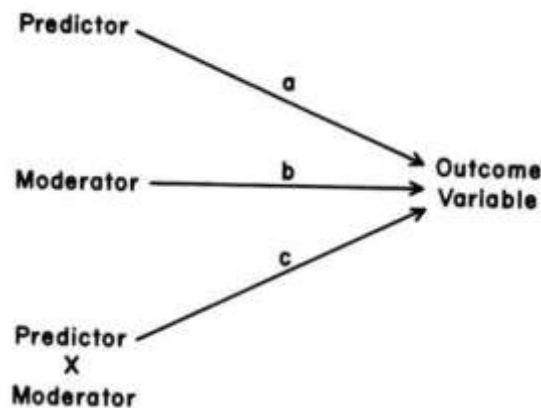
However, it is important to note that when mediating variables are correlated, one variable may act as a suppressor over the other mediators (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). In this sense, multicollinearity poses the same problems in a multiple mediator model as it does in ordinary multiple regression. In the current hypothesized model, each dimension of trusting beliefs is likely to be correlated with the other dimensions. Thus, correlations between each mediator

should be examined, as well as collinearity statistics, and it may be necessary to tease apart the individual contribution of each mediator.

Testing for Interactions

A variable is considered a moderator when it affects the direction or strength of the relationship between a predictor variable and an outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). This relationship is illustrated in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2 Model of predictor, moderator and interaction (product) term (Source: Baron & Kenny, 1986)



The third variable (Predictor X Moderator) is called the interaction term. This term represents a product term that is created by multiplying the predictor and moderator variables together. The product term is said to “carry” the interaction effect because it is often substantially correlated with the independent and moderator variables and the interaction only emerges once its constituents have been partialled from the product term (Cohen & Cohen, 1975). It is recommended that prior to creating the product term, all variables involved should be mean centered (i.e., subtract the mean from each score to give the variable a mean of zero). Mean centering the constituent variables of the product term aids in the interpretability of the

regression coefficients (Cortina, Chen, & Dunlap, 2001). For a moderation hypothesis to hold true, the relationship between the product term and the outcome variable must be significant (path C).

This study proposes that the leader's IFT will moderate the relationship between followership and each dimension of the leader's trusting beliefs. The leader's IFT is also proposed to moderate the relationship between each dimension of the leader's trusting beliefs and the leader's trusting intentions.

5. Results

This section outlines the characteristics of the sample, and provides detailed results for each phase of data analysis.

5.1 Sample Characteristics

Of the 492 dyads sampled from Study Response, a total of 156 usable dyads were obtained after filtering out unpaired respondents and individuals with high amounts of missing data or careless response patterns. Respondents whose partner did not respond were excluded from subsequent analysis due to the inability to detect a partner effect within the dyad. This resulted in a response rate of approximately 32%. A summary of respondents broken down by distribution wave is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Summary of Missing, Careless, and Usable Dyads Obtained from Sampling Procedure

Wave	Collection Method	Dyads Sampled	Dyads with Careless Responses	Dyads Missing Member(s)	Useable Dyads	Percent Usable
1	Subordinates inviting managers	150	37	33	80	53.33
2	Managers inviting subordinates	73	44	18	11	15.07
	Subordinates inviting managers	80	38	16	26	32.50
3	Subordinates inviting managers	189	50	100	39	20.63
Total		492	169	167	156	31.71

Empirical work has found that the prevalence of inattentive, careless, or random responses varies widely (between 3.5% and 50%) depending on the methods used for assessing careless responses, the level of motivation of the sample, the type of environment the survey was administered in, and the presence or absence of stern warning and threat of consequences for responding dishonestly (Meade & Craig, 2011). For the current sample, a total of 693 individuals (out of $n = 984$ single respondents) provided responses of some form. Of these 693 individuals, 241 provided responses that were deemed careless, 5 returned surveys with extremely high amounts of missing data (rendering them unusable), and 447 provided usable responses. Thus, of all of the responses received from the sample, 35.5% of these were extremely careless, random, or possessed high amounts of missing data. This resulted in the elimination of 169 dyads or 52% of dyads that provided a response of some form. This is a very high figure that could be the result of respondents filling out surveys in an anonymous environment where the researcher can exert little to no control over participants (i.e., electronic survey distribution; Meade & Craig, 2011).

Four different techniques were employed to determine if responses were made carelessly. First, surveys completed within abnormally short timeframes were examined. Survey Monkey

keeps track of the speed at which respondents fill out surveys. Thus, filters were applied to respondents to extract individuals who filled out their surveys in a short amount of time. This cut-off point was determined by the rate at which the principal investigator was able to fill out the surveys in the shortest possible time, while still ensuring responses were provided conscientiously. The manager version was completed in 5 minutes and 20 seconds, and the subordinate survey was filled out in 4 minutes and 10 seconds. It was determined that five minutes and four minutes were appropriate cut-offs for the manager and subordinate surveys, respectively. Because the principal investigator was intimately familiar with the subject matter, it was assumed that it was unlikely that individuals who filled out their survey in substantially less time were capable of responding concisely. All surveys that met this criterion were examined on an individual basis and eliminated if response patterns were random or careless (e.g., answering 5 for every item on the survey including negatively worded items). The vast majority of careless respondents were eliminated in this manner ($n = 230$). Second, the dataset was examined for extremely high levels of missing data. 2 respondents who skipped most of the survey items were eliminated from subsequent analysis (the remaining 3 of the 5 missing cases were eliminated using the first screening method).

To entertain the possibility that participants may have responded carelessly within a longer timeframe, two additional post hoc screening techniques suggested by Meade & Craig (2011) to detect careless responses were employed. The first was a consistency index termed “Psychometric Antonyms”. Several pairs of items in which one was positively worded and the other was negatively worded were identified in the survey and respondents who answered both positive and negative pair members in the same manner were flagged and examined more closely. After examining each survey on a case by case basis, 11 respondents who provided

answers carelessly in a systematic manner were eliminated. The second technique was an analysis of outliers in SPSS. Variables were plotted and several cases were identified as providing outlier responses consistently or at an extremely abnormal magnitude (e.g., some managers claimed to have 1000 direct reports). After closer inspection, 3 additional cases were eliminated from subsequent analyses. All three of these cases were also flagged using the Psychometric Antonyms technique.

A specific breakdown of demographics for both members of the 156 usable dyads, as well as aggregated manager-subordinate statistics is presented in Table 5.2. Respondents were roughly equal in terms of gender (53.4% male and 46.6% female) and had a mean age of 42.7 years ($SD = 10.67$). Average position tenure was 8.5 years ($SD = 7.13$) and average tenure with the organization was 10.0 years ($SD = 7.40$). Slight to occasionally moderate discrepancies were found between self-report measures of relationship tenure between managers and subordinates. Thus, the average was taken of the two responses. Averaged relationship tenure had a mean of 5.9 years ($SD = 4.28$). Managers and subordinates worked across a variety of industries; the top industries being: manufacturing (18.6%), professional, scientific, and technical services (12.8%), health care and social assistance (9%), finance and insurance (8.3%), and educational services (7.7%). A breakdown of the top 9 industries is presented in Table 5.3. In addition to their industry, subordinates reported their specific occupation which was classified in to the top 2-3 Holland codes (reported by O*NET) that best represented their work environment. A summary of subordinate position characteristics are presented in Table 5.4. O*NET did not possess Holland Codes for the positions selected for 20 of employees. Thus it was impossible to determine whether or not the positions of these 20 individuals could be classified by each of the six Holland Codes. This is reflected in the far right column of Table 5.4.

Table 5.2 Summary of Demographics for Managers, Subordinates, and Full Sample

Demographic Variable	Statistics	Managers	Subordinates	Full sample
Age	Mean	45.44	39.90	42.65
	SD	10.27	10.37	10.67
	n	154	156	310
Gender	% Male	59.0	47.4	53.4
	% Female	41.0	51.9	46.6
	% Missing	0	0.6	< 0.01
	n	156	155	311
Position Tenure	Mean	10.07	6.91	8.49
	SD	8.19	5.49	7.13
	n	155	156	311
Organization Tenure	Mean	11.72	8.28	10.00
	SD	8.17	6.11	7.40
	n	155	156	311
Relationship Tenure	Mean	6.21	5.50	5.86 (dyad average)
	SD	5.16	4.06	4.28
	n	155	156	155 (dyads)
Direct Reports	Mean	54.61	-	-
	SD	153.52	-	-
	n	156	-	-

Table 5.3 Breakdown of Top 9 Industries

Industry	Dyads (n)	Percentage of sample (%)
Manufacturing	29	18.6
Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services	20	12.8
Health Care and Social Assistance	14	9
Finance and Insurance	13	8.3
Educational Services	12	7.7
Administrative and Support Services	7	4.5
Construction	7	4.5
Government	7	4.5
Retail Trade	7	4.5
Other	40	25.6
Total	156	100

Table 5.4 Breakdown of Subordinate Job Types by Holland Codes

Holland Code	n (%)		
	Characteristic of Job	Not Characteristic of Job	Undetermined*
Realistic	63 (40.4)	73 (46.8)	20 (12.8)
Investigative	53 (34.0)	83 (53.2)	
Artistic	12 (7.7)	124 (79.5)	
Social	28 (17.9)	108 (69.2)	
Enterprising	71 (45.5)	65 (41.7)	
Conventional	116 (74.4)	20 (12.8)	

Note: *No Holland code data available for position on O*NET

5.2 Factor Analysis

To determine the best way to operationalize followership behaviour, several EFAs were run on each of the employee behaviour scales. As mentioned in Chapter 4, all EFAs were run using principal axis factoring extraction and employed direct oblimin rotation to allow for correlated factors. Factor loadings with an absolute value below 0.30 were deemed insignificant and suppressed, as is commonly done (Fabrigar, et al., 1999). Another commonly used rule of thumb is to suppress any loading below 0.40. However, it is also important to examine the relative loadings of an item on each factor and consequently this rule was deemed too liberal (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986).

