FOLLOWERSHIP BEHAVIORS AMONG FLORIDA COMMUNITY COLLEGE FACULTY

By

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To my wife and daughter

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FOLLOWERSHIP BEHAVIORS AMONG
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As postsecondary institutions are confronted by the challenges of escalating accountability, shrinking budgets, and administrative downsizing, higher education leaders are expecting more from their faculty members. In this environment, an improved understanding of faculty followership behaviors is increasingly important. We examined the relationship between followership behaviors and individual variables, organizational culture, and institutional variables among Florida community college faculty. Followership behaviors consisted of a total followership score and five dimensional subscores; responsibility, service, challenge, transformation, and moral action. Individual variables included faculty rank, receipt of tenure, age, sex, race, education level, discipline, and duration of employment. Institutional variables included size of the institution, size of the population served, location, and degrees offered.

An on-line questionnaire was completed by 661 faculty members from 27 of Florida's 28 community colleges. Analyses revealed significant effects for age, education level, and discipline for the responsibility dimension; sex, rank, and discipline for the service dimension; age and discipline for the challenge dimension; tenure, sex, and discipline for the transformation dimension; tenure and age for the moral action dimension; and age, sex, rank, and discipline for the total followership score. Further analyses indicated significant interactions in the

responsibility dimension for tenure by duration of employment and academic discipline by duration of employment; and in the service dimension for age by tenure. Significant results for organizational culture were found for each followership dimension except responsibility. Also, statistically significant results were found among institutional variables for the moral action dimension for degree offered, with faculty from colleges that offered bachelor's degrees scoring higher for moral action than faculty from institutions that did not offer bachelor's degrees.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Followership was traditionally neglected as a topic of interest (Lundin & Lancaster, 1990). However, recognition of its impact on organizational success has recently grown (Gast, 2003). Over the past two decades, corporate hierarchies "flattened" workforces and eliminated mid-level managers to increase efficiency (Rajan & Wulf, 2003). These transformations placed greater responsibility on the shoulders of followers. Reduced resourcing and company downsizing resulted in followers picking up functions that were habitually performed by leaders (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2001). Moreover, the traditional boundary between leaders and followers disappeared. Followers and leaders found that they shared the responsibility for making institutions better (Smith, 1996). Without responsible individuals who could be productive as both leaders and followers, organizations would not have succeeded.

These workplace changes meant that extra attention needed to be given to followership. Researchers and practitioners began to ponder issues such as the qualities of exemplary followers and how to develop them (Potter, Rosenbach, & Pittman, 2001). Even higher education needed to more closely consider the role of followership. For many years, stakeholders' calls for increased accountability had fallen on deaf ears.

> However, when the market gets its teeth into poor quality, new competitors begin to take advantage of unguarded opportunities and even stodgy old-line universities begin to increase their attention to performance. The role of followership in the effectiveness of all organizations is becoming more and more prominent (Potter, et al., 2001, p. 164).

However, little information on followership was available (Baker, 2007). Few articles or books were written on the topic (Chaleff, 1995). While leadership was a topic in many textbooks, little recognition was given to followership (Baker, 2007). Few researchers conducted empirical studies on followership (Densten & Gray, 2001) and only a small number of corporations or colleges offered courses on the topic (Kelley, 2008). Followership was "an understudied topic in

academic literature and an underappreciated topic among practitioners" (Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson, & Morris, 2006, p. 304). Accordingly, research on followership was timely, relevant, and appropriate.

Statement of the Problem

Despite America's position as a world leader in higher education, "the public [came] to believe quite strongly that our [postsecondary] institutions . . . [were] not making the education of students a top priority" (Bok, 1992, p. 15). Concerns about this and criticism about quality and effectiveness in education became important matters on college campuses (Aburdene, 1993; Oldham, 2006). Colleges and universities faced increased calls for accountability (Lederman, 2006). Faculty were asked to relate their work and goals to the values and performance objectives of the organization as a whole (Potter, et al., 2001). Exacerbating these tensions were issues related to funding, demographics, and political structures (Birnbaum, 1989). Similar issues had confronted American companies. Businesses and industries responded with corporate "flattening," a restructuring of organizations that cut many mid-level managers and placed increased expectations and responsibility on followers. Both the federal Commission on the Future of Higher Education and the National Conference of State Legislators asked academe to follow suit (Field, 2006; Lederman, 2006).

Alfred and Carter (2006) suggested that similar changes were already taking place in higher education as colleges transitioned from bureaucratic, hierarchical institutions to flat, decentralized, more accountable organizations. A number of authors recorded how tightening budgets led to administrative downsizing in public colleges (Diamond, 1996; Lee, 2005; Levine, 2004; Lively, 1993). The Office of Community College Research and Leadership noted the loss of mid-level managers across the nation's community colleges (Bragg, 2004). Some academic

leaders predicted that the middle-management tier of college administration would disappear altogether (Breneman, 2002).

In many ways, however, higher education faculty already performed some of the leader's traditional roles. Two distinct but equally valid systems for institutional control and assertion of power existed in colleges and universities. One was the conventional administrative hierarchy supported by the concept of legal and legitimate authority. The other was based on professional authority and was the structure by which faculty made decisions on aspects over which they had control (Birnbaum, 1989). Governance documents such as the Joint Statement on Government of Colleges and Universities (American Association of University Professors, 1966) suggested that the proper relationship was one of shared authority among boards, administrators, faculty, and students. However, "a system of shared governance is a system of mutual dependence in which we are all leaders and constituents in a process of social exchange" (Birnbaum, 1989, p. 33). This type of system required faculty who were competent, committed, and responsible scholars that understood their roles as organizational stewards – what Chaleff (1995) defined as courageous followers.

Chaleff's model of courageous followership (1995) focused on the roles effective followers played. He believed that exemplary followers exhibited the courage to stand up for what they believed in, particularly when it was contrary to the views of others around them. The courageous follower shared the common purpose of the organization with the leader, believed in the institution's direction, and wanted both the leader and the organization to succeed. "This put leadership and followership in a new perspective. Leaders and followers take on certain formal roles in the organization. What differentiates them are their roles. What unites them is the organization's purpose" (Davis, 2003, p. 11).

In this model, leadership was not so much about using power as it was sharing power with followers to achieve a common purpose. A person could occupy a "leadership" position but find that she must also fulfill the "follower" role in answering to someone else – her boss, a board of directors, stockholders, or another leader. "Even when we have subordinates, we still have bosses. For every committee we chair, we sit as a member on several others" (Kelley, 1988, p. 143). When examined in this light, the implication was that follower behaviors should be found at all organizational levels. The corollary was that followers could be identified at any organizational level (Dixon, 2003). Chaleff (1995) identified five unique behaviors in which followers exhibited courageous followership: taking responsibility, service, challenging, participating in transformation, and taking moral action. Earlier studies of courageous followership among technology workers (Dixon, 2003) and college administrators (Ray, 2006) indicated that these behaviors increased at higher organizational levels.

The importance of effective leadership in many organizations, to include higher education, was widely studied (Baker, 2007; Gilbert & Hyde, 1988). Conversely, little empirical research was conducted on followership (Densten & Gray, 2001). Those studies that were done examined followership in blue collar workers (Alcorn, 1992; Brown & Thornborrow, 1996; Dixon, 2003), school administrators (Geist, 2001; Gouldner, 1957; Miller, 1992; Ray, 2006; Roe, 1989), nurses (Koo & Choi, 2000), college students (Tanoff & Barlow, 2002), and service members (Colangelo, 2000). However, no studies examined followership behaviors in community college faculty.

As higher education "flattened," college leaders looked to faculty to assume larger institutional roles. Furthermore, shrinking budgets and rising accountability measures resulted in administrative demands for faculty to increasingly align themselves with institutional

performance goals (Potter, at al., 2001). A greater understanding of followership could enhance organizational performance and continued learning about its members' behaviors (Baker, 2007). Knowing more about the roles of followers and how faculty members ascribed to these roles could help community colleges better succeed in the complex and demanding environment facing today's higher education institutions.

Purpose of this Study

A number of authors (Alfred & Carter, 1999; Potter, et al., 2001; Williams & Ceci, 2007) called for research on followership behaviors among faculty members. The purpose of this study was to test Chaleff's theory of courageous followership by relating followership to individual factors, institutional factors, and organizational culture for community college faculty members. In doing so, it contributed to the field of knowledge concerning followers and followership. The population of interest for this dissertation was Florida community college faculty.

Moreover, some models of followership purported that attributions of followership vary by organizational level (Chaleff, 1995; Wortman, 1982) with greater attributions corresponding to higher organizational levels. Research by Dixon and Westbrook (2003) and Ray (2006) found support for this proposition. However, Steyer's (2001) research did not support this conclusion. No study examined this claim with regard to community college faculty. Therefore, a purpose of this study was to investigate courageous followership by relating followership to faculty rank (i.e., instructor or assistant professor, associate professor, and full professors) within Florida community college scholars.

Williams and Ceci (2007) found that only when faculty members were promoted from associate professors with tenure to full professors was there a significant increase in their willingness to speak freely, to teach courses unpopular with one's colleagues, to publish controversial research, and to blow the whistle on ethical transgressions, behaviors that mirror

what was expected from courageous followers (Chaleff, 1995). However, concerns regarding the study's sample, the exclusion of non-tenure track faculty, and methodology (Ceci, Williams, & Mueller-Johnson, 2006) led to another purpose of this study; to investigate courageous followership by relating followership behaviors to receipt of tenure for Florida community college faculty members.

Several researchers related the importance of effective followership to organizational productivity (Bennis, 2008; Bjugstad, et al., 2006). Additionally, "the study of organizational culture has been fueled by claims of prominent writers that culture is an essential construct in efforts to improve . . . organizational performance" (Smart & St. John, 1996, p. 219). However, while the relationships between culture type and organizational performance and between followership and organizational productivity have been examined, no study examined the relationship between organizational culture and followership. Therefore, a third purpose of this study was to investigate courageous followership by relating followership to organizational culture for Florida community college faculty members.

Finally, as research that explored followership utilizing the variables of age, sex, race, education level, discipline, and number of years in the position yielded contradictory results due to methodological issues (Colangelo, 2000; Geist, 2001; Koo & Choi, 2000; Ray, 2006; Steyer, 2001), a final purpose of this study was to examine followership's relationship to these variables with regards to community college faculty.

Specifically, this study addressed the following questions using Chaleff's (1995) five identified variables of followership as an index:

1. Is faculty followership influenced by a respondent's: (a) rank, (b) receipt of tenure, (c) age, (d) sex, (e) race, (f) education level, (g) discipline, or (h) length of time working in higher education?

2. Is faculty followership influenced by organizational culture?

3. Is faculty followership influenced by institutional: (a) size, (b) population served, (c) location, and (d) type (bachelor degree granting or not)?

Hypotheses

1. There are no differences in followership factor scores when compared by a respondent's: (a) rank, (b) receipt of tenure, (c) age, (d) sex, (e) race, (f) education level, (g) discipline, or (h) length of time working in higher education.

2. There are no differences in faculty followership factor scores when compared by organizational culture.

3. There are no differences in faculty followership factor scores when compared by institutional: (a) size, (b) population served, (c) location, and (d) type.

Definition of Terms

Challenging. Asking a leader who strayed from the institution's purposes to be accountable (Davis, 2003).

Continuing contract. A contract for full-time employment with the implication that it would be renewed each year as long as the position was needed and the employee performed satisfactorily. Florida community colleges used this term in lieu of tenure.

Courageous followership. Five unique behaviors that Chaleff (1995) identified as: taking responsibility, service, challenging, participating in transformation, and taking moral action.

Follower. A person who recognized the leader as the key source of direction, regardless of how much formal authority the leader actually had over the person (Yukl, 2002). The terms followers, subordinates, workers, constituents, and employees were considered synonymous.

Leader. An individual who deliberately influenced others to facilitate organizational activities and relationships (Yukl, 2002).

Organizational culture. A pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group, worked well enough to be considered valid, and was taught to new group members (Schein, 2004).

Participating in transformation. Standing by the leader and organization during change as well as identifying and changing one's own behaviors that enabled dysfunctional actions.

Service. Assuming new and additional responsibilities to unburden the leader and benefit the organization (Dixon, 2008).

Taking moral action. Leaving an organization for reasons of personal growth, exhaustion, when the organization would benefit from their departure, or as a response to immoral or illegal actions. When faced with unethical activities, followers also had the options of disobeying or whistle-blowing.

Taking responsibility. Showing ownership and initiative for oneself and the organization.

Significance of the Study

Though a growing number of scholars recognized the need for additional studies on followership, very little empirical research was conducted. This study provided some recompense to this deficiency and advanced knowledge in this field. Second, important changes have occurred in higher education. Just as "flattening" increased expectations for followers in the business world, more was also anticipated of community college faculty members as their organizations underwent restructuring (Alfred & Carter, 2006; Bragg, 2004; Breneman, 2002). This was evidenced by calls for faculty to better align their outcomes to the institution's values and goals (Potter, et al., 2001). A better knowledge of followership within community college faculty members helped demonstrate the capability of faculty to meet these calls. Third, community college faculty represented broad assortments of individuals of differing backgrounds. It was important to understand how this diversity affected followership. Fourth, studies have examined the relationships between organizational culture and performance and performance and followership. However, none have examined the relationship of organizational culture and followership. Finally, while the scope of this study did not specifically incorporate

administrators, an improved understanding of community college faculty as followers can help improve the interaction between these two groups.

This research increased the understanding of faculty followership behaviors in Florida community colleges. Findings of this study advanced the body of knowledge on followership by testing constructs of Chaleff's theory of courageous followership (1995) within the structure of community colleges. Additionally, this study helped define how faculty members viewed themselves as followers. This may help community college administrators develop better working relationships with their faculty members and advance programmatic and institutional change agendas. Reports at both the national (Oldham, 2006) and state (Pound, 2006) levels have called on colleges to increase institutional accountability measures. "With ever increasing demands of accountability in education and a greater emphasis on the creation and fostering of school culture, institutions need to generate greater attention on relational interventions in order to achieve more significant and lasting change" (Steyer, 2001, p. 6).

Limitations

1. The population from which the sample was drawn was limited to Florida community college faculty members. Results from this study should not be generalized beyond this population.

2. Participants needed to voluntarily agree to participate in this study. There may have been unknown aspects of this study that attracted certain types of participants while deterring other types of people from participating.

3. This study relied on self-report data, which can be distorted in a variety of ways, such as people's desire to give socially approved information about themselves or the misunderstanding of questionnaire items. Though the instruments were pre-tested before their use, distortions like these may have produced inaccurate results.