First, a large EFA was run on the followership behaviour measure and all of the followership proxy measures. This EFA consisted of 36 items (from 6 scales). Using the eigenvalue > 1 rule, this factor analysis produced a six factor solution (Lattin, et al., 2003). However, some have argued that the eigenvalue > 1 rule is mathematically arbitrary and of little practical use under some circumstances (Fabrigar, et al., 1999; Wood, Tataryn, & Gorsuch, 1996). Thus, parallel analysis was conducted using Monte Carlo simulation software developed by Marley W. Watkins.

Parallel analysis involves comparing the results of an EFA with a set of eigenvalues that have been generated using random data from 100 - 1000 samples with the same amount of variables and subjects (in this case 36 and 148, respectively). It is recommended that 1000 random samples are run because the computing power behind the calculations is not an issue and because the more samples that are run, the more reliable the eigenvalues (Fabrigar, et al., 1999). The eigenvalues produced from the random data are the means of the 1000 samples of random data. These eigenvalues are then compared with the eigenvalues from the actual EFA. If the randomly generated mean eigenvalue is greater than the eigenvalue generated from the EFA, then it can be disregarded. For making more difficult decisions about the number of factors to retain, a 95% confidence interval can be generated from the random data (mean eigenvalue $\pm$ 1.65 SD). If the value of the eigenvalue from the EFA is greater than the 95th percentile score, then it can be concluded that this eigenvalue was not a result of sampling error and should be retained (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004). A comparison of the eigenvalues obtained from the first full EFA and the Monte Carlo simulation are presented in Table 5.5 for comparative purposes. Using parallel analysis, the EFA of all followership scales presented a three factor solution. Eigenvalues 4, 5, and 6 were not retained because they were smaller than the randomly generated mean eigenvalues. The third eigenvalue was retained because it exceeded the 95th percentile of the third randomly generated mean eigenvalue (1.8097). The EFA was re-run specifying a three factor solution and patterns and structure loadings were examined (see Table 5.6 for the full listing of factor loadings).

Table 5.5 Full Followership EFA: Comparison of Actual and Simulated Eigenvalues

Eigenvalue #	EFA Eigenvalue (Random Eigenvalue)	Standard Deviation of Random Eigenvalue
1	12.021 (1.9759)	.0792
2	6.426 (1.8349)	.0601
3	1.999 (1.7274)	.0499
4	1.487 (1.6357)	.0422
5	1.373 (1.5567)	.0400
6	1.042 (1.4818)	.0360

Table 5.6 Full Followership EFA: Communalities, and Pattern and Structure Loadings

Scale Items	Communalities	Pattern Matrix Loadings			Structure Matrix Loadings		
		Factor			Factor		
		1	2	3	1	2	3
Followership1.Passive	.596		.647			.645	
Followership2.Passive	.729		.761			.804	-.423
Followership5.Passive	.449		.351			.453	-.396
Followership6.Passive	.492	.518			.472		
Followership9.Passive	.664		.572			.670	-.487
Submissive1	.764		.785			.816	-.416
Submissive2	.787		.811			.850	-.438
Submissive3	.612		.623			.665	-.352
Submissive4	.597		.538			.595	-.383
Submissive5	.581		.677			.692	-.322
Followership3.Proactive	.563	.453			.514	-.356	.387
Followership4.Proactive	.622	.400	-.364		.442	-.416	.322
Followership7.Proactive	.666	.682			.653		
Followership8.Proactive	.699	.631			.651		
Followership10.Proactive	.702	.738			.746		
ProactivePersonality1	.624	.527	.311		.566		
ProactivePersonality2	.693	.628			.644		
ProactivePersonality3	.748	.760			.771		
ProactivePersonality4	.747	.761			.749		
ProactivePersonality5	.850	.870			.873		
ProactivePersonality6	.767	.795			.786		

Voice1	.638	.763			.734		
Voice2	.727	.820			.798		
Voice3	.762	.700			.713		
Voice4	.700	.693			.702		
Voice5	.717	.769			.776		
Voice6	.752	.748			.755		
RationalPersuasion1	.652	.589			.639		.328
RationalPersuasion2	.705	.560			.601		
RationalPersuasion3	.708	.707			.720		
RationalPersuasion4	.709	.703			.704		
ConstructiveResistance1	.677			.665		-.432	.696
ConstructiveResistance2	.768			.729		-.465	.785
ConstructiveResistance3	.798			.840	.303	-.419	.880
ConstructiveResistance4	.770			.822		-.387	.845
ConstructiveResistance5	.704			.758		-.409	.813

Notes: Bolded and italicized items were deemed problematic; Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization; Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

The three factors explained a total of variance of 56.8%. Only one item intended to measure passive followership was found to be particularly problematic (Followership6.Passive: “I respect my manager's decisions even if I do not agree with them”). This item was eliminated from further analyses because it loaded on the same factor as all of the items intended to measure proactive followership. In addition, one item intended to measure proactive followership was found to have problematic cross loadings on factors 1 and 2 and was subsequently eliminated (ProactivePersonality1: “I work with my manager to fix things that need to be addressed”).

Table 5.7 Full Followership EFA (after removal of problematic items): Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2	3
1	1	-.131	.289
2	-.131	1	-.496
3	.289	-.496	1

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

After removing problematic items, another EFA was run. Item loadings either remained the same or possessed slightly stronger loadings on the appropriate factor. Thus, the only remaining issue to be dealt with was the presence of three factors. Table 5.7 presents the factor correlation matrix of the EFA that was run after eliminating the two items. Factor 1 was slightly negatively correlated with factor 2 (-.131) and was moderately correlated with factor 3 (.289). Factors 2 and 3 had a highly negative correlation (-.496). It seems that factors 1 and 3 represent forms of proactive followership and that factor 2 represents passive followership. Factor 2 consists of behaviours such as unquestioning obedience and following orders despite perceiving them as problematic. These are behaviours that clearly represent passive followership. Examples of items in this factor include: “I go along with my manager's directives even when I think they are problematic” and “I do what my manager tells me, even when I can't see the reason for it”. The common theme among factor 1 seems to be proactive followership that is *collaborative in nature*. This factor consists of behaviours such as proposing new ideas, making suggestions, influencing the manager to listen to an idea, and partnering with the manager to advance the needs of the organization. Examples of items in this factor include: “I partner with my manager to find better ways to do things” and “I make constructive suggestions to my manager for improving how our work gets done”. In contrast, factor 3 seems to represent proactive followership that is *challenging in nature*. This factor consists of behaviours such as resisting the manager's orders or ideas and proposing an alternative, and warning the manager that his/her suggestion will likely not benefit the organization as expected. Examples of items in this factor include: “I explain that it should be done in a different way” and “I present logical reasons for doing the task differently or at a different time” (both items are responses to a question stem asking respondents to describe how often they use a particular tactic when resisting a request

made by their manager). This factor likely represents the most extreme form of proactive followership, where the employee pays little heed to the manager's formal authority and is not afraid to set the manager straight when necessary.

The factor correlation matrix supports this interpretation. The highly negative correlation between factors 3 and 2 implies that passive followers are extremely unlikely to resist or challenge their leader. The slight negative correlation between factors 1 and 2 suggests that followers who are very obedient may still choose to suggest new ideas or collaborate with the leader to benefit the organization. Finally, the moderate positive correlation between factors 1 and 3 suggests that some proactive followers may occasionally challenge their leader, but some will not. In sum, it appears that the three factor solution represents a continuum of followership ranging from submissive (factor 2), to collaborative (factor 1), to challenging (factor 3). This is consistent with Carsten and associates' (2010) findings that employees can construct their roles as passive, active, or proactive followers (active followers did not resist or challenge their leaders, but proactive followers would not be afraid to do so).

Consequently, items were divided into three different scales and aggregated. The first scale consisted of 9 items representing passive followership and had a Cronbach's Alpha (internal consistency reliability or α) of .899. The second scale represented active or collaborative followership and consisted of the remainder of the adapted proactive personality scale and the voice scale because these seemed to best capture the essence of the interpreted factor and possessed the highest factor loadings. This collaborative followership scale consisted of 11 items with an internal reliability of $\alpha = .938$. The third scale represented proactive or challenging followership and consisted of 5 items with an internal reliability of $\alpha = .904$. It should be noted that this third scale is simply the constructive resistance measure developed by Tepper and

associates (2001). Separate EFAs were run on each scale and single factor solutions emerged. The full item listings for each of these scales are included in Appendix A.

Next, a CFA was run on the leader's IFT scale using AMOS. It was expected that results would be consistent with Carsten and Uhl-bien's (2009) scale validation studies: a two factor solution with a moderate negative correlation between factors. Running the CFA provided acceptable regression weights with significant critical ratios for each item. The two factors specified also had a correlation of -.32. Table 5.8 presents unstandardized and standardized regression weights as well as error variances for each item.