4. The sampling frame for this study was developed using information from Florida's community college websites. These websites do not list all faculty members for all institutions. In particular, part-time faculty appeared to be underrepresented on the sites.

5. This study used an ex post facto design and looked only at the degree of association between multiple variables. The problems of reverse causality and spurious correlations

may have existed. Therefore, the findings of this study did not provide evidence of causal relationships, only information about the degree and shape of the relationship between the variables of interest.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter was to review the literature on followership that pertained to this study. Specifically, the chapter is divided into sections relating to; (a) the background of followership, (b) characteristics of exemplary followers, (c) types of followers, (d) courageous followership, (e) organizational culture, and (f) measures of followership. The overview of relevant literature provided a rationale for the theoretical model, measurement instrument, and variables used in this study.

Background of Followership

In 1933, management scholar Mary Parker Follett called for more attention to followership. She suggested that leaders were responsible for teaching workers how to be followers, for engaging them in self-management, and for helping them develop an emotional commitment to the organization. In 1949, the *Saturday Evening Post* issued its own appeal for speakers and writers to address followership (Attridge, 1949). In 2003, followership made the *Harvard Business Review's* top five list of breakthrough ideas (Gast, 2003).

However, little information on followership was found in the literature. Though numerous articles were written on leadership, few journal articles were produced on followers (Lundin & Lancaster, 1990). Discounting those of a spiritual or political nature, only two books were written on the subject (Landino, 2006). Gilbert and Hyde noted that few organizational theory or behavior texts mention followership and there were "even fewer empirical studies in the literature about followership. Most of the articles where the term followership has been introduced or explored have been more normative and intuitively derived" (1988, p. 963). Additionally, though many research articles were produced on leadership, few were created that

addressed followership (Bjugstad, et al., 2006). Most research concerning followership was limited to followers' perceptions of, or as objects of, leadership (Densten & Gray, 2001).

Well-known studies such as Milgram's (1963) obedience to authority and Zimbardo's (1971) Stanford Prison examined the tendency of some individuals to surrender to authority figures in experimental settings. However, missing were investigators' attempts to understand followership in normal settings (Vecchio, 1987). Only recently have researchers considered followership in industry, medical facilities, the military, and education.

Characteristics of Exemplary Followers

As followership was still a relatively new concept, most authors sought to build a foundation for it by identifying characteristics common among exemplary followers (Gilbert & Hyde, 1988). This approach generally dominated the reviewed followership literature. The greatest benefit to this approach was that characteristics related to successful followership have been identified (Lussier & Achua, 2004). However, the "possession of certain traits does not guarantee effectiveness, nor does their absence proscribe it" (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 8). This trait approach to followership recognized that there were no universal traits which caused a person to be an exemplary follower nor were all traits applicable in all situations.

Examining the works of writers on exemplary followership, seven attributes appeared most often in the literature. These were: candor, competence, commitment, cooperation, responsibility, initiative, and flexibility. Job competency, organizational commitment, and the ability to work well with others were characteristics that firms always sought. Conversely, initiative and candor were relatively new additions (Campbell, 2000). Each of these seven qualities was explored in further detail.

Candor

The U.S. Army defined candor as "honesty and fidelity to the truth" (1986, p. 3) and listed it as one of the institution's four individual core values. Bennis (2008) believed that a follower's most important characteristic was a willingness to tell the truth. Others included it as a critical follower trait (Alcorn, 1992; Banutu-Gomez, 2004; Solovy, 2005). Gasaway (2006) believed that candor was one of the qualities that differentiated "followers" from "employees."

Data quoted by Brown (1995) suggested that 70% of subordinates would not protest even when they believed the leader was making a mistake. Research on higher education indicated that only when a faculty member "was promoted from associate professor with tenure to full professor was there a significant increase in the willingness to speak freely, to teach courses unpopular with one's colleagues, to publish controversial research, and to blow the whistle on ethical transgressions" (Williams & Ceci, 2007, p. 16). These figures suggested that candor may be hard to find in many organizations. However, researchers consistently stated that exemplary followers told their leaders the truth, even when it gave voice to unpopular opinions (Goffee & Jones, 2006). They understood the importance of speaking out. Model followers understood that silence could cost their organizations dearly (Bennis, 2008).

Competence

Competence was defined as having necessary and sufficient talents (Mish, 1999). Gasaway (2006) suggested that exceptional followers differed from employees in their job-relevant knowledge. Gilbert and Hyde (1988) included technical competence as one of their eight key dimensions they associated with followership. Blackshear (2002) named personal mastery among her critical characteristics of exemplary followership. Smith wrote that

> competence is based on a myriad of observations . . . Success is . . . probably the easiest to observe. Expertise in the groups' field of operation is another dimension of competence. Expertise is the perception of skills, craftsmanship, or artistry . . . [Expertise is often

> assumed by] credentials or reputation without actually observing or experiencing them. Capability, a third aspect of competence, is the execution of expertise (1997, p. 3).

Of the four essential qualities that Kelley (1988) proposed effective followers share, three related to competency. First, Kelley wrote that effective followers built their competence and focused their efforts for maximum impact. They strove to reach higher levels of performance and expand themselves. Secondly, effective followers managed themselves well. They were able to set goals and decide on roles appropriate to the larger context (Bjugstad, et al., 2006). Thirdly, effective followers demonstrated independent and critical thinking skills.

Commitment

Kelley (1992) and Solovy (2005) both defined commitment as working beyond the expected to produce exemplary results. Banutu-Gomez (2004) and Gasaway (2006) described commitment as organizational loyalty, passion, persistence, and dedication. Etzioni (1986) saw commitment as a positive form of participation. He used the word “involvement” to refer to the orientation of an actor in terms of intensity and direction. He called those individuals with low organizational involvement “alienative” while those with a high intensity orientation were labeled as “committed.” Argyris (1957) believed individuals demonstrated commitment through their organizationally relevant actions.

Gilbert and Hyde (1988) included commitment as one of the eight key dimensions they found associated with followership. For them, commitment consisted of loyalty, ambition, and a “can do” attitude. Smith (1997) noted that leaders functioned best with followers who were loyally committed to an organization. Loyal followers helped their leaders move the organization in the desired direction and they supported their leaders when confronted by obstacles or when redirection was necessary.

Blackshear (2002) posited that followership was built on: a belief in the organization's mission, vision, and purpose; a willingness to subjugate personal interests for the greater good; loyalty; and unity of focus. These characteristics helped followers develop and sustain their optimal organizational performance. Lundin and Lancaster (1990) stated that followers

> must be enthusiastic about what they do to the point that roadblocks and repetition don't deter them from achieving their objectives. They need to feel a strong level of commitment, both to the organization and to their own work. And, finally, they must be highly responsible individuals who are willing to perform under stressful circumstances, motivated by a sense of a job well done (p. 18).

Cooperation

Smith (1997) included cooperation as a characteristic that promoted leader-follower functioning. "Cooperation allows the leader to focus on the group as a unit rather than devoting time to directing individuals and their independent behaviors. Cooperation also suggests a level of conformity that increases the efficiency and the power of the group" (Smith, 1997, p. 3). Alcorn (1992) studied workers in Wyoming's Lower Valley Power and Light to identify critical follower traits. Cooperation was one behavior he associated with high levels of performance, participation, and job satisfaction. Cook (1998) believed that model followers were team players and cooperated with their leaders and coworkers in ways that benefitted the organization. Gilbert and Hyde (1988) included "working well with others" as a key dimension of followership.

Responsibility

Several authors included responsibility among the traits of model followers (Lundin & Lancaster, 1990; Banutu-Gomez, 2004). Chaleff (1995) believed that followers must accept responsibility for themselves, their leaders, their organization, and their customers. Exemplary followers knew that "leaders stop leading when they grow tired of leading, so smart followers reinforce their best leaders by showing them that their leadership is not only needed but appreciated. By doing so, however, followers must accept responsibility for their leader's

actions" (Marino, 1999, p. 20). They also accepted responsibility for the organization and those it served (Brown, 1995). Exemplary followers understood that their actions directly impacted unit performance (Vecchio, 1987).

Dixon and Westbrook (2003) stated followers accepted responsibility for themselves and the organization. They assumed additional responsibilities to ease the leader's burden and serve the organization. Crockett (1981) wrote that followers must assume responsibility for developing an effective understanding of the job, the boss, and themselves. They took responsibility for: knowing the mission, priorities, expectations, and the skills required; developing successful and effective leader-follower relationships; and acquiring self-awareness, managing their feelings, and confronting their insecurities.

Initiative and Flexibility

A number of authors included initiative and flexibility in their critical traits of exemplary followers (Lundin & Lancaster, 1990; Landino, 2006). Alcorn (1992) included flexibility, initiative, and problem-solving as critical follower traits. He believed that workers with ability and a willingness to act on their own could accomplish far more than their traditional job responsibilities. Blackshear (2002) identified initiative, problem-solving, and adaptability as critical exemplary followership characteristics. She believed that ideal followers displayed an internal locus of control and a willingness to act. Goffee and Jones (2006) wrote that model followers developed an understanding of what was needed of them in different situations and adapted their behaviors appropriately. By doing so, these followers effectively complemented the leader and promoted balance within the organization.

Other Traits

Authors have identified other traits of exemplary followers. However, these qualities tend to be named by only one writer. Cook (1998) believed the best followers were self-motivated.

Smith (1996) noted that model followers were dependable. Lundin and Lancaster (1990) stated that effective followers understood how their work contributed to the big picture. Blackshear (2002) named persistence and optimism among her critical followership characteristics. Kelley (1988) stated followers exhibited enthusiasm, intelligence, and self-reliance. Gasaway (2006) believed that dynamic followers separated themselves from others in the qualities of ambition and energy. Gilbert and Hyde (1988) included proper comportment (dress, grammar, speech, and manners) among their qualities associated with ideal followers.

Types of Followers

Many of the characteristics described in the preceding paragraphs were personality traits (candor, dependability, initiative, flexibility, etc.). Guilford (1959) defined a trait as any relatively enduring way in which individuals differ from one another. Research has suggested that personality traits were heritable (Jang, McRae, Angleitner, Rieman, & Livesley, 1998), unaffected by external influences (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998), stable throughout a person's lifetime (McRae & Costa, 2003), and influenced how people reacted and responded to their environment (Olver & Mooradian, 2003). Traits served as the foundation upon which an individual's behavior is based (Hemsley, 2001). They also served as the basis for personality typology, the next step in the development of followership research.

Personality types were combinations of two or more traits. The fundamental difference between traits and types was that traits were conceptualized as varying along a continuum whereas types were usually thought of as discrete categories of trait combinations (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2001). Though the common characteristic approach to followership tended to overshadow the followership literature (Gilbert & Hyde, 1988), some authors elected to explore the topic using personality typology. Among the follower type approaches, Kelley's (1992) model of exemplary followership dominated the field (Densten & Gray, 2001).

Kelley's Model of Followership

Kelley (1992) categorized followers by examining their behavior along the dimensions of thinking and acting. The thinking dimension ranged from uncritical, dependent thinking to critical, independent thinking. "Critical thinking involves going beyond collecting information or observing activities passively. It implies an active mental debate with things or events we could otherwise process at face value" (Latour & Rast, 2004, p. 104). Followers who were independent, critical thinkers considered the impact of their actions, were willing to be creative and innovative, and offered criticism. Dependent, uncritical thinkers only did what they were told and unquestionably accepted the leader's thinking.

The second dimension, acting, determined the follower's sense of involvement. This dimension ranged from passive to active styles of participation. A follower "engaged actively and comprehensively brings to mind an image of someone 'leaning forward' into the situation at hand. This posture enables the person and those he or she affects to be in a position to anticipate requirements and plan accordingly" (Latour & Rast, 2004, p. 104). An active follower took initiative in decision making while a passive follower's contribution was limited to being told what to do.

Based on this classification of follower behavior, Kelley (1992) developed a typology of five follower types; alienated follower, conformist follower, passive follower, effective follower, and pragmatic survivor (see figure 1). These typologies helped clarify a worker's contribution to organizational success (Densten & Gray, 2001). The most passive followers were "sheep." These were individuals who displayed uncritical thinking, lacked initiative, and avoided responsibility. They did only those tasks explicitly assigned to them and stopped (Kelley, 1988). Conformist followers were "yes people." These followers were more active but equally uncritical in their thinking. They depended on a leader to inspire them but were exceedingly deferential in their

activities (Kelley, 1988). Alienated followers were critical in their thinking but passive in executing their role. Their performance tended to be one of disgruntled acquiescence. Survivors fell in the middle. They were adept at withstanding change. Effective followers thought for themselves and energetically carried out their responsibilities. Because they were self-starters, and problem solvers, they usually earned good ratings from supervisors (Kelley, 1988).

Research Studies

Few empirical studies were found in the literature that utilized Kelley's theory of exemplary followership to pragmatically investigate followership in specific populations. Only three studies were found in professional journals. Koo and Choi (2000) investigated the relationship between followership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in Korean clinical nurses. They found significant differences among clinical nurses in their perceptions of followership according to demographic characteristics such as sex, age, education, position, and career field. They also found that followership was significantly related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Tanoff and Barlow (2002) examined the relationship of leadership and followership. They used Kelley's (1992) followership model along with the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of trait personality (McRae & Costa, 2003). These authors utilized stepwise regression and found the FFM's "three factors of conscientious, dynamic, and hardy combined to account for 31% of the explained variance in the active engagement area and 18% in the independent thinking area . . . [while] the collegial factor did not contribute in either model" (Tanoff & Barlow, 2002, p. 161). Since achievement orientation is often considered a principle facet of the conscientious factor, the authors concluded that the relationship between leadership and followership can be found in the "correlation between the achievement-oriented trait and the active engagement scale and the

independent thinking scale . . . Possibly the parallel between leadership and followership is the convergence on doing (behavior) with a purpose (goals)" (Tanoff & Barlow, 2002, p. 163).

Brown and Thornborrow (1996) examined the relationship between follower style and organizational culture. These authors concluded that organizations tend to "get the followers they deserve . . . this means that not only is a particular leadership style favored by an organization's culture, but so is a specific type of followership" (Brown & Thornborrow, 1996, p. 10). The authors also found that "people are not born to be followers, but become followers as a result of other factors . . . [This suggests that there is] considerable support for the idea that followers can be taught how to be more effective followers" (Brown & Thornborrow, 1996, p. 8).

Though these three studies presented interesting findings demonstrating the importance of followership in organizations, additional empirical studies of followers and followership were largely absent from scholarly journals. However, three other studies using Kelley's model were found among doctoral dissertations. Colangelo (2000) examined the relation of immediate supervisors' leadership styles to followership among junior enlisted airmen attending a basic leadership school. Participants were assessed on followership style and leadership effectiveness and adaptability. Results indicated that supervisors' leadership styles were correlated to followership styles. Colangelo concluded that leaders high in task and relationship behaviors promoted "effective" followership. Also, followers accredited these leaders with higher trust, commitment, and job satisfaction. The author found a significant relationship between the active engagement subscore in Kelley's model and age and education level but not race and sex whereas the critical thinking subscore only showed a significant relationship with education level but not age, race, or sex. However, no significant relationships were established between the overall followership score and age, race, sex, or education level.

Geist's (2001) study examined the followership abilities of NCAA Division II athletic directors. Middle managers' perceptions of the followership abilities of athletic directors provided one basis for comparison, while the variables of sex, ethnic background, educational level, and experience were also utilized for comparison. Results indicated that both transformational and transactional leadership styles had a significant influence upon perceived followership abilities in athletic directors. However, unlike Koo and Choi (2000), the variables of sex, educational level, and experience had no significant effect upon the followership levels of athletic directors.

Steyer (2001) adapted Kelley's (1992) *Followership Questionnaire* to education and renamed it the *Teacher Sentiment Inventory* (*TSI*). She then used it to measure followership in 291 classroom teachers in Ohio public schools. She concluded that: the *TSI* was a reliable measure of followership, elementary school teachers perceive independent thinking to be more important than middle school teachers, older teachers perceive independent thinking to be more important than younger teachers, elementary school teachers perceive active engagement to be more important than high school teachers, and female teachers perceive active engagement to be more important than male teachers. Steyer found no significant differences due to race or years of experience. She also determined that administrators must recognize that teachers perceive themselves as being effective followers who should be allowed to think independently and become actively involved within the organization.

Koo and Choi (2000), Colangelo (2000), Geist (2001) and Steyer (2001) all examined followership's relationship to multiple demographic variables – sex, age, education, experience, position, and career field – with differing results. In addition, whereas Steyer concluded that the *TSI*, an adapted version of Kelley's (1992) *Followership Questionnaire*, was a reliable measure

of followership, both Colangelo (2000) and Geist (2001) raised concerns about the validity of Kelley's measure concluding that factor analysis (Colangelo, 2000) and item-to-item correlations (Geist, 2001) suggested that the scale was not solely measuring the variables of active engagement and critical thinking. Colangelo's factor analysis identified four dimensions, which he entitled active engagement, critical thinking, passion, and team mindedness. Geist found that six of the twenty items in Kelley's questionnaire did not load highest on their own dimensions and reliability coefficients for Kelley's two dimensions were often below .70.

Though several other authors offered followership models based on two-dimensional personality typology (Blackshear, 2002; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2007; Potter, Rosenbach, & Pittman, 1996; Tagliere, 1972; Vecchio, 1987; Zaleznik, 1965), no empirical research was found that examined these different models. Recently, however, researchers (Dixon, 2003; Ray, 2006) have quantitatively examined the roles that effective followers play using Chaleff's (1995) model of courageous followers.

Courageous Followership

Researchers have discovered that many of the qualities that make effective leaders are paradoxically the same as those found in effective followers. What differentiates the two are the roles they play (Davis, 2003; Kelley, 1988; Taylor & Rosenbach, 1996). However, most researchers examined followers' traits, behaviors, or personality types. Chaleff (1995) presented the only model of followership focused on the roles effective followers play. This was his theory of courageous followership.

Chaleff noted that the traditional leader-subordinate paradigm was based on power: Leaders held the power to reward and punish through bonuses, choice assignments, promotions, firings, and negative evaluations. This led to followers who wanted to avoid upsetting their leaders. Followers who lacked courage abandoned "their unique perspectives and healthy

dissension, which are at the heart of the creative process and innovation" (Chaleff, 1995, p. 5). Chaleff believed that followers must exhibit the courage to stand up for what they believe in, particularly when it is contrary to what others around them believe. Exemplary followers persevered in what they knew was right, making it difficult for others to do wrong (Lee, 2006).

Like leaders, followers served the organization's higher purpose and were not swayed by personal considerations (Goffee & Jones, 2006). The courageous follower shared the common purpose with the leader, believed in the direction of the organization, and wanted both the leader and organization to succeed. What differentiated the two were their roles (Davis, 2003). Chaleff (1995) identified five dimensions in which followers exhibited courageous followership. These were the courage to: assume responsibility, serve, challenge, participate in transformation, and take moral action. A discussion of each of these five roles follows.

Courage to Assume Responsibility

In this role, courageous followers demonstrated a sense of ownership for themselves and their organizations. "Precisely because of the dangers of unconscious collaboration, they need to take some conscious responsibility for the leaders they have helped create" (Gast, 2003, p. 94). Followers did not wait to be told what to do; they took initiative in their work and for their own self-development. Exemplary followers recognized that self-development was a growth process whose key was obtaining an accurate picture of themselves (U.S. Army, 1993). They took full advantage of all assessment opportunities; self-assessment, formal assessment by superiors, and assessments made by professional schools (U.S. Army, 1993).

Courage to Serve

Courageous followers were prepared to assume additional responsibilities in service to the organization (Davis, 2003). They recognized that they were members of a team and were willing to perform less favorable tasks to benefit that team. They took on new and additional tasks to

unburden the leader (Dixon & Westbrook, 2003). They relayed substantiated bad news to the leader and presented workable options for handling tough situations. Courageous followers stood up for their leaders and the difficult decisions they made (Chaleff, 1995).

Courage to Challenge

Courageous followers recognized that, once a leader had made her decision, they had the responsibility to implement the policies to the best of their abilities. However, the courageous follower was not a subordinate. "The follower stands up for the leader when support is warranted, but is not afraid to challenge the leader who strays from the institution's purposes" (Davis, 2003, p. 12). The courageous follower understood that there was a time and place to dissent just as there was a time and place to execute the leader's decision. "We have the right to challenge policies in the policy-making process; we do not have the right to sabotage them in the implementation phase . . . Those who sabotage their leader's efforts are no longer followers; they are opponents" (Chaleff, 1995, p. 95).

Courage to Participate in Transformation

Courageous followers recognized that they had a role in transformation. Exemplary followers stayed with the leader and group during the challenges of real change. They also recognized that, in order to help a leader transform, they needed to examine their own roles and identify behaviors that enabled or colluded with dysfunctional actions. Courageous followers modeled appropriate behaviors, to include the openness to change, the risk-taking inherent for change, persistence, and the empathy in understanding the difficulty of change (Chaleff, 1995).

Courage to Take Moral Action

Exemplary followers recognized that self or organizational growth may require them to leave a leader (Chaleff, 1995). They prepared to move-on when it was the appropriate action to take. Followers saw that they may need to leave for reasons of personal exhaustion. At other

times, they recognized that the organization would benefit from their departure. Bringing in new followers may bring new ideas that help invigorate the leader or organization. Courageous followers were prepared to take action when organizational behaviors were immoral or illegal. Followers had the options of disobeying, whistle-blowing, or leaving (Kelley, 1992).

Research Studies

As research on courageous followership was in its infancy, only two empirical studies were found. Dixon and Westbrook (2003) utilized Chaleff's model of courageous followership to examine engineering and technology workers in governmental agencies and industry. They sought to validate Chaleff's assertion that followership should be recognizable at all organizational levels. Results indicated that followership was evident across organizations and that statistically significant differences existed in self-attributions of followership as a function of organizational level. The researchers concluded that: followership was measurable; followers were discernible within all levels of technology-based organizations; and attributions of followership were related to organization level with increasing measures of followership at higher levels in the organization. This study implied that managers were both leaders and followers and that follower roles could be described according to organization level.

Ray (2006) also utilized Chaleff's model of courageous followership to determine if followership behaviors varied by hierarchical level among North Carolina community college administrators. Utilizing the followership measure developed by Dixon (2003), Ray also found that mean responses were higher for all courageous follower behaviors as administrative responsibility increased. In addition, she found evidence that followership behaviors increased with educational level, age, and work experience. Ray found that this supported the belief that leadership training was needed for all employees, not just currently identified leaders.

Organizational Culture

A number of researchers have stressed the relationship between effective followers and organization productivity (Buhler, 1993). Kelley wrote, "After controlling all the other variables… the leader's effect on organizational success is only 10 to 20 percent . . . Followership is the real 'people' factor in the other 80 to 90 percent that makes for great success" (1992, pp. 20-21). Kelley's assertions found support among other researchers (Bennis, 2008; Bjugstad, et al., 2006; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Pfeffer, 1977; Vecchio, 1987) who presented data substantiating the idea that leadership is less important to an institution's fate than traditional views would have us believe. Followership was shown to be an instrumental aspect of an organization's productivity.

In the same vein, "the study of organizational culture has been fueled by claims of prominent writers that culture is an essential construct in efforts to improve . . . organizational performance" (Smart & St. John, 1996, p. 219). Schein defined culture as

> a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (2004, p. 17).

Cameron and Ettington (1988) proposed that cultures could be distinguished by examining their emphasis, orientation, and activity focus along a horizontal dimension and their flexibility, control, and spontaneity along the vertical dimension. From this framework emerged four "ideal" culture types that were consistent with the organizational culture literature and with the ways that scholars view postsecondary institutions (Smart & St. John, 1996) (see figure 2).

In Smart's and St. John's (1996) model, the "clan" culture was characterized as having high flexibility, individuality, and spontaneity, as well as an internal emphasis, a short-term time frame, and a focus on smoothing activities. "Bureaucratic" cultures also had an internal

emphasis, short-term orientation, and a focus on smoothing activities. However, they differed in the emphasis on control, stability, and predictability. The “adhocracy” culture emphasized flexibility, individuality, and spontaneity but was also characterized by its external positioning, a long-term orientation, and achievement-oriented activities. Like the adhocracy, the “market” culture was distinguished by its external positioning, a long-term orientation, and achievement-oriented activities but it also valued control, stability, and predictability like the bureaucracy.

Other researchers have found that community colleges tended to cluster around four types of cultures. Levin (1997) identified the dominant cultures as: traditional, in which the college focused on the development of its students; service, in which the school protected and promoted the well-being of its students; hierarchical, in which the college administration demonstrated strong leadership in order to uphold its ideals of excellence; and business, in which the community college adopted business practices and values for its operations.

Bergquist (1992) also identified four cultures within higher education; collegial, managerial, developmental, and negotiating. The collegial culture was characterized by an emphasis on the generation, dissemination, and interpretation of knowledge in support of the institution’s mission. The managerial culture was described by clearly defined organizational structures, goals, and accountability procedures for achieving those goals. Bergquist (1992) distinguished the developmental culture as placing high value on the professional and personal growth of institutional members, to include students. The negotiating culture was typified by the distribution of organizational resources according to equitable and democratic practices. Within this culture, bargaining and confrontation among constituents was expected.

Bergquist’s system of classification was similar to Birnbaum’s (1988), which labeled higher education cultures as collegial, bureaucratic, anarchical, and political. While Birnbaum’s

collegial, bureaucratic, and political cultures paralleled Bergquist's collegial, managerial, and negotiating cultures, Birnbaum's anarchical culture was characterized by its attempts to gain consensus in an environment that may be irrational, unorganized, or lack a clear structure.

In their study of colleges and universities, Smart and St. John (1996) found significant relationships between strong culture types and organizational effectiveness. They found that a three-tier hierarchy existed among the four culture types in terms of their performance. The clan and adhocracy cultures exhibited the highest performance, market cultures fell in the middle, and bureaucratic cultures demonstrated the lowest performance (Smart & St. John, 1996). With the relationships between culture type and organizational performance and between organizational productivity and followership established, additional research needed to be undertaken to examine the relationship between organizational culture and followership.

Measures of Followership

In their 1984 article, Nolan and Harty called for the development of followership measures similar to those available for the study of leadership. Though many years passed, few measures of followership became available (Colangelo, 2000). Only five scales were described in the literature: *The Followership Questionnaire* (Kelley, 1992), the *Teacher Sentiment Inventory* (Steyer, 2001), the *Follower Maturity Index* (Moore, 1976), the *Performance and Relationship Questionnaire* (Rosenbach, Pittman, & Potter, 1997), and *The Followership Profile* (Dixon, 2003). Of these five scales, only *The Followership Profile* provided documented and acceptable levels of reliability and validity.

Followership Questionnaire

Kelley's (1992) *Followership Questionnaire* was a 20-item Likert-response scale and the most frequently used scale for measuring followership (Colangelo, 2000). However, no data concerning the reliability and validity of the instrument was available from the developer. In

addition, researchers who utilized this scale raised issues concerning its validity and reliability (Colangelo, 2000; Koo & Choi, 2000; Geist, 2001). Kelley's followership instrument was developed to measure two dimensions of behavior – independent, critical thinking and degree of active engagement in task – that contributed to effective followership. Factor analysis by Colangelo (2000) suggested that it actually measured four followership dimensions, which he named active engagement; critical, independent thinking; passion; and team mindedness. In Geist's (2001) study, Cronbach's alpha ranged from .51 to .78. However, item-to-item correlations by Geist (2001) raised concerns because a number of items did not load highest on their own dimensions. In addition, Koo's and Choi's (2000) article raised issues with utilizing Kelley's questionnaire to produce a single "followership" score for use in statistical analysis.

Teacher Sentiment Inventory

Steyer's (2001) *Teacher Sentiment Inventory (TSI)* was a version of Kelley's (1992) *Followership Questionnaire* adapted for use in elementary and secondary education. Steyer modified Kelley's original questions so that they more directly addressed the work of school administrators (Mertler, Steyer, & Petersen, 1997). Like *The Followership Questionnaire,* the *TSI* was a 20-item, five-point Likert-response scale. Though the authors stated that "internal reliability was assessed using the data gathered . . . [from] pilot studies which resulted in further revisions of survey question wording and placement" (Mertler, et al., 1997, p. 10), other than the calculation of Cronbach coefficient alpha (.84), no evidence of validity or reliability was available for the *TSI.* Like Colangelo (2000), Steyer (2001) also raised concerns that Kelley's (1992) original questions actually measured more than two followership dimensions. However, she did not submit the *TSI* to factor analysis to verify this issue.

Follower Maturity Index

The *Follower Maturity Index (FMI)* was based on the situational leadership work of Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2007). The instrument was used in observations of verbal and nonverbal behaviors in task groups. The scale was intended to provide a method for quantifying follower behavior in terms of the dimensions of maturity; achievement motivation, willingness and ability to take responsibility, task-relevant education or experience, activity level, dependency, behavior variety, interest, perspective, position, and awareness (Moore, 1976). Moore tested the *FMI* using 788 people who were participants in 32 leadership seminars conducted by the researcher. "Analysis of data was conducted by discussions following group tasks and by post hoc review of videotapes . . . [However], no statistical tests were run because the purpose of the study was to provide a field test of the instrument's utility" (Moore, 1976, p. 207). Therefore, no information was available regarding the scales reliability or validity in measuring follower behaviors.