Table 5.8 CFA of Leader's IFT Scale: Regression Weights and Error Statistics

Scale Items	Unstandardized Weights		Standardized Weights		Error Terms	
	Factor		Factor		Variances	SE
	1	2	1	2		
LIFT1Proactive	1	-	.689	-	.446	.058
LIFT2Proactive	.996	-	.587	-	.760	.093
LIFT3Proactive	.888	-	.489	-	1.007	.120
LIFT4Proactive	1.326	-	.882	-	.202	.047
LIFT5Proactive	1.297	-	.881	-	.352	.058
LIFT6Passive	-	1	-	.848	.561	.096
LIFT7Passive	-	1.096	-	.849	.671	.115
LIFT8Passive	-	.861	-	.689	1.183	.152
LIFT9Passive	-	1.023	-	.817	.753	.116

Indices of overall model fit for the two factor IFT scale were poor ($\chi^2/df = 3.666$; RMSEA = .131; TLI = .858; GFI = .881; PGFI = .509). Consequently, modification indexes (MI) were computed to pinpoint areas of misfit. Only one abnormally large MI value was found

that could be interpreted: the covariance between error terms 2 and 3. Error correlations are often the result of respondents' perceived redundancy in item content (Byrne, 2001). Given that items 2 and 3 on the IFT scale were of a very similar nature (i.e., challenging the leader's assumptions or opinions), allowing these error terms to covary seemed theoretically justifiable. This modification improved model fit statistics to the point where they reached minimally acceptable levels ($\chi^2/df = 2.263$; RMSEA = .09; TLI = .933; GFI = .931; PGFI = .517; Byrne, 2001). Thus, consistent with Carsten and Uhl-bien's (2009), treatment of the IFT scale, items representing passive followership were reverse coded and the scale was collapsed to produce a single dimension termed *LIFT*. This scale consisted of 9 items and had good internal reliability ($\alpha = .809$).

To determine the factor structure of the scale measuring the leader's trusting beliefs another CFA was run. It was expected that a three factor solution would emerge with three positively correlated factors representing ability, benevolence, and integrity. Table 5.9 presents the regression weights and error statistics for the trusting beliefs scale. Consistent with the existence of a higher order construct (trusting beliefs), each factor was significantly positively correlated with the other factors (see Table 5.10 for factor correlation matrix).

Table 5.9 CFA of Trusting Beliefs Scale: Regression Weights and Error Statistics

Scale Items	Unstandardized Weights			Standardized Weights			Error Terms	
	Factor			Factor			Variances	SE
	1	2	3	1	2	3		
Ability1	.909	-	-	.747	-	-	.201	.026
Ability2	.898	-	-	.719	-	-	.231	.030
Ability3	.965	-	-	.690	-	-	.314	.040
Ability4	1.059	-	-	.803	-	-	.189	.027
Ability5	.968	-	-	.669	-	-	.356	.044

Ability6	1	-	-	.780	-	-	.198	.027
Benevolence1	-	1.210	-	-	.804	-	.255	.039
Benevolence2	-	1.419	-	-	.796	-	.373	.056
Benevolence3	-	.690	-	-	.394	-	.828	.096
Benevolence4	-	1.181	-	-	.802	-	.247	.038
Benevolence5	-	1	-	-	.706	-	.323	.043
Integrity1	-	-	.641	-	-	.604	.415	.051
Integrity2	-	-	.908	-	-	.762	.346	.049
Integrity3	-	-	1.012	-	-	.752	.458	.064
Integrity4Reversed	-	-	.943	-	-	.560	1.131	.137
Integrity5	-	-	.657	-	-	.643	.356	.045
Integrity6	-	-	1	-	-	.758	.431	.060

Table 5.10 CFA of Trusting Beliefs Scale: Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2	3
1	1	.697	.812
2	.697	1	.602
3	.812	.602	1

Indicators of overall model fit were very poor ($\chi^2/df = 4.078$; RMSEA = .141; TLI = .727; GFI = .703; PGFI = .533). Examination of the MIs revealed that item 3 on the Benevolence scale cross-loaded significantly on the Integrity construct. There were also a few other minor cross-loadings. However, this scale has been used frequently in other research (see McEvily & Tortoriello, 2005) and has been validated, thus no modifications were made to preserve the generalizability of results. Furthermore, calculating the internal reliabilities of ability ($\alpha = .873$), benevolence ($\alpha = .804$), and integrity ($\alpha = .826$) yielded excellent results. These three dimensions were aggregated into three separate variables.

A final EFA was conducted on the trusting intentions scale. It was expected that two factors would emerge because the scale contained reverse-scored items which tend to load on a separate factor (Schriesheim & Eisenbach, 1995). A two factor solution emerged with eigenvalues of 2.803 and 1.497 (followed by .806) and explained 61.4% of the variance in the construct. The two factors were negatively correlated (-.346). Results of the EFA are presented in Table 5.11. The scale had an internal reliability of $\alpha = .738$.

Table 5.11 EFA of Leader's Trusting Intentions Scale: Communalities, and Pattern and Structure Loadings

Scale Items	Communalities	Pattern Matrix Loadings		Structure Matrix Loadings	
		Factor		Factor	
		1	2	1	2
TrustIntentions1	.540	.807		.758	
TrustIntentions2	.369	.547		.579	
TrustIntentions3	.745	.369		.442	-.337
TrustIntentions4	.626	.744		.737	
TrustIntentions5Reversed	.700		-.696		-.654
TrustIntentions6Reversed	.727		-.637	.358	-.685
TrustIntentions7Reversed	.679		-.802	.359	-.831

Notes: Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring; Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

5.3 Correlations

A bivariate correlation matrix was computed for all of the control variables and main variables of interest (presented in Table 5.12). Several demographic variables were not included in the interest of space and because they had mostly nonsignificant correlations. Specifically, no position or organizational tenure variables had any significant correlations (aside from correlations due to multicollinearity; e.g., two tenure variables). Two additional demographic variables were computed that are not shown in this table. The first was a dummy coded variable

representing gender (dis)similarity of dyad members. The second was a measure of the absolute difference in age between dyad members. Neither of these variables correlated significantly with any other variables.

Table 5.12 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Scale Reliability Coefficients for Study and Control Variables

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	L. Gender	1.59	.49	-														
2	F. Gender	1.48	.50	.344**	-													
3	L. Age	45.44	10.26	.117	-.077	-												
4	F. Age	39.9	10.36	-.105	-.118	.512**	-											
5	Dyad Tenure	5.86	4.28	-.022	-.069	.383**	.448	-										
6	Direct Report	54.61	153.51	.149	.042	-.067	-.102	-.145	-									
7	Performance	4.05	.79	-.034	-.110	.194*	.137	.119	-.002	(.932)								
8	Passive	3.22	.81	-.004	.037	-.186*	-.058	-.042	.148	-.030	(.899)							
9	Collaborative	3.99	.67	.138	-.014	.067	.066	.074	.020	.352**	-.132	(.938)						
10	Challenging	2.82	.97	.013	.011	.107	.003	.031	-.112	.115	-.559**	.247**	(.904)					
11	LIFT	4.39	.79	-.016	-.094	.093	.039	.068	.006	.180*	-.138	.328**	.123	(.809)				
12	Ability	4.36	.57	-.131	-.200*	.283**	.215**	.187*	-.089	.626**	-.171*	.447**	.149	.318**	(.873)			
13	Benevolence	4.05	.67	-.052	-.113	.052	.068	.099	.024	.590**	-.036	.534**	.162*	.414**	.666**	(.804)		
14	Integrity	4.16	.71	-.182*	-.247**	.210**	.251**	.193*	-.161*	.471**	-.222**	.302**	.203*	.371**	.670**	.611**	(.826)	
15	Trust Intent	3.72	.63	-.149	-.167*	.178*	.200*	.145	-.062	.389**	-.212**	.225**	.201*	.422**	.581**	.594**	.609**	(.738)

Notes: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); Internal consistency reliabilities in brackets on diagonal; n ranged from 151 to 156 due to missing data; L = Leader, F = Follower

Correlations between Demographic and Study Variables

Leader age had significant correlations with performance, passive followership, ability, integrity, and trusting intentions. Although these correlations may be spurious, they suggest that older leaders tended to trust their followers more, give them higher performance ratings, and had followers who were less passive (but not necessarily more proactive). Significant correlations between follower age and ability, integrity, and trusting intentions suggest that older followers were trusted more by their leaders. Furthermore, leaders who had worked longer with a follower appeared to perceive their follower as more trustworthy. This was evidenced by correlations between dyad tenure, ability, and integrity.

A second correlation matrix was computed with for the purpose of investigating the correlations between the Holland Codes and demographic variables. For ease of presentation a separate compact table is presented in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Correlations between Holland Codes and Demographic Variables

Holland Code	L. Gender	F. Gender	L. Age	F. Age	Dyad Tenure	Direct Report
R	.135	.225*	-.027	-.070	-.021	.198*
I	.075	.199*	-.063	-.208*	-.233*	.033
A	-.272**	-.179*	-.079	-.173*	.006	-.085
S	-.247**	-.318**	-.030	.133	-.035	-.079
E	.021	-.78	.104	.119	-.124	.133
C	.292**	.169*	-.114	.042	-.054	.118
Notes: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); n ranged from 132 to 136 due to missing data; L = Leader, F = Follower, R = Realistic, I = Investigative, A = Artistic, S = Social, E = Enterprising, C = Conventional						

The correlations found between the Holland Codes and the demographic variables are as follows: Subordinates working in social and artistic occupations tended to be female whereas subordinates working in realistic, investigative and conventional occupations tended to be male.

Subordinates working in social and artistic occupations also tended to have female managers whereas subordinates working in conventional positions tended to have male managers.

Subordinates working in investigative and artistic positions also tended to be younger.

Subordinates working in investigative positions tended to be working with their manager for less time. Finally, subordinates working in realistic occupations tended to have managers who had greater spans of control (i.e., more direct reports).

Once again, a separate correlation matrix was computed specifically to examine the relationships between the Holland Codes and the study variables. These correlations are presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Correlations between Holland Codes and Study Variables

Holland Code	Performance	Passive	Collaborative	Challenging	LIFT	Ability	Benevolence	Integrity	Trust Intent
R	.037	.180*	-.168	-.120	-.108	-.110	-.054	-.238**	-.175*
I	-.036	-.040	-.089	.063	-.046	-.084	-.057	-.093	-.091
A	.141	-.087	-.008	.157	.017	.063	.128	.128	-.085
S	.170*	.031	.066	-.039	.092	.134	.090	.218*	.118
E	-.195*	-.195*	.106	.152	.043	.028	-.078	.057	.069
C	-.144	-.025	.036	-.061	.015	-.111	-.089	-.136	.066
Notes: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); n ranged from 132 to 136 due to missing data; R = Realistic, I = Investigative, A = Artistic, S = Social, E = Enterprising, C = Conventional									

Subordinates in realistic occupations tended to behave more passively and tended to be viewed by their leaders as possessing less integrity. Managers were also less inclined to trust subordinates in realistic occupations. In contrast, subordinates in social occupations received higher performance ratings overall and were perceived by their managers as possessing higher integrity. Finally, subordinates in enterprising occupations behaved less passively and received lower performance ratings from their managers.

Correlations between Study Variables

Several interesting correlations emerged between independent, mediator, and dependent variables. Performance was highly correlated with leaders' trusting beliefs and intentions, as well as with collaborative followership. Passive followership was either negatively or nonsignificantly correlated with the leader's trusting beliefs and integrity. Collaborative followership had strong positive correlations leaders' trusting beliefs and integrity. Finally, challenging followership had positive, but weaker correlations with leaders' trusting beliefs and integrity. The three dimensions of trusting beliefs were highly correlated with each other and with trusting intentions.

5.4 Hypothesis Testing

To test the research hypotheses, the model was first tested without the presence of the moderator variable to determine the extent to which each dimension of trusting beliefs mediated the relationship between each form of followership and trusting intentions. All regressions were run including the following variables as covariates (control variables): Leader and follower age, gender, position tenure, organization tenure, relationship tenure, number of leader's direct reports, leader's ratings of follower performance, leader's IFT, and each of the six Holland Codes.

Variance inflation factors (VIF) and tolerance statistics were examined among all predictor, mediator, and control variables to detect multicollinearity. The highest VIF values were present among the tenure variables, as expected, and did not exceed 4.7. VIF values > 10 are said to be problematic in most cases (Lattin, et al., 2003). Tolerance statistics did not show any issues

either: the lowest value was .211 and was also associated with a tenure variable. Tolerance statistics approaching zero are said to be problematic (Lattin, et al., 2003). Finally, condition indices (CI) were examined. The table did not reveal any combinations of variables that had excessively high amounts of variance (i.e., above .5 each) associated with larger CIs (i.e., above 30). Thus, no variables were removed from the model due to issues of multicollinearity. Tables 5.15 to 5.20 illustrate the results of the mediation regressions that involve regressing each dimension of trusting beliefs on all dimensions of followership and covariates, and regressing trusting intentions on all dimensions of trusting beliefs, followership and covariates. For the sake of clarity, the tables are divided up to express the direct and indirect effects of followership and are expressed in terms of the paths found in **Figure 2**.

Table 5.15 Model Summaries for Mediation Effects of Passive, Collaborative, and Challenging Followership on Trusting Intentions through Ability, Benevolence, and Integrity

Statistic		Outcome Variable							
		Ability		Benevolence		Integrity		Trust Intent	
R		.7498		.7912		.7181		.8166	
R ²		.5622		.6260		.5156		.6669	
R ² adj		.4684		.5459		.4118		.5828	
F		5.9938		7.8109		4.9675		7.9252	
df1	df2	21	98	21	98	21	98	24	95
P		.0000		.0000		.0000		.0000	

Table 5.16 Summary of Direct Effects of Followership Dimensions on Ability (“a paths”)

	Effect	SE	t	p
“a paths”				
Passive	-.0993	.0625	-1.5887	.1154
Collaborative	.1853**	.0650	2.8497	.0053
Challenging	-.0542	.0541	-1.0028	.3184
Covariates				
L. Age	.0129*	.0058	2.2459	.0270
F. Age	-.0026	.0052	-.5111	.6104
L. Gender	-.2056*	.0921	-2.2321	.0279
F. Gender	.0050	.0912	.0554	.9560
L. Pos Tenure	.0017	.0079	.2134	.8315
F. Pos Tenure	.0007	.0126	.0528	.9580

L. Org Tenure	-.0102	.0080	-1.2684	.2077
F. Org Tenure	.0047	.0131	.3578	.7213
Dyad Tenure	.0116	.0159	.7316	.4661
Direct Report	-.0002	.0002	-1.0099	.3150
Performance	.3649**	.0580	6.2971	.0000
LIFT	.0635	.0484	1.3118	.1927
Realistic	-.0012	.1025	-.0118	.9906
Investigative	.0479	.0982	.4877	.6269
Artistic	-.1055	.1981	-.5324	.5957
Social	.0625	.1285	.4863	.6278
Enterprising	.0886	.1029	.8613	.3912
Conventional	.0107	.1706	.0629	.9500
Notes: **. Indicates significant effect at $p < .01$; *. Indicates significant effect at $p < .05$; all effects computed within same regression model				

Table 5.17 Summary of Direct Effects of Followership Dimensions on Benevolence (“a paths”)

	Effect	SE	t	p
“a paths”				
Passive	-.0412	.0680	-.6066	.5455
Collaborative	.3327**	.0707	4.7041	.0000
Challenging	-.0144	.0588	-.2448	.8071
Covariates				
L. Age	-.0007	.0063	-.1105	.9123
F. Age	.0022	.0056	.3824	.7030
L. Gender	-.2348*	.1002	-2.3431	.0211
F. Gender	.0730	.0992	.7354	.4638
L. Pos Tenure	-.0073	.0086	-.8463	.3995
F. Pos Tenure	.0004	.0137	.0288	.9771
L. Org Tenure	.0012	.0087	.1352	.8928
F. Org Tenure	-.0120	.0143	-.8429	.4013
Dyad Tenure	.0271	.0173	1.5696	.1197
Direct Report	.0001	.0003	.2346	.8150
Performance	.3039**	.0630	4.8202	.0000
LIFT	.2406**	.0527	4.5660	.0000
Realistic	.0361	.1115	.3237	.7468
Investigative	-.0331	.1068	-.3101	.7572
Artistic	.2541	.2156	1.1788	.2413
Social	-.0813	.1398	-.5811	.5625
Enterprising	-.0588	.1119	-.5252	.6006
Conventional	.0896	.1856	.4827	.6304
Notes: **. Indicates significant effect at $p < .01$; *. Indicates significant effect at $p < .05$; all effects computed within same regression model				

Table 5.18 Summary of Direct Effects of Followership Dimensions on Integrity (“a paths”)

	Effect	SE	t	p
“a paths”				
Passive	-.2455**	.0822	-2.9857	.0036
Collaborative	.0630	.0855	.7367	.4631
Challenging	-.0139	.0711	-.1961	.8450
Covariates				
L. Age	-.0015	.0076	-.2028	.8397
F. Age	.0148*	.0068	2.1791	.0317
L. Gender	-.2963*	.1212	-2.4459	.0162
F. Gender	-.0261	.1199	-.2180	.8279
L. Pos Tenure	-.0032	.0104	-.3064	.7599
F. Pos Tenure	-.0245	.0165	-1.4819	.1416
L. Org Tenure	.0020	.0106	.1930	.8474
F. Org Tenure	-.0102	.0173	-.5926	.5548
Dyad Tenure	.0466*	.0209	2.2314	.0279
Direct Report	-.0004	.0003	-1.2246	.2237
Performance	.2626**	.0762	3.4451	.0008
LIFT	.2014**	.0637	3.1611	.0021
Realistic	-.1646	.1348	-1.2213	.2249
Investigative	.0068	.1291	.0526	.9581
Artistic	-.0248	.2606	-.0952	.9243
Social	-.0189	.1690	-.1117	.9113
Enterprising	.0280	.1353	.2073	.8362
Conventional	-.1164	.2243	-.5190	.6049
Notes: **. Indicates significant effect at $p < .01$; *. Indicates significant effect at $p < .05$; all effects computed within same regression model				