Performance and Relationship Questionnaire

The *Performance and Relationship Questionnaire (PRQ)* was a 40-item questionnaire intended to provide an assessment of the user's follower style and aptitude across eight dimensions (Rosenbach, et al., 1997). Believing that successful organizations were based on productive relationship between followers and leaders, the *PRQ* was built on two dimensions, the relationship initiative and the performance initiative. However, no information on the scale's validity and reliability was available from the publisher. Additionally, use of the measure for research could be quite costly as Rosenbach and Associates administered the scale and provided interpretive reports at a cost of $15 per assessment and a minimum charge of $90 for six assessments.

The Followership Profile

The final and most recently available measure of followership was *The Followership Profile (TFP)*. For his doctoral dissertation, Dixon (2003) developed the *TFP* questionnaire to identify and measure the five behavioral categories of Chaleff's (1995) theory of courageous followership. Originally developed as a 56-item measure, Dixon further refined the measure and a 20-item abbreviated version was available. The *TFP* had the most evidence among followership measures for validity and reliability. A more detailed discussion of the *TFP's* validity and reliability is found in the instrumentation section of chapter 3.

Summary

This literature review confirmed the relative paucity of followership-specific research. Additional studies were needed to not only develop a clearer understanding of the concept of followership, but also to test current theory and encourage further discussion of the related follower characteristics. Though the role of followership in education was considered in the dissertations of Geist (2001), Steyer (2001), and Ray (2006), none examined followership from the perspective of community college faculty. Research on courageous followership behaviors among faculty members was needed to address the concerns raised by Alfred and Carter (1999); Potter, Rosenbach, and Pittman (2001); and Williams and Ceci (2007).

In addition, the empirical studies described in the previous paragraph fall into what Densten and Gray (2001) called "previously established ruts" – the research was generally limited to Kelley's (1992) original conceptualizations of followership or the focus was not on followers but on the followers' relationships with their leaders. The exceptions were Dixon's and Westbrook's (2003) and Ray's (2006) exploration of Chaleff's concept of courageous followership. However, Dixon and Westbrook focused their research on management in the

engineering and technology industry while Ray focused on administrators. Prior to this study, courageous followership was not examined within the context of community college faculty.

The idea that followership increased with organizational level was first suggested by Chaleff (1995) and later found support in the work of Dixon and Westbrook (2003) and Ray (2006). However, Steyer's (2001) research suggested differently. This disparity and the lack of information relating this idea to community college faculty suggested an area in which empirical study was needed. In addition, all research that was based on Kelley's model of Exemplary Followership (Brown & Thornborrow, 1996; Colangelo, 2000; Geist, 2001; Koo & Choi, 2000; Steyer, 2001; Tanoff & Barlow, 2002) used Kelley's *Followership Questionnaire* (or an adaptation thereof) to collect data. As noted above, several researchers (Colangelo, 2000; Geist, 2001; Koo & Choi, 2000) expressed concerns with the scale's validity and reliability. Followership needed to be examined using a measure shown to be both valid and reliable. Also, while empirical studies established the relationships between culture type and organizational performance and between organizational productivity and followership, none had examined the relationship between organizational culture and followership. Additional research was needed to address this shortcoming.

Finally, Koo and Choi (2000), Colangelo (2000), Geist (2001), and Steyer (2001) all examined followership's relationship to multiple demographic variables – sex, age, education, experience, position, and career field – with differing results. It was apparent that additional evidence-based research on followership was needed; that an examination of followership as it pertains to community college faculty would contribute to the field; and that Chaleff's model of courageous followership and Dixon's (2003) *TFP* offered the most valid approach to undertake this study.

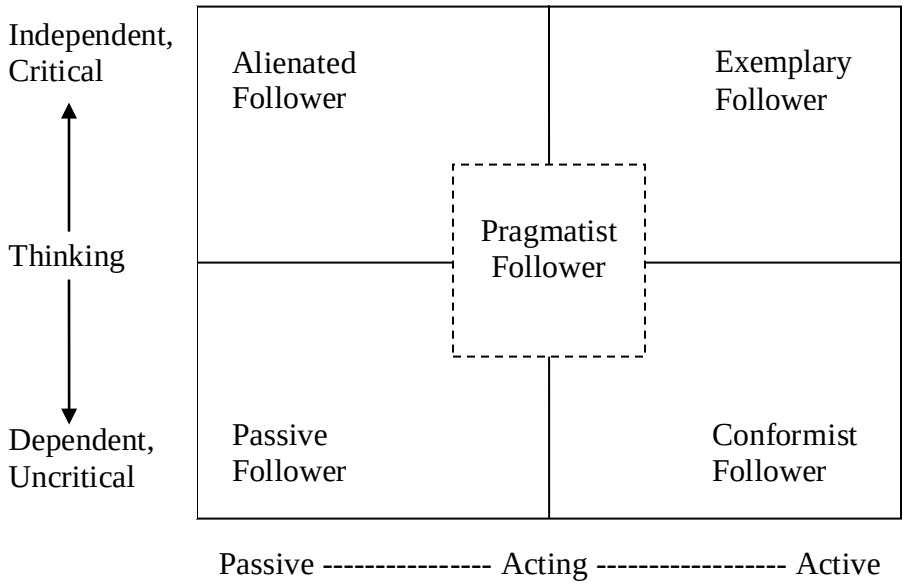


Figure 2-1. Kelley's followership styles (Kelley, 1992)

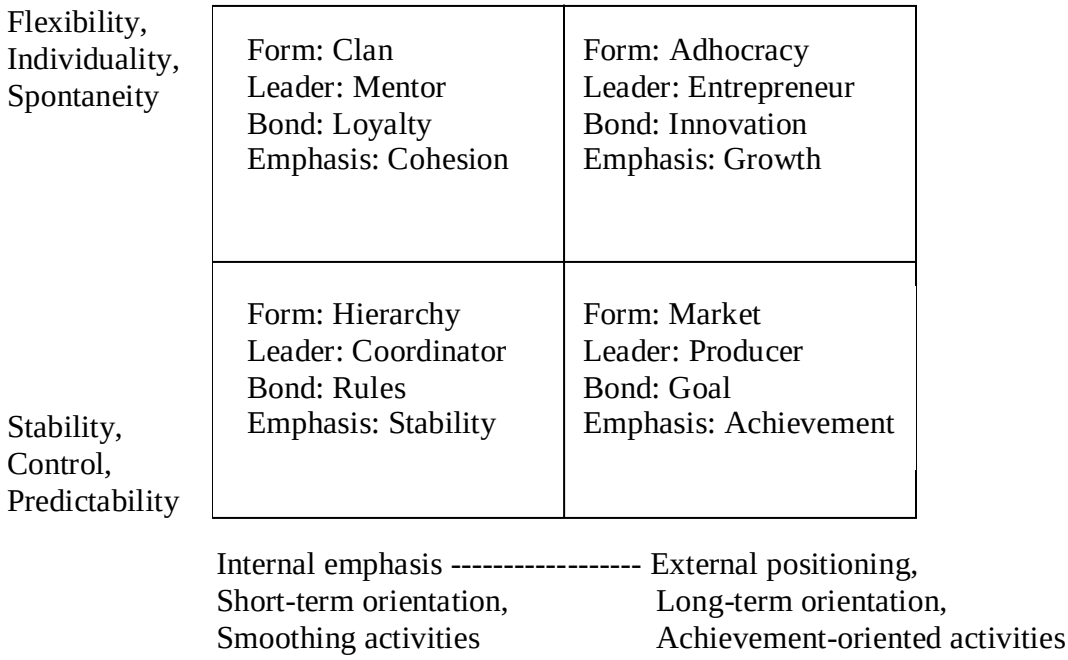


Figure 2-2. Culture types (Smart & St. John, 1996)

CHAPTER 3
DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this chapter is to address the population, sampling frame, sample size, instrumentation, procedure for data collection, variables, and statistical analyses used in this study. This study was done to investigate followership within community college faculty. To address this purpose, the following research questions were posed. Using Chaleff's (1995) five identified variables of followership as an index:

1. Is faculty followership influenced by a respondent's: (a) rank, (b) receipt of tenure, (c) age, (d) sex, (e) race, (f) education level, (g) discipline, or (h) length of time working in higher education?
2. Is faculty followership influenced by organizational culture?
3. Is faculty followership influenced by institutional: (a) size, (b) population served, (c) location, and (d) type (bachelor degree granting or not)?

Population

The participants for this study were community college faculty members in the State of Florida. Florida's 28 community colleges were established to serve the state's citizens by offering the first two years of a baccalaureate degree, vocational education, and adult continuing education. As of fall, 2006, these colleges served 793,517 students, of which funded full-time equivalent (FTE) student enrollment was 287,715. The system employed 22,749 faculty members, with 5,359 working full-time and 17,390 part-time (Florida Department of Education, 2007). Florida's community college system followed the state-wide categorization of faculty positions. Categories included professor, associate professor, assistant professor, and instructor (University of South Florida, 2004). Faculty members of all categories were on either tenure accruing (also called continuing contract) or non-tenure accruing tracks.

Florida's 28 community colleges were divided into three tiers or peer groups by sizes of enrollment. Large-size institutions were those with greater than an 11,500 student FTE

enrollment. Medium-size institutions were those with an FTE enrollment between 6,000 and 11,499 students, while small-size community colleges were those with less than a 6,000 FTE student enrollment (Perrault, Madaus, Armbrister, Dixon, & Smith, 1999). The majority of schools in the large size tier are located in the state's large urban population centers while the medium-sized schools are located in or near population centers or major state universities (Perrault, et al., 1999). In addition, as of 2008, ten Florida community colleges, including Broward, Chipola, Daytona Beach, Edison, Florida Community College at Jacksonville, Indian River, Miami Dade, Northwest Florida, Palm Beach, and St. Petersburg had been approved by the State Board of Education to offer bachelor's degrees in a limited number of programs (Florida Department of Education, 2008).

Sampling Frame

A sampling frame is a list of potential participants in the population (Agresti & Finley, 1999) and is the source from which the sample is drawn. For this study, full-time and adjunct instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors from Florida's community colleges were the intended population. On-line faculty directories from each of Florida's community colleges were used to compile the sampling frame. However, Miami Dade College's website did not provide faculty e-mail addresses and it was the policy of this college to not provide outside parties with faculty e-mail or personal addresses or to distribute outside research surveys to its faculty (D. Kaiser, personal communication, May 20, 2008). Using the available on-line directories, the researcher produced a list of 5,852 faculty e-mail addresses representing 27 of Florida's 28 community colleges.

Sample Size

"The sample of data collected is the information base from which all statistical decisions are made. It is therefore critical that the sample be collected properly and be of sufficient size to

justify any decisions concerning hypotheses" (Brewer, 1996, p. 5-4). Traditionally, α was set at .05 in the behavioral sciences (Brewer, 1996). Cohen (1969) stated that β is never set greater than .20. Furthermore, Cohen (1969) considered "a medium effect of .5 is visible to the naked eye of a careful observer. A small effect of .2 is noticeably smaller than medium but not so small as to be trivial. A large effect of .8 is the same distance above the medium as small is below it" (Carson, n.d., p. 4). In determining sample size, the following values were used: α = .05; target power = .80 (β = .20); ES = .35 σ. Based on these values, the sample size for this study was determined to be at least as large as 480 participants (see Appendix A for the SAS power program output for between-subjects main effects that determined sample size).

Previous research reported that response rates for web-based surveys tended to fall between 20 and 25 percent. After reviewing 31 web-based studies, Sheehan (2001) developed a model for return rates that predicted researchers utilizing web-based materials should expect a 21 to 23 percent return rate. Other researchers recorded similar findings on studies that relied on web-based surveys. Phillips (2002) noted that her study obtained a 24.4% response rates from Florida community college faculty. Roark (1988) also studied Florida community colleges and obtained a return rate of 20.9% from part-time instructors and their supervisors. Gerity (1999) surveyed 1,443 full- and part-time community college workforce development and training professionals and reported a 20% return rate. The researcher assumed that this study would achieve a response rate of approximately 15%. The author assumed a slightly lower than normal response rate because the data was collected during the summer semester and many full-time and adjunct faculty members did not teach during that term and may not have looked at their e-mails (S. Sass, personal communication, May 15, 2008). Based on this response rate and a desired

sample size of 480 participants, the researcher randomly selected 3,200 e-mail addresses from the developed sampling frame to ask to participate.

Instrumentation

The Followership Profile

The Followership Profile (TFP) was developed by Dixon (2003) to measure courageous follower behaviors according to Chaleff's (1995) theory. Chaleff (1995) identified five distinct categories of follower behaviors: responsibility, service, challenging, transforming, and moral action. Dixon (2003) developed the *TFP* to assess each of these follower dimensions with a category score and to also provide an overall follower score derived from the scores of the five behaviors. Dixon's 56-item measure was originally designed to assess levels of followership among engineers and technology workers in technology sectors of government and industry. Dixon also developed a 20-item abbreviated version of the questionnaire.

On the 56-item measure, 20 questions referenced courage to assume responsibility, 10 questions referenced the courage to serve, seven questions referenced the courage to challenge, seven questions represented the courage to participate in transformation, and twelve questions represented the courage to take moral action. "The relative number of items per behavior is indicative of the descriptive text Chaleff applies to each behavior" (Dixon, 2003, p. 54).

Factor analysis resulted in the deletion of all items with multiple loadings and all items lacking alignment with the dominant theoretical domain. This left an abbreviated version made up of 20 items remaining from the original 56 questions (see Appendix B). The researcher included items 21-23 for this study so that all dimensions consisted of at least four items (L. Behar-Horenstein, personal communication, March 18, 2008). These 23 items were divided among: six items for courage to assume responsibility, five questions referencing the courage to

serve, four items for the courage to challenge, four questions representing the courage to participate in transformation, and four items under the courage to take moral action.

The *TFP* used self-ratings with a forced-choice Likert response category scale. Declarative statements were followed by response options indicating varying degrees of agreement with the statements. Descriptor terms used with the five-item Likert response options were *no extent, slight extent, moderate extent, great extent,* and *very great extent,* and related to a numerical scale from 1 to 5, respectively. Lower extreme scores implied a minimum presence of courageous follower behaviors while the upper extreme denoted complete follower behaviors.