Table 5.19 Summary of Direct Effects (“b and c paths”): Effect of Each Dimension of Followership and Trusting Beliefs on Trusting Intentions

	Effect	SE	t	p
Outcome variable: Trusting Intentions				
“b paths”				
Ability	.2644*	.1059	2.4967	.0143
Benevolence	.4601**	.0947	4.8593	.0000
Integrity	.1341	.0788	1.7030	.0918
“c paths”				
Passive	-.0889	.0627	-1.4173	.1597
Collaborative	-.1713*	.0698	-2.4533	.0160
Challenging	.0475	.0521	.9108	.3647
Covariates				
L. Age	-.0016	.0057	-.2862	.7753
F. Age	.0072	.0051	1.4054	.1632

L. Gender	.0019	.0929	.0200	.9841
F. Gender	-.0636	.0877	-.7245	.4705
L. Pos Tenure	-.0052	.0077	-.6837	.4958
F. Pos Tenure	-.0141	.0122	-1.1601	.2489
L. Org Tenure	.0096	.0078	1.2322	.2209
F. Org Tenure	-.0163	.0127	-1.2866	.2013
Dyad Tenure	.0234	.0157	1.4912	.1392
Direct Report	.0000	.0002	.0467	.9629
Performance	-.1271	.0682	-1.8625	.0656
LIFT	.0877	.0522	1.6781	.0966
Realistic	-.1527	.0992	-1.5385	.1272
Investigative	-.0872	.0943	-.9250	.3573
Artistic	-.6160**	.1922	-3.2053	.0018
Social	.0432	.1238	.3489	.7280
Enterprising	-.0868	.0993	-.8739	.3844
Conventional	-.0489	.1641	-.2982	.7662
Notes: **. Indicates significant effect at $p < .01$; *. Indicates significant effect at $p < .05$; all effects computed within same regression model				

Table 5.20 Summary of Indirect Effects (“ab paths”): Mediation of the Effect of Passive, Collaborative, and Challenging Followership on Trusting Intentions through Ability, Benevolence, and Integrity

	Effect	Bootstrapping (95% CI)		
		SE	Lower	Upper
Mediator: Ability				
Passive	-.0263	.0219	-.0767	.0082
Collaborative	.0490	.0359	-.0008	.1363
Challenging	-.0143	.0199	-.0590	.0216
Mediator: Benevolence				
Passive	-.0190	.0348	-.0895	.0533
Collaborative	.1531*	.0539	.0486	.2598
Challenging	-.0066	.0290	-.0666	.0491
Mediator: Integrity				
Passive	-.0329	.0255	-.0927	.0068
Collaborative	.0084	.0177	-.0195	.0523
Challenging	-.0019	.0133	-.0319	.0243
Notes: *. Indicates indirect effect significantly departs from zero at α .05; 5,000 bootstrap samples; effects calculated based on regressions for a, b, and c paths				

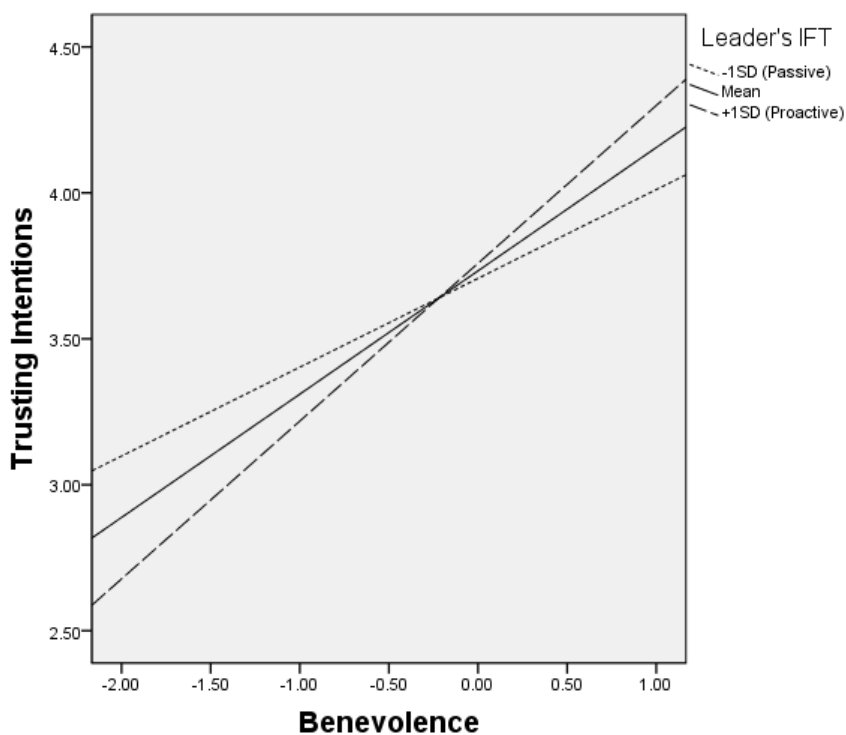
All of the regressions run were significant at $p < .00001$. As expected, each dimension of trusting beliefs significantly influenced trusting intentions to some degree in the appropriate

direction (ability, $b = .2644$, $p < .05$; benevolence, $b = .4601$, $p < .001$; integrity, $b = .1361$, $p < .10$). The incremental variance in trusting intentions explained by integrity was not significant likely because of the high correlations between each component of trusting beliefs. The majority of the direct and indirect effects of each dimension of followership were insignificant. Passive followership had a negative direct effect on integrity ($b = -.2455$, $p < .01$) and no significant indirect or direct effects on trusting intentions. Collaborative followership had significant direct effects on ability ($b = .1853$, $p < .01$) and benevolence ($b = .3327$, $p < .001$), and an unexpected negative direct effect on trusting intentions ($b = -.1713$, $p < .05$) despite the presence of mediating variables. This direct effect does not make sense theoretically. As such, one plausible explanation is that this negative coefficient is actually a manifestation of unmodeled indirect effects (i.e., additional unmodeled mediators; Hayes & Preacher, 2011). In addition, the coefficient may have been exaggerated due to measurement error in any of the mediator variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Collaborative followership also had a significant indirect (mediated) effect on trusting intentions through benevolence (Coeff = .1531, LLCI = .0486, ULCI = .2598). Challenging followership did not have any significant direct or indirect effects of any kind.

Several covariates had significant influences on trusting beliefs despite the inclusion of the study variables. Leader gender had a negative influence on ratings of subordinate ability ($b = -.2056$, $p < .05$), benevolence ($b = -.2348$, $p < .05$), and integrity ($b = -.2963$, $p < .05$) such that male leaders tended to rate their employees as possessing lower ability, benevolence, and integrity than female leaders. Leader age had a positive influence on ratings of subordinate ability ($b = .0129$, $p < .05$), whereas follower age had a positive influence on leader's perceptions of subordinate integrity ($b = .0148$, $p < .05$). Dyad tenure had a significant positive influence on

Examining the significance of the product terms among the 12 regressions computed revealed no significant interactions between any of the dimensions of followership and dimensions of trusting beliefs. Thus, hypothesis 1 and 2 were not supported. However, the product terms in regressions 11 and 12 were found to be significant, providing some support for hypothesis 3. MODPROBE, an SPSS macro, was used to produce the appropriate data points and plot the interactions using +1SD, -1SD, and mean scores for LIFT (Hayes & Matthes, 2009). These interactions are displayed in Figures 5.1 and 5.2.

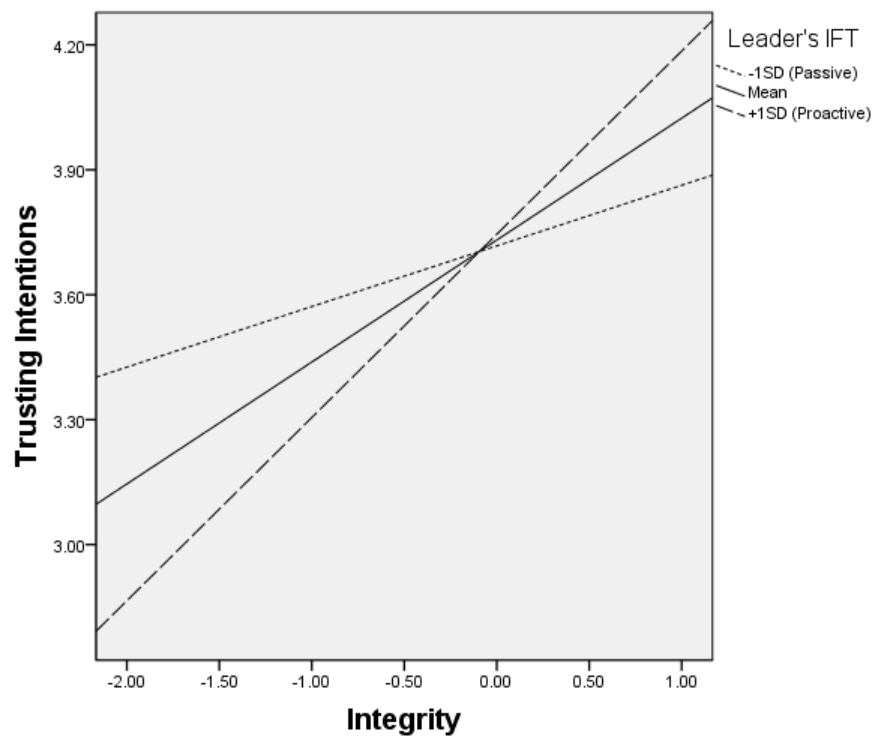
Figure 5.1 Moderating Effect of Leader IFT on Relationship between Benevolence and Trusting Intentions



The product term of Benevolence and LIFT contributed a marginally significant amount of variance to the model ($\Delta R^2 = .0156$, $F = 4.4244$, $p < .05$). After plotting the interaction, it was evident that as leaders perceived their followers as more benevolent, leaders with more proactive

IFTs tended to express slightly more of a willingness to make themselves vulnerable in the face of the follower. In contrast, leaders with more passive IFTs were less inclined to put themselves in a vulnerable position.

Figure 5.2 Moderating Effect of Leader IFT on Relationship between Integrity and Trusting Intentions



The product term of Integrity and LIFT also contributed a minor, but statistically significant amount of variance to the model ($\Delta R^2 = .0224$, $F = 6.4621$, $p < .05$). Mapping this interaction provided a similar (albeit slightly stronger) trend to the interaction between Benevolence and LIFT. This interaction can be interpreted in the same way. Leaders with more proactive IFTs appear to be slightly more inclined to expose themselves to risk at the hands of their follower when they believe they have higher integrity. Leaders with more passive IFTs are less inclined to do so. In sum, only hypothesis 3b and hypothesis 3c were supported.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

The following section contains a discussion of the findings, limitations of the research, and implications for research and practice.

6.1 Discussion

The results provided no support for Hypothesis 1 or 2, but partial support for Hypothesis 3. Specifically, moderated regression analyses showed no interactions between any forms of followership and dimensions of leaders' trusting beliefs. However, moderated regression analyses did show that benevolence and integrity, two dimensions of trusting beliefs, interacted with leaders' IFTs to increase leaders' trusting intentions when their IFT was more proactive, as opposed to passive. In sum, this research provides some evidence for Lapierre and Bremner's (2010) proposition that leaders with predominantly proactive IFTs are more willing to make themselves vulnerable to the actions of their followers. Other results emerged that were not hypothesized and are also worthy of discussion.

Effects of Passive, Collaborative, and Challenging Followership

Although Hypothesis 1 and 2 were not supported in the current research, some significant relationships between followership and leaders' trusting beliefs did emerge. Specifically, passive followership appears to be negatively associated with leaders' perceptions of follower's integrity. However, this relationship did not manifest itself in the leaders' trusting intentions. This suggests that although high amounts of passive followership may cause a leader to believe that his/her follower behaves inconsistently and does not adhere to a set of agreeable principles, these

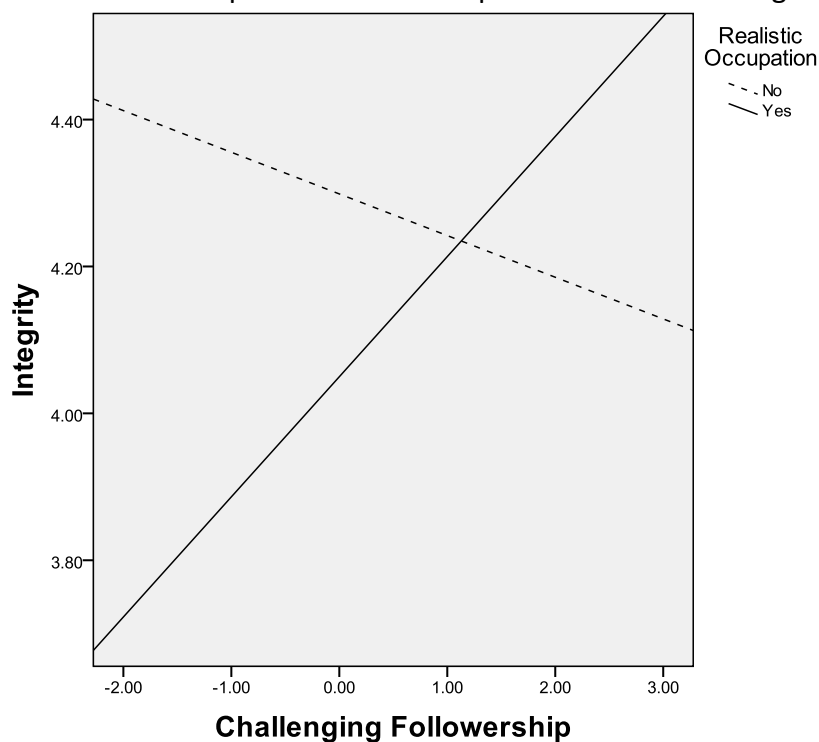
perceptions will not affect the leader's tendency to allow him/herself to be vulnerable to risk (Mayer, et al., 1995). The concept that passive followership influences leaders' perceptions of follower trustworthiness but not leaders' trusting intentions makes intuitive sense: passive followers unquestioningly obey their leader. They never question their leader's authority or challenge ideas put forth by their leader. Consequently, passive followers could be viewed by their leader as having weak values or a weak self-concept (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Despite garnering negative perceptions from their leaders, passive followers' reluctance to speak out would render them harmless in the eyes of leaders, consequently having no impact on leaders' willingness to be vulnerable to them.

Collaborative followership had a positive relationship with leaders' perceptions of follower ability and benevolence, as well as an indirect effect on trusting intentions that was carried through benevolence. Leaders appear to appreciate their followers' proactively helpful acts and suggestions regardless of their IFT. This finding suggests that leaders with passive IFTs may not be opposed to proactivity as long as it is of an affiliative nature. Indeed, followers who go beyond the call of duty to partner with their leader and solve problems for the organization's benefit are likely to be perceived as altruistic and benevolent as opposed to threatening. These types of followership behaviours are similar to OCB-I directed at one's manager, which has been found to be significantly related to managers' ratings of employee task performance (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). It is little surprise that a leader would be more willing to share control with followers who are proactively considerate.

Finally, challenging followership had no relationship with any of the leader's trusting beliefs, even when different levels of leaders' IFTs were taken into account. As the most extreme form of proactive followership, it was surprising to see that it did not have a significant relationship

with any of the variables of interest. Consequently, a post hoc analysis was conducted purely for exploratory purposes to see if other variables may have masked the effects of challenging followership. After running several moderated regressions using the six Holland Codes as moderators, a significant interaction effect on integrity was found between challenging followership and realistic occupations ($\Delta R^2 = .0205$, $F = 3.9507$, $p < .05$). This interaction is depicted in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 Moderating Effect of Realistic Occupation on Relationship between Challenging Followership and Leader Perceptions of Follower Integrity



This is an interesting finding because it appears that occupation type may dictate how challenging followership is perceived by leaders. Realistic occupations are very hands-on and frequently involve the use of tools and heavy machinery. As such, situations where employee

safety is a concern are likely to arise frequently. Empirical evidence suggests that frequent and proactive safety-related communication in realistic occupations such as construction helps reduce the frequency of accidents (Kines, et al., 2010). Consequently, leaders may view employees who are outspoken about safety issues in this line of work as high in integrity because of the positive effect that proactive communication can have on the prevention of accidents in realistic occupations. It is likely that even leaders with passive IFTs may expect followers to speak up when safety-related concerns arise. In contrast, employees who speak out or against a leader in non-realistic occupations may be viewed as a nuisance because the issues in question are less likely to be of critical importance (at least in the mind of the leader).

This result should, of course, be taken with a grain of salt given the small size of the sample and post hoc nature of the analysis performed. It is clear that additional research is needed to determine the relative importance of followers' occupational characteristics and leaders' IFTs when determining the most appropriate form of followership to enact.

Interaction between Leader's IFT and Trusting Beliefs on Trusting Intentions

As predicted, the influence of the leader's perceptions of employee benevolence and integrity interacted with the leader's IFT to explain additional variance in trusting intentions, with a more proactive IFT strengthening the positive relationship between these two constructs. Although only marginal interactions (ΔR^2 of .0156 to .0224), they suggest that leaders with a more proactive IFT are more inclined to place trust in their followers than those with a more passive IFT, despite similar perceptions of follower trustworthiness. A significant interaction between the leader's perceptions of employee ability and IFT was not found. Arguments put

forth by Lapierre and Bremner (2010) offer some insight into these findings. As mentioned previously, giving an employee more influence and decision-making freedom is much more consistent with the proactive IFT than with the passive IFT. Because collaboration and constructive discussion are important to leaders with a proactive IFT, these individuals are most likely to afford trustworthy followers the influence to take part in influencing important decisions. On the other hand, leaders with a passive IFT are less inclined to allow the lines of the organizational hierarchy blur together. These individuals feel most comfortable keeping followers in their place and exercising a greater degree of control in their position. This rationale holds for leaders' perceptions of followers' benevolence and integrity, but not ability.

Leaders seem to consider perceptions of employee ability as equally important, regardless of their IFT, when making judgments about their willingness to be vulnerable to their employees. This may be because considering employees who display high performance for more difficult assignments or letting the most competent individuals exercise more influence over organizational outcomes are conventional means of rewarding and developing employees. Placing trust in employees for possessing a high degree of ability in their job is a concept that no leader would be uncomfortable with. Indeed, the employee possessing the most competence is likely to be the first individual to be considered for upcoming promotions and new, challenging assignments. Conversely, no leader could justify trusting an employee with more control over the organization if that employee possessed no inherent ability in his/her role.