Dixon (2003) established evidence of validity for the *TFP* using four processes: test content, response processes, internal structure, and relations to other variables. Focus groups and multiple experts (to include Chaleff) established validity evidence based on test content during the development process through item development, review, and modification. Validity evidence based on response processes was established using cognitive interviews and self-administered questionnaires to test subjects. Dixon (2003) conducted confirmatory factor analysis to provide evidence supporting the internal structure of the scale measuring five dimensions. Additionally, measurement of internal consistency yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .956. Test-retest produced reliability correlations between .604 and .726 for the six assessed dimensions. Further evidence of validity through relations to other variables was established through convergent evidence. The Pearson-Product Moment for the *TFP* and *The Self-Assessment Textual Instrument* (an alternate form instrument based on detailed textual descriptions of each of the five courageous follower behaviors) was .739. Spearman's Rho was calculated as .697.

Reliability was established in a number of ways. Dixon's measurement of internal consistency yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .956. The calculated split-half Spearman-

Brown reliability coefficient was .936 while the Guttman split-half was .934. Time stability was adequate with test-retest reliability indicating correlations between .604 and .726 for the six assessed dimensions. For the 20-item abbreviated version, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .868. The calculated split-half Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient was .855 while the Guttman split-half was .853. Stability over time was not assessed. Permission was obtained from Dixon to use the *TFP* in this study (see Appendix C).

Institutional Performance Survey

Organizational culture was assessed through the use the Institutional Performance Survey (IPS) cultural scenarios (see Appendix D) that Smart and St. John (1996) stated indicate "the extent to which their institutions evidenced attributes associated with four ideal culture types along four dimensions: institutional character, institutional leader, institutional cohesion, and institutional emphases" (p. 226). 16 items were divided equally among the four dimensions, giving each dimension one item that characterized each culture type. Each presented scenario served as a word picture that "help[ed] respondents convey not just the extent to which they are satisfied or dissatisfied with their organization (its climate) but the core values and orientations that characterize it (its culture)" (Smart & St. John, 1996, p. 226).

The IPS culture scenarios asked respondents to distribute 100 points among four institutional descriptors "depending on how similar the description is to your school . . . For example . . . if Institution A seems very similar to mine, B seems somewhat similar, and C and D do not seem similar at all, I might give 70 points to A and the remaining 30 points to B" (Smart & St. John, 1996, p. 228). Scores were obtained by averaging ratings for each culture type across the four dimensions. The highest culture scale score was used to determine the dominant culture type for the institution.

Smart and St. John reported that "there is consistent empirical evidence supporting the validity of the four dominant organizational culture types that evolve from responses to the IPS cultural scenarios" (1996, p. 227). These authors reported the following reliabilities with the items used to measure each culture type: clan culture coefficient alpha = .82; adhocracy culture coefficient alpha = .83; bureaucratic culture coefficient alpha = .67; and market culture coefficient alpha = .78. They concluded that "it is possible to develop a valid survey instrument to study organizational culture because their results using the IPS met the criteria of internal consistency, predictable relationships with other organizational phenomena, and discrimination among groups" (Smart & St. John, 1996, p. 229). Permission was obtained from Smart to use the IPS cultural scenarios in this study (see Appendix E).

Procedure for Data Collection

Full-time and adjunct instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors from Florida's community colleges were the intended population of this research. 3,200 faculty members from 27 of Florida's 28 community colleges were contacted via e-mail and asked to complete an on-line survey of faculty followership behaviors. A web-based survey was chosen because web-responding tends to be less time-consuming for participants (Phillips, 2002). Potential participants received an e-mail to the account listed in their faculty contact information. Upon opening the message, an introductory letter explained the study and asked for their participation (see Appendix F). The letter also explained the importance of their participation and that by completing and submitting the survey, participants were consenting to voluntarily participate in this study. Finally, the e-mail noted the endorsement of this research by the University of Florida Human Subjects Committee (see Appendix G). Faculty who considered participating were directed to a linked website containing electronic versions of the abbreviated *TFP*, *IPS*, and a demographics questionnaire. Permission from the authors to use the *TFP* and the

IPS for the purposes of this research was obtained prior to study (Appendices C and E). Survey questions were presented sequentially. Respondents did not need to complete any question that they were uncomfortable answering before moving on to the next question. Upon completion of the *TFP* and *IPS*, participants moved immediately to demographic information questions (see Appendix H) that gathered information about the respondent's faculty rank, tenure status, age, sex, race, ethnicity, education level, discipline, length of time working in higher education, institutional size, population served, location, and type.

Variables

Dependent Variables

Factor scores were used as the dependent variables in this study. Factor scores are derived from the sum of the proportional weighting of items relevant in making the factor score. Factor scores are standardized values; a one-unit difference in a factor score represents one standard deviation difference in the study population. Using factor scores allowed the researcher to avoid the assumption that all scale items equally affected the dependent variable scores. The dependent variables in this study were as follows:

1. Total followership factor score – a weighted summation of Chaleff's five distinct categories of follower behaviors as measured by the *TFP*: the courage to assume responsibility, the courage to serve, the courage to challenge, the courage to participate in transformation, and the courage to take moral action;
2. Responsibility factor score – a weighted summation of *TFP* items 2, 6, 8, 16, 17, and 19;
3. Service factor score – a weighted summation of items 7, and 11-14;
4. Challenge factor score – a weighted summation of items 15, 18, 21 and 22;
5. Transformation factor score – a weighted summation of items 1, 3, 4, and 10; and
6. Moral action factor score – a weighted summation of items 5, 9, 20, and 23.

Independent Variables

1. Faculty rank. There were four levels of this variable: instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor.

2. Tenure. A dichotomous variable that indicated whether the respondent was a tenured faculty member (on continuing contract) or not.

3. Age. A continuous variable that reflected the age of the respondent at the time of survey completion.

4. Sex. A dichotomous variable that indicated whether the respondent was male or female.

5. Race. A dichotomous variable that indicated whether the respondent was white or of a minority group, as defined using traditional U.S. Census Bureau (2008) classifications of: American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, Hispanic/Latino, and Other.

6. Education level. An ordinal variable that reflected the highest degree obtained by the respondent. Four options were available: associate (2-year) degree, bachelor's (4-year) degree, master's degree, or doctoral degree.

7. Discipline. A categorical variable based on Biglan's (1973) classification of academic disciplines and community college workforce degrees that indicated whether respondents obtained their highest degree in (a) humanities, business, education, or social sciences, (b) math, science, technology, or engineering, or (c) health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts.

8. Length of time working in higher education. A continuous variable that indicated the number of years the respondent had worked in education.

9. Culture. There were four levels of this variable: clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market, as measured by the IPS cultural scenarios.

10. Institutional size. A continuous variable that reflected total FTEs.

11. Population served. A continuous variable that reflected the population of the area intended to be served by the institution and based on 2006 census data (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006).

12. Institutional location. Three locations were available: large urban area, in or near a population center or state university, or not near a major population center.

13. Institutional type. A dichotomous variable of the institution either awarding the baccalaureate degree or not.

Statistical Analyses

For all statistical techniques used in this study, an alpha level of .05 was used as the criterion significance level. Except for factor analysis and determination of factor scores, all statistical analyses were conducted using SAS System for Windows version 8. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted using SPSS Graduate Pack for Windows version 15.0 on the collected data to ensure that the *TFP* was appropriate for use with a higher education faculty population since Dixon (2003) originally developed the *TFP* questionnaire for use with engineers and technology workers. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was also determined to address the *TFP's* reliability (internal consistency) characteristics with this different population. These analyses indicated the appropriateness of the *TFP* for use in this study. Also, SPSS was also used to determine the factor scores of all dependent variables used in this study.

Question 1

The following regression model was used to test the first research question's hypothesis that total followership factor score (F) varied by: (1) rank, (2) tenure status, (3) age, (4) sex, (5) race, (6) education level, (7) discipline, and (8) length of time working in higher education:

$$F = \alpha + [\text{rank}] + \text{tenure} + \text{age} + \text{sex} + \text{race} + [\text{education}] + [\text{discipline}] + \text{time working} + \varepsilon$$

In equation format:

$$\eta = \alpha + [\delta_1 Z_1 + \delta_2 Z_2 + \delta_3 Z_3] + \delta_4 Z_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \delta_6 Z_6 + \delta_7 Z_7 + [\delta_8 Z_8 + \delta_9 Z_9 + \delta_{10} Z_{10}] + [\delta_{11} Z_{11} + \delta_{12} Z_{12}] + \beta_{13} X_{13} + \varepsilon$$

Dummy coding of class variables for the equation was as follows:
Rank: Z1 = 1 for assistant professors, 0 for all others; Z2 = 1 for associate professors, 0 for all others; Z3 = 1 for professors, 0 for all others
Tenure: Z4 = 1 for tenure track; 0 for non-tenure track
Sex: Z6 = 1 for females; 0 for males
Race: Z7 = 1 for non-minority status; 0 for minority status
Education level: Z8 = 1 for associates degree; 0 for all others; Z9 = 1 for bachelors degree; 0 for all others; Z10 = 1 for masters degree; 0 for all others

The hypotheses that were tested for the first research question (stated in terms of the model's parameters) were as follows:

H_{O1}: $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = \delta_3 = 0$; **$H_{O2}$:** $\delta_4 = 0$; **H_{O3}:** $\beta_5 = 0$; **H_{O4}:** $\delta_6 = 0$; **H_{O5}:** $\delta_7 = 0$;

H_{O6}: $\delta_8 = \delta_9 = \delta_{10} = 0$; **$H_{O7}$:** $\delta_{11} = \delta_{12} = 0$; **$H_{O8}$:** $\beta_{13} = 0$

H_{A1}: δ_1 and/or δ_2 and/or $\delta_3 \neq 0$; **H_{A2}:** $\delta_4 \neq 0$; **H_{A3}:** $\beta_5 \neq 0$; **H_{A4}:** $\delta_6 \neq 0$; **H_{A5}:** $\delta_7 \neq 0$;

H_{A6}: δ_8 and/or δ_9 and/or $\delta_{10} \neq 0$; **H_{A7}:** δ_{11} and/or $\delta_{12} \neq 0$; **H_{A8}:** $\beta_{13} \neq 0$

Similar regression models were used to test the hypotheses that the five followership component factor scores (responsibility, service, challenging, transformation, and moral action) varied by: (1) rank, (2) tenure status, (3) age, (4) sex, (5) race, (6) education level, (7) discipline, and (8) length of time working in higher education.

Question 2

One-way ANOVA was used to test the second research question's hypothesis that the total followership factor score varied with organizational culture. One-way ANOVA was also used to test the hypotheses that the five followership component factor scores varied with organizational culture. The hypothesis that was tested for research question two was as follows:

H_{O9}: $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = \mu_4 = 0$

H_{A9}: μ_1 and/or μ_2 and/or μ_3 and/or $\mu_4 \neq 0$

Question 3

The following regression model was used to test the third research question's hypothesis that the total followership factor score (F) varied by institutional: (1) size, (2) population served, (3) location, and (4) type.

$F = \alpha + \text{size} + \text{population} + [\text{location}] + \text{type} + \varepsilon$

In equation format:

$\eta = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + [\delta_3 Z_3 + \delta_4 Z_4] + \delta_5 Z_5 + \varepsilon$

Dummy coding of the class variable (rank) for the equation was as follows:
Z3 = 1 for large urban area, 0 for all others; Z4 = 1 for in or near a population center or state university, 0 for all others

The hypotheses that were tested for the third research question (stated in terms of the model's parameters) were as follows:

H_{O10}: $\beta_1 = 0$; **H_{O11}:** $\beta_2 = 0$; **H_{O12}:** $\delta_3 = \delta_4 = 0$; **H_{O13}:** $\delta_5 = 0$

H_{A10}: $\beta_1 \neq 0$; **H_{A11}:** $\beta_2 \neq 0$; **H_{A12}:** δ_3 and/or $\delta_4 \neq 0$; **H_{A13}:** $\delta_5 \neq 0$

Similar regression models were used to test the hypotheses that the five followership component factor scores (responsibility, service, challenging, transformation, and moral action) varied by institutional: (1) size, (2) population served, (3) location, and (4) type.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSES

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the analyses of the collected data. The chapter is divided into four major sections; (a) response rate, (b) respondent profile, (c) instrument performance, and (d) hypotheses testing.

Response Rate

Of the 3,200 surveys electronically mailed to the selected faculty members, 661 were returned for a response rate of 20.7%. This rate fell within the predicted response rate of 20 to 25 percent suggested by previous studies (Gerity, 1999; Phillips, 2002; Roark, 1988; Sheehan, 2001). Table 1 provides the response rates of the participating institutions. Of the 661 returned surveys, 64 surveys were incomplete and were deleted. This left 597 surveys that were used in the data analyses.

Respondent Profile

Table 2 is a presentation of the breakdown of the sample population corresponding to the demographic variables used in the study. Table 3 is a comparison of the composition of the sample population and the actual population of Florida community college faculty members.

Instrument Performance

Reliability

The 23 items of the *TFP* were submitted to reliability analyses. A Cronbach coefficient alpha of .84 was obtained for the total score, .74 for the service subscore, .67 for the transformation subscore, .60 for the challenge subscore, .60 for the responsibility subscore, and .54 for the moral action subscore. These analyses revealed one item whose deletion from the analysis would increase the alpha. The deletion of this item (question 19) from the subsequent

reliability analysis would have increased the coefficient alpha to .84, a negligible increase. This item was also the only one to have less than a .30 correlation with the total.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was performed to determine if the *TFP* performed on this sample in a manner similar to that in earlier applications. Dixon (2003) had previously identified the scale as having five factors. The researcher used the principal components method of factor analysis with varimax rotation using Kaiser normalization and ignored Eigenvalues less than 1.0. Rotation converged after six iterations.

The first factor, whose loading were very similar to the *courage to serve* dimension described by Dixon (2003), accounted for 23.8% of the total variance in *TFP* scores. The dimension *courage to take moral action* accounted for an additional 9.3% of the total variance while the dimension *courage to participate in transformation* accounted for an additional 6.7% of the total variance. The fourth factor represented Dixon's theoretical domain of *courage to challenge* and accounted for 6.0% of the total variance. The fifth factor included items from the *courage to assume responsibility* dimension and accounted for 4.8% of the total variance. These five factors accounted for 50.6% of the total variance (as opposed to 62.79% in Dixon's original study).

As noted by Dixon (2003), while each factor did not purely consist of items from only one theoretical domain, behaviors from one theoretical domain were the predominantly represented behaviors within each factor structure. These results were not unusual as factor analysis is considered an assessment of respondent patterns and not theory-based (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Schrieschein, Clogliser, Scandura, Lankau, & Powers, 1999; Schrieschein, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner, & Lankau, 1993). The rotated component matrix is given in Table 4. Based

on these results, the *TFP* was deemed appropriate to use for this population and items were judged to measure the six dimensions as defined by Dixon (2003).