Finally, it should be noted that leader IFT had a significant relationship with leaders' trusting beliefs such that leaders with more a proactive IFT perceived their employees as possessing higher benevolence and integrity. This relationship was not hypothesized but should be discussed. Leaders with a more proactive IFT seem to not only have a higher willingness to be

vulnerable, but also seem to be more inclined to perceive their employees as more benevolent and as having high integrity. The reason for this relationship is not readily apparent, but leaders with proactive IFTs may have a higher propensity to not only trust individuals, but also to believe that they are generally good-natured. Although further research is warranted, these results provide some preliminary support for the influence of IFT on leaders' propensity to trust.

6.2 Limitations

The contributions of this research that have been discussed above should only be interpreted while keeping several limitations in mind. First, data were collected cross-sectionally and the results of this research should be interpreted with some measure of caution. However, the use of an a priori theoretical framework and the data collection methods employed ameliorate this limitation substantially. Hypotheses were theoretically argued and proposed prior to the collection of data, making the results that supported these hypotheses much more convincing. Furthermore, the collection of self-reported behavioural data from subordinates and self-reported perceptual and attitudinal data from managers dispels much of the ambiguity in the causal direction of the results. It is unlikely that a leader's trusting beliefs about a particular follower would influence that follower's enactment of followership because such beliefs are unobservable by the follower. Distributing surveys to two different parties also served to control against common method bias in terms of followership and trusting beliefs. However, it should be noted that the hypotheses outlined in this thesis could be tested with even more certainty by using longitudinal methods or an experimental design.

A second limitation of this research is the sampling strategy employed. Data collected using Study Response has possesses a bias in coverage of North America because the population was restricted to individuals who have internet access and who have signed up for Study Response. Although respondents spanned a range of occupations and were quite diverse demographically, no claims to the generalizability or representativeness of the results can be made. The sampling strategy employed also prevented the practice of sampling multiple subordinates from a leader. Consequently, it is expected that the results obtained from the proposed research will not fully generalize to leader-group interactions. It is reasonable to assume that in most organizations managers or supervisors have a span of control that exceeds one employee. While the expected results may not directly apply to a leader's interactions with his/her group of followers, the proposed research can still generalize to and explain situations that call for differentiated and individual-focused leadership (Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010). This includes one-on-one interactions with followers and the display of preferential treatment of some followers over others. For instance, the results of this research suggest that a leader would place more trust in a follower who attempts to actively collaborate with the leader than in a follower who does not display proactivity and simply does as he/she is told.

A final limitation that should be noted is the size of the sample. The minimally acceptable sample size in research varies substantially depending on a number of factors such as the complexity of the model, the number of variables, the amount of missing data and so forth (Muthen & Muthen, 2002). Although a sample size of 156 typical of organizational research, the complexity of the model tested may have made detecting significant mediation and moderation effects difficult.

6.3 Implications for Research and Practice

The primary purpose of this study was to provide a greater understanding of how followers can influence their relationship with their leader. It was found that the congruence between a given follower's behaviour and his/her leader's IFT did not affect the leader's perceptions of follower trustworthiness in the current sample. However, significant results did emerge suggesting that passive followership and collaborative followership (i.e., affiliative proactive followership) had negative and positive influences on the leader's perceptions of employees' trustworthiness, respectively. These unexpected results highlight the need for future research on interpersonal trust and implicit followership theories within the context of leader-follower relationships and have a number of implications for guiding future research and practice.

The level of trust the leader places in his/her followers is one factor likely to influence the leader's subsequent choice of managerial style (Lapierre & Bremner, 2010). Thus, followers should be wary of the expectations of their leader and the situation and adjust their behaviour accordingly to receive the best leadership and work experience possible. This has implications for future research on leadership. When seeking to understand the circumstances in which leaders behave most effectively, researchers should carefully consider the role that followers play in influencing the leader's behaviour. Results suggest that collaborative (active) followership encourages the leader to trust followers and may lead to the leader providing greater decision-making latitude and increase delegation of important tasks. In addition, the results show that passive followership is consistently negatively related to leaders' trusting beliefs and intentions, irrespective of the leader's IFT. Consequently, employees who behave in a manner

that is consistent with the “traditional” notion of followers as subservient and submissive are likely to make a poor impression on their leaders.

Furthermore, exploratory results suggest that occupation type may play a role in dictating the appropriateness of certain followership behaviours. The finding that realistic occupations moderated the effectiveness of challenging followership is interesting and future research could examine a larger taxonomy of followership behaviours among an array of occupations.

Another contribution of this research that has not been specifically discussed so far is the emergence of a three factor solution of followership behaviour (passive – collaborative – challenging). This three factor solution is consistent with previous work (Carsten, et al., 2010) and suggests that submissiveness and proactive helpful behaviour are not mutually exclusive. Future research should examine the structure of followership behaviour in more detail as this research provides only preliminary quantitative evidence of the structure of followership.

In conclusion, the results of the proposed research have contributed to overcoming the dearth of empirical research focusing on the active role that followers play in the leadership process. This study is one of the few attempts of determining how followers influence their leaders' perceptions, and the only known effort at examining how the leader's IFT interacts with follower behaviour to affect these perceptions. More research on followership is warranted to illuminate the influence that followers have on their leaders, and to fully understand the leadership process (Shamir, 2007). This study is intended to serve as a solid step in the right direction in this quest for greater understanding of leadership, and followership.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Survey Measures

Subordinate (Follower) Survey Scales

Followership Behaviour (Carsten, Uhl-Bien & West, 2008)

5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

Please think about how you interact with your CURRENT MANAGER and indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with each of the following statements. When interacting with my manager in my workplace:

1. I go along with my manager's directives even when I think they are problematic. (Passive)
2. I do what my manager tells me to do without question. (Passive)
3. I question my manager's decisions when I feel it is necessary. (Proactive)
4. I communicate my ideas even when I know my manager may disagree. (Proactive)
5. I wait for my manager to express his/her opinions and then fall in line with what he/she thinks. (Passive)
6. I respect my manager's decisions even if I do not agree with them. (Passive)
7. I provide feedback to my manager about how his/her actions affect others. (Proactive)
8. I challenge my manager to consider alternative solutions to problems that arise. (Proactive)
9. I follow my manager's orders without proposing alternatives. (Passive)
10. I approach my manager about changes that could make us more effective at our work. (Proactive)

Proxy 1: Submissiveness to Manager – Adapted (DeZoort & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 1997)

5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

Please think about how you interact with your CURRENT MANAGER and indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with each of the following statements. When interacting with my manager in the workplace:

1. I do what my managers tells me, even when I can't see the reason for it.
2. I follow all directions from my manager; even those that seem unreasonable.
3. It is my duty to go along with the wishes of my manager.
4. It would be considered rebellion if I went against the wishes of my manager.
5. I always obey my manager.

Proxy 2: Proactive Personality – Adapted (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Claes, Beheydt, & Lemmens, 2005)

5-point scale (1 = never; 5 = always)

During the time you have been working with your CURRENT MANAGER, think about how often you have displayed the following behaviors in your job:

1. I work with my manager to fix things that need to be addressed.
2. I work with my manager to make things happen.
3. I champion new ideas to my manager.
4. I work with my manager to identify opportunities that will enhance the organization.
5. I partner with my manager to find better ways to do things.
6. I work with my manager to overcome obstacles and improve the workplace.

Proxy 3: Voice – Adapted (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998)

5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

Thinking about how you interact with your CURRENT MANAGER, please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with each of the following statements. When interacting with my manager in the workplace:

1. I develop and make recommendation concerning issues that affect the work I do with my manager.
2. I make constructive suggestions to my manager for improving how our work gets done.
3. I communicate my opinions about work issues to my manager even if my manager may disagree with me.
4. I keep well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to my manager.
5. I get involved in issues that affect the quality of work experience with my manager.
6. I speak up to my manager with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Proxy 4: Rational Persuasion – Adapted; not included in hypothesis testing (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980)

5-point scale (1 = never; 5 = always)

Thinking about the last few weeks on your job, please rate how frequently you used the following behaviors to influence your CURRENT MANAGER in order to obtain something that you wanted/needed.

1. I used logic to convince my manager.
2. I explained the reasons for my request.
3. I presented my manager with information in support of my point of view.
4. I explained a detailed plan to my manager that justified my ideas. (Adapted question)

Proxy 5: Constructive Resistance (Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001)

5-point scale (0 = I cannot remember ever using this tactic; 4 = I use this tactic very often)

Thinking about how you interact with your CURRENT MANAGER, please indicate how often you use the tactics described below whenever you resist a request made by your manager:

1. I asked for additional clarification and explanation.
2. I explain that it should be done in a different way.
3. I convince my manager to reassess whether or not the task is worthwhile.

4. I explain that the task will not yield the expected benefits.
5. I present logical reasons for doing the task differently or at a different time.

Manager (Leader) Survey Scales

Implicit Followership Theories (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2009)

6-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree)

* = Reverse scored

In all places of work, there are leaders and there are followers. For example, in a restaurant, the restaurant manager would be the leader and the waiter would be the follower. On a construction site, the foreman would be the leader and the welder would be the follower. In a hospital, the doctor would be the leader and the nurse would be the follower.