To determine factor scores, exploratory factor analysis was performed six times. Items hypothesized to contribute to an individual subscore (responsibility, service, challenging, transformation, or moral action) were selected and a single factor solution was chosen. Factor scores for the five subscores were then entered and a single solution was selected to determine factor scores for the total followership score. These factor scores were used for all analyses.

Hypotheses Testing

Question 1

Analysis of variance was conducted to determine the effect of institutional membership on the total followership factor score as well as its five component factor scores. The following variables were included in the analyses: institution, rank, tenure status, age, sex, race, education level, discipline, and length of time working in higher education. Institution was not significant for any analyses. The effect of institution for total score was $F(25, 428) = .78$, $p = .77$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$; for the responsibility subscore, $F(25, 428) = .96$, $p = .52$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$; for the service subscore, $F(25, 428) = .89$, $p = .62$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$; for the challenge subscore, $F(25, 428) = .98$, $p = .50$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$, for the transformation subscore, $F(25, 428) = 1.24$, $p = .20$, partial $\eta^2 = .07$; and for the moral action subscore, $F(25, 428) = .79$, $p = .76$, partial $\eta^2 = .04$. Because the effect of institution was not significant in any analyses, multi-level analysis was not used for the first research question's analyses.

The following regression model was used to test the first research question's hypothesis that the total followership factor score (F) varied by: (1) rank, (2) tenure status, (3) age, (4) sex, (5) race, (6) education level, (7) discipline, and (8) length of time working in higher education:

$$F = \alpha + [\text{rank}] + \text{tenure} + \text{age} + \text{sex} + \text{race} + [\text{education}] + [\text{discipline}] + \text{time working} + \varepsilon$$

In equation format:

$$\eta = \alpha + [\delta_1 Z_1 + \delta_2 Z_2 + \delta_3 Z_3] + \delta_4 Z_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \delta_6 Z_6 + \delta_7 Z_7 + [\delta_8 Z_8 + \delta_9 Z_9 + \delta_{10} Z_{10}] + [\delta_{11} Z_{11} + \delta_{12} Z_{12}] + \beta_{13} X_{13} + \varepsilon$$

Dummy coding of class variables for the equation was as follows:
Rank: Z1 = 1 for assistant professors, 0 for all others; Z2 = 1 for associate professors, 0 for all others; Z3 = 1 for professors, 0 for all others
Tenure: Z4 = 1 for tenure track; 0 for non-tenure track
Sex: Z6 = 1 for females; 0 for males
Race: Z7 = 1 for non-minority status; 0 for minority status
Education level: Z8 = 1 for associates degree; 0 for all others; Z9 = 1 for bachelors degree; 0 for all others; Z10 = 1 for masters degree; 0 for all others

The hypotheses that were tested for the first research question (stated in terms of the model's parameters):

H_{O1}: $\delta_1 = \delta_2 = \delta_3 = 0$; **$H_{O2}$:** $\delta_4 = 0$; **H_{O3}:** $\beta_5 = 0$; **H_{O4}:** $\delta_6 = 0$; **H_{O5}:** $\delta_7 = 0$;

H_{O6}: $\delta_8 = \delta_9 = \delta_{10} = 0$; **$H_{O7}$:** $\delta_{11} = \delta_{12} = 0$; **$H_{O8}$:** $\beta_{13} = 0$

H_{A1}: δ_1 and/or δ_2 and/or $\delta_3 \neq 0$; **H_{A2}:** $\delta_4 \neq 0$; **H_{A3}:** $\beta_5 \neq 0$; **H_{A4}:** $\delta_6 \neq 0$; **H_{A5}:** $\delta_7 \neq 0$;

H_{A6}: δ_8 and/or δ_9 and/or $\delta_{10} \neq 0$; **H_{A7}:** δ_{11} and/or $\delta_{12} \neq 0$; **H_{A8}:** $\beta_{13} \neq 0$

Similar regression models were used to test the hypotheses that the five followership component factor scores (responsibility, service, challenging, transformation, and moral action) varied by: (1) rank, (2) tenure status, (3) age, (4) sex, (5) race, (6) education level, (7) discipline, and (8) length of time working in higher education.

The Pearson-r correlation coefficients and their associated levels of significance are presented in Table 5 for each of the dependent variables (followership factor scores) as they were related to the variables of interest. The issue of multicolinearity was examined. The largest correlation between independent variables was .51 between age and years of work in higher education. This was less than $\pm$ .7, which was recommended by Rumsey (2007) as a threshold criteria. All other correlations were less than .40. Additionally, no factor had a tolerance less than

.1 or a variance inflation factor (VIF) greater than 10. Therefore, no factors were excluded due to multicolinearity.

The model for the total followership factor score explained 5.96% of the variance. Table 6 is the regression table for the analysis using total followership factor scores as the dependent variable. The data indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between total followership factor scores and age, $t(498) = 3.15$, $p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$, with older individuals scoring higher. Furthermore, there were statistically significant differences in total followership factor scores based on sex, $t(498) = 2.12$, $p = .03$, with females scoring higher than males. Cohen's effect size for sex was .22, with a 95% confidence interval of [.05, .40]. In addition, the data indicated that there were statistically significant differences in followership factor scores based on faculty rank between assistant professors and associate professors, $t(498) = 5.60$, $p = .02$, and between assistant professors and full professors, $t(498) = 4.58$, $p = .03$, with the followership factor scores of assistant professors being larger in each case. Cohen's effect size for rank between assistant professors and associate professors was .28, with a 95% confidence interval of [.00, .57]. Cohen's effect size for rank between assistant professors and full professors was .20, with a 95% confidence interval of [.00, .46]. Finally, the data indicated that there were statistically significant differences in total followership factor scores based on the discipline in which the faculty members earned their highest degrees, between Humanities, Business, Education, or Social sciences (HBES) and Science, Technology, Engineering, or Math (STEM), $t(498) = 7.92$, $p = .005$, with faculty having an HBES background scoring higher. Cohen's effect size for discipline was .31, with a 95% confidence interval of [.12, .51]. Based on these results, H_{O1}, H_{O3}, H_{O4}, and H_{O7} were rejected; there were significant total followership factor score differences based on rank, age, sex, and discipline. The means and standard

deviations of followership factor scores grouped by sex, discipline, and faculty rank are presented in Tables 7, 8, and 9, respectively. The regression line for predicted total followership factor scores on age is presented in Figure 3. No other comparisons utilizing total followership factor scores were significant. Plots of studentized residuals against the independent variables were examined. No violations of linearity, conditional normality, or equal conditional variance were detected.

The model for the responsibility factor score explained 5.66% of the variance. Table 10 is the regression table for the analysis using responsibility factor scores as the dependent variables. Statistically significant results were found for age, $t(498) = 2.75$, $p = .006$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, with older participants scoring higher. Statistically significant results were also found for education level between faculty whose highest degree was a master's and those with a doctorate, $t(498) = 2.53$, $p = .01$, with doctorate holders scoring higher. Cohen's effect size for education level between faculty with a master's and those with a doctorate was .26 with a 95% confidence interval of [.07, .45]. Finally, statistically significant results were found for discipline between HBES and STEM, $t(498) = 10.85$, $p = .001$, with HBES participants scoring higher. Cohen's effect size for discipline between HBES and STEM was .32, with a 95% confidence interval of [.13, .52]. Based on these results, H_{O3R}, H_{O6R}, and H_{O7R} were rejected; there were significant responsibility factor score differences based on age, education level, and discipline. Tables 11 and 12 present the means and standard deviations of responsibility factor scores grouped by education level and discipline, respectively. The regression line for predicted responsibility factor scores on age is presented in Figure 4. No other comparisons utilizing responsibility factor scores were significant. Plots of studentized residuals against the independent variables were

examined. No violations of linearity, conditional normality, or equal conditional variance were detected.

The model for the service factor score explained 6.06% of the variance. Table 13 is the regression table for the analysis using service factor scores as the dependent variables. A statistically significant difference was found for sex, $t(498) = 2.82$, $p = .005$, with females outscoring males. Cohen's effect size for sex was .25 with a 95% confidence interval between [.08, .43]. Statistically significant results were found for rank between assistant professor and associate professor, $t(498) = 9.31$, $p = .002$, and assistant professor and full professor, $t(498) = 5.54$, $p = .02$, with assistant professors scoring higher in each case. Cohen's effect size for rank between assistant professor and associate professor was .46 with a 95% confidence interval of [.16, .75] and Cohen's effect size between assistant professor and full professor was .27 with a 95% confidence interval of [.02, .53]. Finally, statistically significant differences were found in discipline between HBES and STEM, $t(498) = 4.04$, $p = .04$, with HBES outscoring STEM. Cohen's effect size for discipline between HBES and STEM was .22 with a 95% confidence interval of [.02, .42]. Based on these results, H_{O1S}, H_{O4S}, and H_{O7S} were rejected; there were significant service factor score differences based on faculty rank, sex, and discipline. Plots of studentized residuals against the independent variables were examined. No violations of linearity, conditional normality, or equal conditional variance were detected.

In addition, the data indicated that there were statistically significant differences in service factor scores for rank when controlling the per comparison error rate between assistant professor and instructor, $t(498) = 2.06$, $p = .04$, However, these differences were no longer significant when controlling the familywise error rate ($t_{\alpha fw/2,\ 4,\ 498} = 2.51$). Tables 14, 15, and 16 present the

means and standard deviations of service factor scores grouped by rank, sex, and discipline, respectively. No other comparisons utilizing service factor scores were significant.

The model for the challenge factor score explained 4.21% of the variance. Table 17 is the regression table for the analysis using challenge factor scores as the dependent variables. Statistically significant results were found for age, $t(498) = 2.99$, $p = .003$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$, with older participants scoring higher. The data also indicated that there were statistically significant differences in challenge factor scores for discipline between HBES and STEM, $t(498) = 4.87$, $p = .03$, with HBES scoring higher. Cohen's effect size for discipline between HBES and STEM was .22 with a 95% confidence interval of [.03, .42]. Based on these results, H_{O3C} and H_{O7C} were rejected; there were significant challenge factor score differences based on age and discipline. Table 18 presents the means and standard deviations of challenge factor scores, grouped by discipline. The regression line for predicted challenge factor scores on age is presented in Figure 5. No other comparisons utilizing challenge factor scores were significant. Plots of studentized residuals against the independent variables were examined. No violations of linearity, conditional normality, or equal conditional variance were detected.

The model for the transformation factor score explained 4.90% of the variance. Table 19 is the regression table for the analysis using transformation factor scores as the dependent variables. Statistically significant results were found for tenure, $t(498) = 2.10$, $p = .04$, with tenure-track faculty scoring higher. Cohen's effect size for tenure was .15 with a 95% confidence interval of [.00, .32]. Statistically significant results were found for sex, $t(498) = 3.00$, $p = .003$, with females outscoring males. Cohen's effect size for sex was .34 with a 95% confidence interval of [.16, .51]. Statistically significant differences were found for discipline between HBES and STEM, $t(498) = 5.68$, $p = .02$, with HBES scoring higher. Cohen's effect size for

discipline between HBES and STEM was .25 with a 95% confidence interval of [.05, .45]. Based on these results, H_{O2T}, H_{O4T}, and H_{O7C} were rejected; there were significant transformation factor score differences based on tenure, sex, and discipline. Tables 20, 21, and 22 present the means and standard deviations of transformation factor scores, grouped by tenure, sex, and discipline, respectively. No other comparisons utilizing transformation factor scores were significant. Plots of studentized residuals against the independent variables were examined. No violations of linearity, conditional normality, or equal conditional variance were detected.

The model for the moral action factor score explained 6.35% of the variance. Table 23 is the regression table for the analysis using moral action factor scores as the dependent variables. Statistically significant results were found for tenure, $t(498) = -2.04$, $p = .04$, with non-tenured faculty scoring higher. Cohen's effect size for tenure was .32 with a 95% confidence interval of [.16, .49]. Statistically significant results were also found for age, $t(498) = 2.83$, $p = .005$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$, with older participants scoring higher. Based on these results, H_{O2M} and H_{O3M} were rejected; there were significant moral action factor score differences based on tenure and age. Table 24 presents the means and standard deviations of moral action factor scores grouped by tenure. The regression line for predicted challenge factor scores on age is presented in Figure 6. No other comparisons utilizing moral action factor scores were significant. Plots of studentized residuals against the independent variables were examined. No violations of linearity, conditional normality, or equal conditional variance were detected.

In summary, significant differences due to faculty rank were found for the service and total followership factor scores; due to tenure was for the transformation and moral action factor scores; due to age were for the responsibility, challenge, moral action, and total followership factor scores; due to sex were for the service, transformation, and total followership factor

scores; due to education level was only for the responsibility factor score; and due to discipline was for the responsibility, service, challenge, transformation, and total followership factor scores. The variables of race and years working in higher education did not yield any significant differences.

Question 2

One-way ANOVA was used to test the second research question's hypothesis that total followership factor scores varied with organizational culture. The means and standard deviations of followership factor scores, grouped by culture types, are presented in Table 25. The data indicated that there were statistically significant differences in total followership factor scores based on culture type, $F(3, 586) = 6.86$, $p = .0002$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Table 26 is the ANOVA table for this analysis. Pairwise comparisons of culture types were planned and the familywise error rate was selected for control. The Shaffer-Holm procedure was used to conduct pairwise comparisons of marginal means. The *t* statistics and critical values for the Shaffer-Holm procedure are shown in Table 27. Significant differences were found for Clan vs. Hierarchy, $t(586) = 4.44$, $p < .0001$, and for Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy, $t(586) = 2.50$, $p = .01$, but not for the other comparisons. Cohen's effect size for Clan vs. Hierarchy was .42 with a 95% confidence interval of [.22, .61]. Cohen's effect size for Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy was .28 with a 95% confidence interval of [.05, .51]. Based on these results, H_{O9} was rejected.

One-way ANOVA was also used to test the hypotheses that the responsibility, service, challenging, transformation and moral action factor scores varied with organizational culture. The data indicated that there were statistically significant differences based on culture type for the following factor scores; service, challenging, transformation and moral action (but not for responsibility).

The means and standard deviations of service factor scores, grouped by culture type, are presented in Table 28. The data indicated that there were statistically significant differences in service factor scores based on culture type, $F(3, 586) = 6.28$, $p = .0003$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Table 29 is the ANOVA table for this analysis. Pairwise comparisons of culture types were planned and the familywise error rate was selected for control. The Shaffer-Holm procedure was used to conduct pairwise comparisons of marginal means. The *t* statistics and critical values for the Shaffer-Holm procedure are shown in Table 30. Significant differences were found for Clan vs. Hierarchy, $t(586) = 4.28$, $p < .0001$, but not for the other comparisons. Cohen's effect size for Clan vs. Hierarchy was .43 with a 95% confidence interval of [.23, .62]. Based on these results, H_{O9S} was rejected.