We want to know how YOU think followers SHOULD behave with their leader. Please indicate the extent to which you agree/disagree with each of the following statements. When answering, please think GENERALLY about followers and leaders in different places of work.

1. Followers should be on the lookout for suggestions they can offer to superiors.
2. Followers should communicate their opinions, even when they know leaders may disagree.
3. As part of their role, followers must be willing to challenge superiors' assumptions.
4. Followers need to proactively identify problems that could affect the organization.
5. Followers should be proactive in thinking about things that could go wrong.
6. Because one is a follower, he/she does not have to worry about being involved in decision-making.*
7. Being a follower means that you don't have to think about changing the way work gets done.*
8. At the end of the day, followers cannot be held accountable for the performance of a unit.*
9. Followers do not have to take on much responsibility for thinking about how things get done.*

Supervisor-rated Task Performance (Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008)

5-point scale (1 = consistently performs way below expectations; 5 = consistently performs way above expectations)

The following questions refer to the employee you must focus on for this survey. Thinking about your employee's PERFORMANCE at his/her job, please respond to the following items.

1. All in all, how competently does your employee perform his/her job?
2. In your estimation, how effectively does your employee get the work done?
3. How would you judge the overall quality of your employee's work?
4. An overall summary of your employee's performance.

Trusting Beliefs (Mayer & Davis, 1999)

5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

* = Reverse scored

The following questions refer to the employee you must focus on for this survey. Please choose the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each statement:

Ability

1. My employee is very capable of performing his/her job.
2. My employee is known to be successful at the things he/she tries to do.
3. My employee has much knowledge about the work that needs to be done.
4. I feel very confident about my employee's skills.
5. My employee has specialized capabilities that can increase our performance.
6. My employee is well qualified.

Benevolence

7. My employee is very concerned about my welfare.
8. My needs and desires are very important to my employee.
9. My employee would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
10. My employee really looks out for what is important to me.
11. My employee will go out of his/her way to help me.

Integrity

12. My employee has a strong sense of justice.
13. I never have to wonder whether my employee will stick to his/her word.
14. My employee tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.
15. My employee's actions and behaviors are not very consistent.*
16. I like my employee's values.
17. Sound principles seem to guide my employee's behavior.

Trusting Intentions (Schoorman & Ballinger, 2006)

5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree)

The following questions refer to the employee you must focus on for this survey. Please write the number that best describes how much you agree or disagree with each statement:

1. My employee keeps my interests in mind when making decisions.
2. I would be willing to let my employee have complete control over important aspects of our work.
3. I would feel comfortable telling my employee that I made a mistake.
4. I feel comfortable trying to solve problems in a different way because my employee understands that sometimes creative solutions do not work.
5. It is important for me to have a good way to keep an eye on my employee.
6. Increasing my vulnerability to criticism from my employee would be a mistake.
7. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my employee have any influence over decisions that are important to me.

Appendix B: Recruitment Letters

Study Response Recruitment Letter (Subordinate)

Dear StudyResponse Project Participant,

You are invited to participate in a paired study conducted by researchers at Telfer School of Management, University of Ottawa on the topic of LEADERSHIP! The purpose of this study is to better understand how employees influence their immediate supervisor's trust and managerial style. Please note that we have also invited your direct supervisor for participation.

You must be at least 18 years of age to participate and you must hold full time employment. The study will take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. If you choose not to respond within the first week, we will send you a reminder in one week. Note that instructions on how to discontinue your participation in StudyResponse and stop receiving emails from us appear at the end of this message.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you choose to participate, you may refuse to answer any question that you do not wish to answer. *Please note that completing and submitting the electronic survey to us is understood as your consent to participate.* The study is anonymous, so please do not enter any identifying information into the research instrument except your StudyResponse ID, which is [ID]. The researcher has pledged to keep your data confidential and only to report aggregated results in any published scientific study.

In appreciation of your choice to participate in the project, the researchers have provided a \$10 gift certificate to Amazon.com which you will receive AFTER you and your direct supervisor complete the surveys*. Your invited supervisor will receive a \$10 certificate upon the completion of his/her corresponding survey.

Please note that your StudyResponse ID number is [ID] (also shown in the subject line of this message) and that you must enter that number into the survey to be eligible to receive the gift certificate. StudyResponse will start issuing the certificates approximately two weeks after the researcher receives the completed survey.

Follow this link to participate: [LINK]

If you have any questions about the study, or would like to be informed of its results, we have provided the contact information for the researchers:

[RESEARCHER CONTACT INFORMATION]

If you have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, you may contact the Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research, [OFFICE CONTACT INFORMATION].

Study Response Recruitment Letter (Manager)

Dear StudyResponse Project Participant,

You are invited to participate in a paired study conducted by researchers at Telfer School of Management, University of Ottawa on the topic of LEADERSHIP! The purpose of this study is to better understand how employees influence their immediate supervisor's trust and managerial style. Please note that we have also invited your direct subordinate for participation.

You must be at least 18 years of age to participate and you must hold full time employment. The study will take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. If you choose not to respond within the first week, we will send you a reminder in one week. Note that instructions on how to discontinue your participation in StudyResponse and stop receiving emails from us appear at the end of this message.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you choose to participate, you may refuse to answer any question that you do not wish to answer. Please note that completing and submitting the electronic survey to us is understood as your consent to participate. The study is anonymous, so please do not enter any identifying information into the research instrument except your StudyResponse ID, which is [ID]. The researcher has pledged to keep your data confidential and only to report aggregated results in any published scientific study.

In appreciation of your choice to participate in the project, the researchers have provided a \$10 gift certificate to Amazon.com which you will receive AFTER you and your subordinate complete the surveys*. Your invited subordinate will receive a \$10 certificate upon the completion of his/her corresponding survey.

Please note that your StudyResponse ID number is [ID] (also shown in the subject line of this message) and that you must enter that number into the survey to be eligible to receive the gift certificate. StudyResponse will start issuing the certificates approximately two weeks after the researcher receives the completed survey.

Follow this link to participate: [LINK]

If you have any questions about the study, or would like to be informed of its results, we have provided the contact information for the researchers:

[RESEARCHER CONTACT INFORMATION]

If you have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, you may contact the Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research, [OFFICE CONTACT INFORMATION].

Study Response Recruitment Letter (Manager Invitee)

Dear StudyResponse Project Invitee,

You have been invited to this paired study by your direct subordinate. This paired data collection is conducted by researchers at Telfer School of Management, University of Ottawa on the topic of LEADERSHIP! The purpose of this study is to better understand how employees influence their immediate supervisor's trust and managerial style.

You must be at least 18 years of age to participate and you must hold full time employment. The study will take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. If you choose not to respond within the first week, we will send you a reminder in one week. Note that instructions on how to discontinue your participation in StudyResponse and stop receiving emails from us appear at the end of this message.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you choose to participate, you may refuse to answer any question that you do not wish to answer. Please note that completing and submitting the electronic survey to us is understood as your consent to participate. The study is anonymous, so please do not enter any identifying information into the research instrument except your StudyResponse ID, which is [ID]. The researcher has pledged to keep your data confidential and only to report aggregated results in any published scientific study.

In appreciation of your choice to participate in the project, the researchers have provided a \$10 gift certificate to Amazon.com which you will receive AFTER you and your direct subordinate complete the surveys*.

Please note that your StudyResponse ID number is [ID] (also shown in the subject line of this message) and that you must enter that number into the survey to be eligible to receive the gift certificate. StudyResponse will start issuing the certificates approximately two weeks after the researcher receives the completed survey.

Follow this link to participate with your StudyResponse ID [ID]: [LINK]

If you have any questions about the study, or would like to be informed of its results, we have provided the contact information for the researchers:

[RESEARCHER CONTACT INFORMATION]

If you have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, you may contact the Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research, [OFFICE CONTACT INFORMATION].

Study Response Recruitment Letter (Subordinate Invitee)

Dear StudyResponse Project Invitee,

You have been invited to this paired study by your direct supervisor. This paired data collection is conducted by researchers at Telfer School of Management, University of Ottawa on the topic of LEADERSHIP! The purpose of this study is to better understand how employees influence their immediate supervisor's trust and managerial style.

You must be at least 18 years of age to participate and you must hold full time employment. The study will take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. If you choose not to respond within the first week, we will send you a reminder in one week. Note that instructions on how to discontinue your participation in StudyResponse and stop receiving emails from us appear at the end of this message.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you choose to participate, you may refuse to answer any question that you do not wish to answer. Please note that completing and submitting the electronic survey to us is understood as your consent to participate. The study is anonymous, so please do not enter any identifying information into the research instrument except your StudyResponse ID, which is [ID]. The researcher has pledged to keep your data confidential and only to report aggregated results in any published scientific study.

In appreciation of your choice to participate in the project, the researchers have provided a \$10 gift certificate to Amazon.com which you will receive AFTER you and your direct supervisor complete the surveys*.

Please note that your StudyResponse ID number is [ID] (also shown in the subject line of this message) and that you must enter that number into the survey to be eligible to receive the gift certificate. StudyResponse will start issuing the certificates approximately two weeks after the researcher receives the completed survey.

Follow this link to participate with your StudyResponse ID [ID]: [LINK]

If you have any questions about the study, or would like to be informed of its results, we have provided the contact information for the researchers:

[RESEARCHER CONTACT INFORMATION]

If you have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, you may contact the Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research, [OFFICE CONTACT INFORMATION].