The means and standard deviations of challenging factor scores, grouped by culture type, are presented in Table 31. The data indicated that there were statistically significant differences in challenging factor scores based on culture type, $F(3, 586) = 3.27$, $p = .02$, partial $\eta^2 = .02$. Table 32 is the ANOVA table for this analysis. Pairwise comparisons of culture types were planned and the familywise error rate was selected for control. The Shaffer-Holm procedure was used to conduct pairwise comparisons of marginal means. The *t* statistics and critical values for the Shaffer-Holm procedure are shown in Table 33. Significant differences were found for Clan vs. Hierarchy, $t(586) = 2.74$, $p = .01$, but not for the other comparisons. Cohen's effect size for Clan vs. Hierarchy was .27 with a 95% confidence interval of [.08, .46]. Based on these results, H_{O9C} was rejected.

The means and standard deviations of transformation factor scores, grouped by culture type, are presented in Table 34. The data indicated that there were statistically significant differences in transformation factor scores based on culture type, $F(3, 586) = 8.57$, $p < .0001$,

partial η^2 = .04. Table 35 is the ANOVA table for this analysis. Pairwise comparisons of culture types were planned and the familywise error rate was selected for control. The Shaffer-Holm procedure was used to conduct pairwise comparisons of marginal means. The *t* statistics and critical values for the Shaffer-Holm procedure are shown in Table 36. Significant differences were found for Clan vs. Hierarchy, $t(586) = 4.58$, $p < .0001$, for Clan vs. Market, $t(586) = 3.30$, $p = .001$, and for Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy, $t(586) = 2.68$, $p = .01$, but not for the other three comparisons. Cohen's effect size for Clan vs. Hierarchy was .45 with a 95% confidence interval of [.25, .64]. Cohen's effect size for Clan vs. Market was .53 with a 95% confidence interval of [.24, .81]. Cohen's effect size for Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy was .30 with a 95% confidence interval of [.06, .53]. Based on these results, H_{O9T} was rejected.

The means and standard deviations of moral action factor scores, grouped by culture type, are presented in Table 37. The data indicated that there were statistically significant differences in moral action factor scores based on culture type, $F(3, 586) = 2.75$, $p = .04$, partial η^2 = .01. Table 38 is the ANOVA table for this analysis. Pairwise comparisons of culture types were planned and the familywise error rate was selected for control. The Shaffer-Holm procedure was used to conduct pairwise comparisons of marginal means. The *t* statistics and critical values for the Shaffer-Holm procedure are shown in Table 39. Significant differences were found for Clan vs. Hierarchy, $t(586) = 2.63$, $p = .01$, but not for the other comparisons. Cohen's effect size for Clan vs. Hierarchy was .26 with a 95% confidence interval of [.07, .45]. Based on these results, H_{O9M} was rejected.

Question 3

The following regression model was used to test the third research question's hypothesis that total followership factor scores (F) varied by institutional: (1) size, (2) population served, (3) location, and (4) type (bachelor degree-granting or not).

$F = \alpha + \text{size} + \text{population} + [\text{location}] + \text{type} + \varepsilon$

In equation format:

$\eta = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + [\delta_3 Z_3 + \delta_4 Z_4] + \delta_5 Z_5 + \varepsilon$
Dummy coding of the class variable for the equation was as follows:
Rank: Z3 = 1 for large urban area, 0 for all others; Z4 = 1 for in or near a population center or state university, 0 for all others

The hypotheses that were tested for the first research question (stated in terms of the model's parameters):

$\mathbf{H_{O10}}$**:** $\beta_1 = 0$; $\mathbf{H_{O11}}$**:** $\beta_2 = 0$; $\mathbf{H_{O12}}$**:** $\delta_3 = \delta_4 = 0$; $\mathbf{H_{O13}}$**:** $\delta_5 = 0$

$\mathbf{H_{A10}}$**:** $\beta_1 \neq 0$; $\mathbf{H_{A11}}$**:** $\beta_2 \neq 0$; $\mathbf{H_{A12}}$**:** δ_3 and/or $\delta_4 \neq 0$; $\mathbf{H_{A13}}$**:** $\delta_5 \neq 0$

Similar regression models were used to test the hypotheses that the five followership factor scores (responsibility, service, challenging, transformation, and moral action) varied by institutional: (1) size, (2) population served, (3) location, and (4) type.

The Pearson-r correlation coefficients and their associated levels of significance are presented in Table 40 for each of the dependent variables (followership factor scores) as they were related to the variables of interest. The only significant difference among factor scores was found in the moral action dimension for the independent variable of degree offered. This model explained 1.44% of the variance. Table 41 is the regression table for the analysis using moral action factor scores as the dependent variable. Statistically significant results were found for degree offered, $t(528) = 2.55$, $p = .01$, with faculty from institutions that offered bachelor's degrees scoring higher for moral action than faculty from institutions that did not offer bachelor's degrees. Cohen's effect size for degree offered was .23 with a 95% confidence interval of [.05, .42]. Table 42 presents the means and standard deviations of moral action subscores, grouped by degree offered. No other comparisons of institutional variables were

significant for followership factor scores. Based on these results, only H_{O13M} was rejected under the third research question.

Additional Analyses

Analyses of all potential two-way interactions were performed. ANOVA indicated several significant interactions. In the responsibility dimension, ANOVA indicated a significant tenure by years working interaction, $F(1, 495) = 7.05$, $p = .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, and a significant discipline by years working interaction, $F(2, 495) = 3.23$, $p = .04$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. Table 43 is the ANOVA tables for this analysis. Figures 7 and 8 present the predicted responsibility factor scores by tenure and discipline across years working in higher education institutions, respectively. The tenure by years working interaction suggested that tenured faculty responsibility factor scores declined over years working at a faster rate than non-tenured faculty factor scores. The academic discipline by years working interaction suggested that, while faculty in the math, science, technology, or engineering disciplines showed improvement in responsibility scores as their years working increased, faculty in humanities, business, education, or social sciences and in health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts showed declining responsibility scores over time.

In the service dimension, ANOVA indicated a significant age by tenure interaction, $F(1, 497) = 5.33$, $p = .02$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$. Table 44 is the ANOVA table for this analysis. Figure 9 presents the predicted service factor scores by tenure across age. The analysis indicated that among younger faculty members, tenured faculty had lower service factor scores than non-tenured faculty. However, tenured faculty made service factor score gains as they aged while non-tenured faculty remained almost constant.

Summary

This chapter began with a description of the sample population followed by an examination of the performance of *The Followership Profile* to explore whether it had performed in a fashion consistent with Dixon's (2003) intent. Having determined that the *TFP* performed in a manner suitable for this study, analyses of the data proceeded and the results of hypotheses testing were reported. In Chapter 5, a discussion of these results, the implications drawn, and suggestions for future research are presented.

Table 4-1. Response rates by participating institution

Institution	Response Rate
Brevard Community College	17.0%
Broward College	18.9%
Central Florida Community College	23.1%
Chipola College	10.0%
Daytona Beach College	19.5%
Edison College	18.9%
Florida Community College at Jacksonville	12.5%
Florida Keys Community College	9.5%
Gulf Coast Community College	15.4%
Hillsborough Community College	41.2%
Indian River State College	10.0%
Lake City Community College	17.5%
Lake-Sumter Community College	20.6%
Manatee Community College	39.2%
North Florida Community College	15.6%
Northwest Florida State College	11.1%
Palm Beach Community College	21.8%
Pasco-Hernando Community College	18.1%
Pensacola Junior College	26.6%
Polk Community College	11.0%
Santa Fe Community College	17.3%
Seminole Community College	14.3%
South Florida Community College	13.6%
St. Johns River Community College	6.3%
St. Petersburg College	20.0%
Tallahassee Community College	17.3%
Valencia Community College	18.8%
Overall response rate	20.7%

* 63 respondents did not identify their institution.

* Miami-Dade College did not participate.

Table 4-2. Percentage of sample N represented by demographic variables of interest

Rank	% of Total	Discipline	% of Total
Professor	40.2%	Humanities, business, education, or social sciences	57.6%
Associate Professor	19.3%	Math, science, technology, or engineering	24.9%
Assistant Professor	13.1%	Health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts	17.5%
Instructor	27.4%		
Tenured	**% of Total**	**Highest Degree Earned**	**% of Total**
Yes	61.7%	Doctorate	27.4%
No	38.3%	Masters	62.8%
		Bachelors	6.9%
		Associates	2.9%
Minority Status	**% of Total**	**Sex**	**% of Total**
Caucasian	85.7%	Female	66.6%
Minority	14.3%	Male	33.4%
Age	**% of Total**	**Years in Education**	**% of Total**
20 – 29 years	4.0%	1 – 5 years	20.8%
30 – 39 years	14.5%	6 – 10 years	22.5%
40 – 49 years	24.9%	11 – 20 years	31.8%
50 – 59 years	38.7%	21 – 30 years	17.6%
≥ 60 years	17.9%	> 31 years	7.3%

Table 4-3. Comparison of total population versus responding sample population

	Sex		Minority Status	
Population	Female %	Male %	Caucasian %	Minority %
Total*	55.5%	44.5%	84.9%	15.1%
Respondent	66.6%	33.4%	85.7%	14.3%

	Highest Degree Earned			
Population	Doctorate	Masters	Bachelors	Associates
Total*	23.5%	66.5%	6.1%	2.0%
Respondent	27.4%	62.8%	6.9%	2.9%

	Tenure Status	
Population	Tenured	Adjunct
Total*	23.6%	76.4%
Respondent	61.7%	38.3%

* Source: Florida Department of Education, 2007

Table 4-4. Rotated component matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Item 10	.64	-.13	.18	.01	-.13
Item 12	.62	-.29	.01	-.31	-.05
Item 13	.62	-.34	-.14	-.20	.31
Item 4	.55	-.42	.01	.26	.14
Item 11	.55	-.29	.02	-.33	-.01
Item 18	.53	.34	.16	-.20	.15
Item 16	.52	.26	.21	.26	-.33
Item 14	.52	-.02	-.14	-.30	-.24
Item 7	.51	-.37	-.21	-.12	-.08
Item 8	.50	.21	.38	-.21	.13
Item 15	.49	.17	.13	-.31	.04
Item 3	.48	-.44	-.01	.39	.23
Item 9	.45	-.02	-.29	.02	.17
Item 5	.44	-.06	-.08	-.11	-.23
Item 20	.44	.42	-.42	.15	-.02
Item 22	.40	.04	-.38	.11	.27
Item 21	.43	.58	-.20	.11	.11
Item 23	.41	.49	-.52	.13	-.05
Item 17	.40	.30	.44	-.01	-.03
Item 2	.46	-.01	.16	.51	-.06
Item 1	.44	-.24	.28	.47	-.13
Item 6	.38	.15	.06	-.04	-.51
Item 19	.22	.39	.44	.01	.51

Table 4-5. Pearson-r correlation coefficients and significance levels for independent variables and TFP scores

	r_subscore	s_subscore	c_subscore	t_subscore	m_subscore	total_ score
Asst_prof	-.04	.09	.05	.05	.08	.06
	.40	.03*	.28	.20	.06	.12
	587	587	587	587	587	587
Assoc_prof	-.02	-.09	-.03	.01	-.07	-.05
	.70	.03*	.50	.83	.11	.20
	587	587	587	587	587	587
Full_prof	.05	-.02	-.01	-.03	-.11	-.03
	.27	.56	.82	.49	.01*	.43
	587	587	587	587	587	587
Tenure	.01	-.08	-.03	.07	-.16	-.05
	.82	.07	.54	.08	.0002*	.25
	587	587	587	587	587	587
Age	.12	.07	.14	.04	.06	.12
	.004*	.10	.001*	.37	.17	.005*
	530	530	530	530	530	530
Sex	.02	.12	.01	.16	.08	.10
	.58	.004*	.79	.0002*	.07	.01*
	572	572	572	572	572	572
Race	.02	.01	-.01	-.01	-.06	-.01
	.71	.79	.88	.80	.15	.76
	592	592	592	592	592	592
Assoc_degree	-.03	.04	-.03	-.02	.03	-.001
	.53	.34	.46	.70	.46	.97
	578	578	578	578	578	578
Bac_degree	-.03	.06	.04	.02	.03	.03
	.47	.13	.38	.67	.52	.45
	578	578	578	578	578	578
Mas_degree	-.09	-.02	-.02	.004	.04	-.02
	.04*	.61	.68	.92	.30	.59
	578	578	578	578	578	578
Hum_discipline	.15	.06	.07	.07	-.03	.09
	.0003*	.18	.12	.09	.53	.03*
	576	576	576	576	576	576
STEM_discip	-.11	-.10	-.10	-.11	-.06	-.13
	.01*	.02*	.02*	.01*	.17	.001*
	576	576	576	576	576	576
Years_working	.07	.02	.05	-.01	-.08	.02
	.07	.62	.19	.84	.06	.64
	573	573	573	573	573	573

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-6. Summary total followership factor score regression table for demographic variables

Variable	B	*SE B*	β
Asst_prof	.32	.21	.08
Assoc_prof	-.20	.20	-.06
Full_prof	-.12	.19	-.04
Tenure	-.07	.15	-.02
Age	.02	.01	.16
Sex	.29	.13	.10
Race	-.16	.19	-.02
Assoc_degree	.14	.39	.02
Bac_degree	.10	.26	.02
Mas_degree	-.09	.15	-.03
Hum_discipline	.09	.17	.03
STEM_discipline	-.34	.20	-.10
Years_working	-.01	.01	-.03

Table 4-7. Mean total followership factor scores and standard deviations grouped by sex

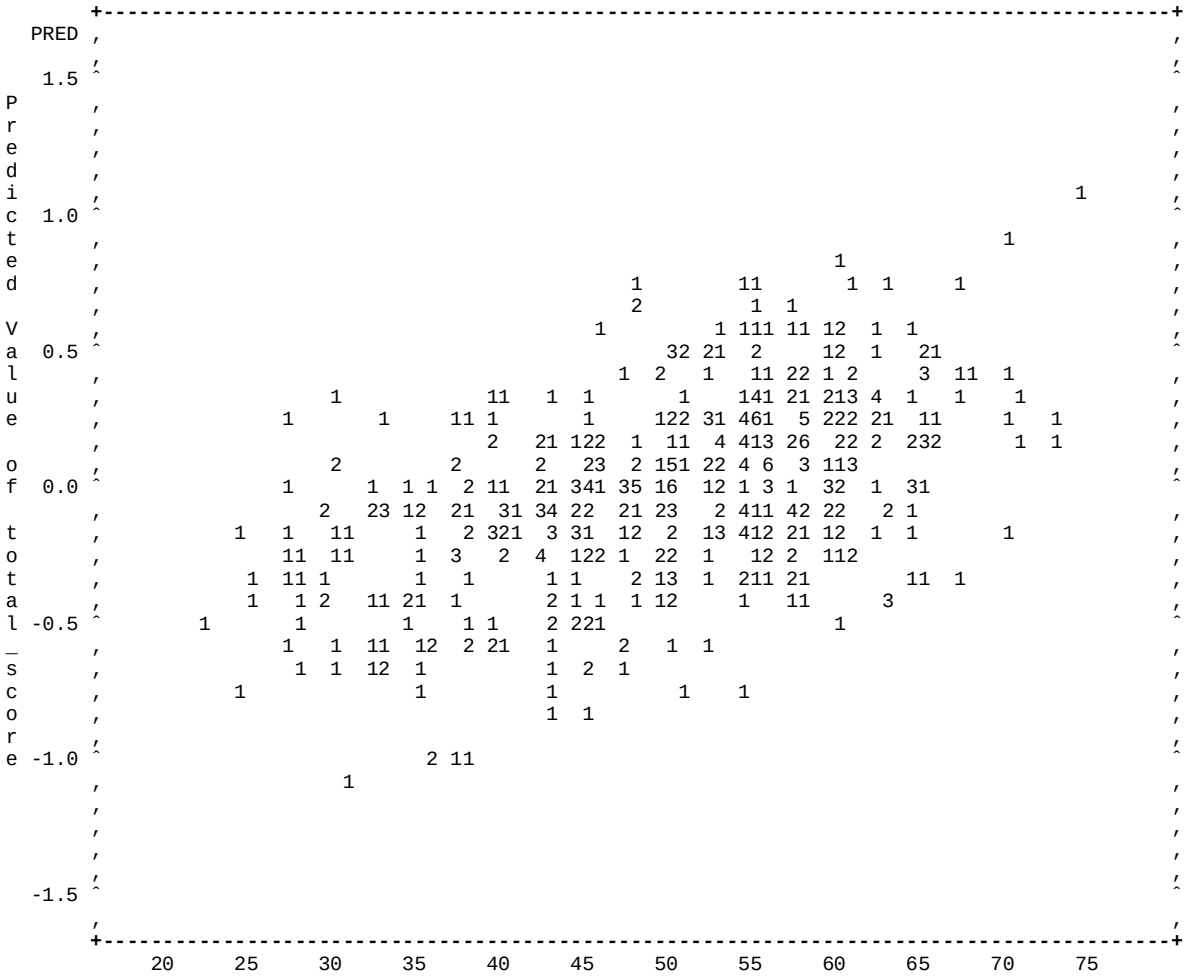
Sex	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Male	191	-.21	1.45
Female	381	.10	1.37

Table 4-8. Mean total followership factor scores and standard deviations grouped by discipline

Discipline	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Humanities, business, education, or social sciences	332	.10	1.37
Math, science, technology, or engineering	143	-.33	1.39
Health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts	101	.10	1.38

Table 4-9. Mean total followership factor scores and standard deviations grouped by faculty rank

Rank	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Instructor	161	.07	1.43
Assistant Professor	77	.22	1.22
Associate Professor	113	-.16	1.45
Professor	236	-.06	1.42



Age

Figure 4-1. Predicted total followership factor scores on age

Table 4-10. Summary responsibility factor score regression table for demographic variables

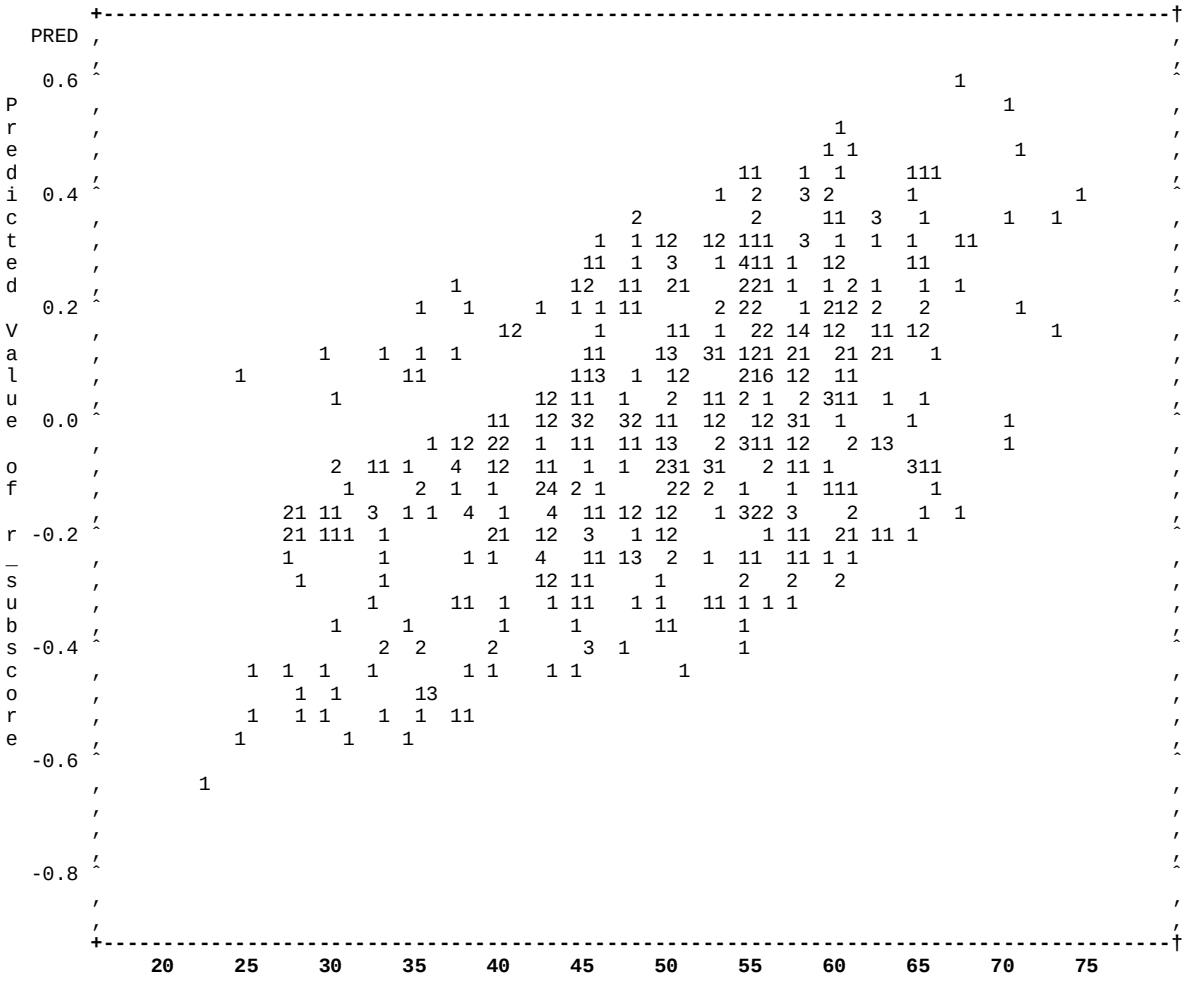
Variable	B	*SE B*	β
Asst_prof	-.01	.15	-.002
Assoc_prof	-.09	.14	-.04
Full_prof	-.05	.13	-.02
Tenure	.04	.11	.02
Age	.01	.01	.14
Sex	.05	.10	.03
Race	.04	.14	.01
Assoc_degree	-.18	.27	-.03
Bac_degree	-.28	.19	-.07
Mas_degree	-.27	.11	-.13
Hum_discipline	.24	.12	.12
STEM_discipline	-.12	.14	-.05
Years_working	-.01	.01	-.06

Table 4-11. Mean responsibility factor scores and standard deviations grouped by education level

Level	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Associates	17	-.15	1.12
Bachelors	40	-.11	0.94
Masters	363	-.07	0.96
Doctorate	158	.19	1.07

Table 4-12. Mean responsibility factor scores and standard deviations grouped by discipline

Discipline	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Humanities, business, education, or social sciences	332	.13	0.96
Math, science, technology, or engineering	143	-.19	1.06
Health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts	101	-.14	0.93



Age

Figure 4-2. Predicted responsibility factor scores on age

Table 4-13. Summary service factor score regression table for demographic variables

Variable	B	*SE B*	β
Asst_prof	.31	.15	.11
Assoc_prof	-.17	.14	-.07
Full_prof	-.04	.14	-.02
Tenure	-.16	.11	-.08
Age	.01	.01	.07
Sex	.27	.10	.13
Race	-.01	.14	-.002
Assoc_degree	.42	.28	.07
Bac_degree	.25	.19	.07
Mas_degree	.01	.11	.01
Hum_discipline	.07	.13	.03
STEM_discipline	-.15	.14	-.06
Years_working	.01	.01	.06

Table 4-14. Mean service factor scores and standard deviations grouped by faculty rank

Rank	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Instructor	161	.05	1.04
Assistant Professor	77	.23	.74
Associate Professor	113	-.19	1.03
Professor	236	-.03	1.01

Table 4-15. Mean service factor scores and standard deviations grouped by sex

Sex	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Male	191	-.17	1.02
Female	381	.08	.98

Table 4-16. Mean service factor scores and standard deviations grouped by discipline

Discipline	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Humanities, business, education, or social sciences	332	.04	1.03
Math, science, technology, or engineering	143	-.18	.94
Health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts	101	.08	.95

Table 4-17. Summary challenge factor score regression table for demographic variables

Variable	B	*SE B*	β
Asst_prof	.22	.15	.07
Assoc_prof	-.05	.14	-.02
Full_prof	-.02	.13	-.01
Tenure	-.06	.11	-.03
Age	.01	.01	.16
Sex	-.03	.10	-.01
Race	-.03	.14	-.01
Assoc_degree	-.09	.28	-.02
Bac_degree	.15	.19	.04
Mas_degree	-.003	.11	-.001
Hum_discipline	.01	.12	.01
STEM_discipline	-.23	.14	-.10
Years_working	-.0003	.01	-.003

Table 4-18. Mean challenge factor scores and standard deviations grouped by discipline

Discipline	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Humanities, business, education, or social sciences	332	.05	.95
Math, science, technology, or engineering	143	-.17	1.05
Health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts	101	.05	1.01

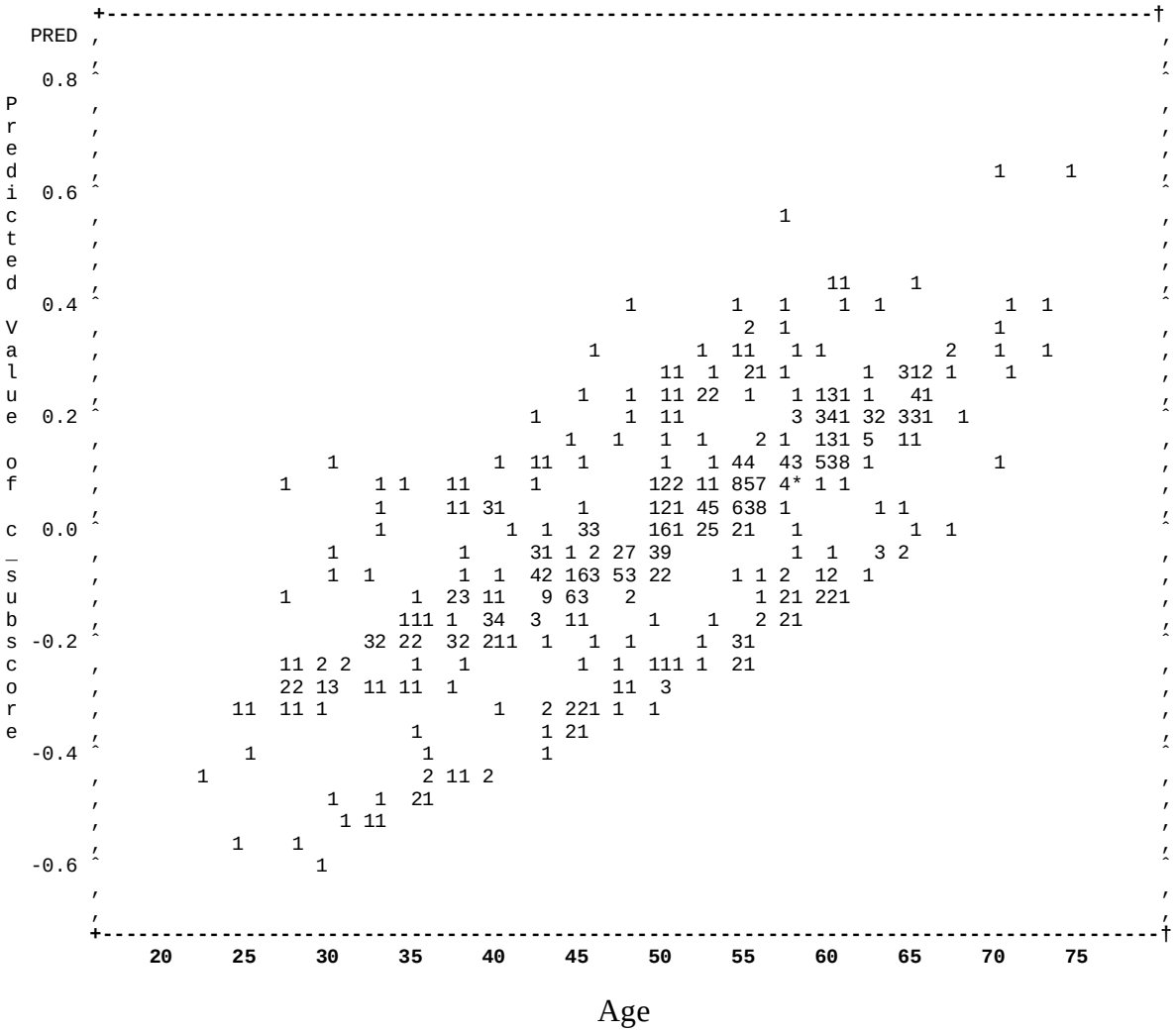


Figure 4-3. Predicted challenge factor scores on age

Table 4-19. Summary transformation factor score regression table for demographic variables

Variable	B	*SE B*	β
Asst_prof	.16	.15	.06
Assoc_prof	-.05	.14	-.02
Full_prof	-.10	.13	-.05
Tenure	.22	.11	.11
Age	.01	.01	.07
Sex	.29	.10	.14
Race	-.03	.14	-.01
Assoc_degree	.02	.28	-.01
Bac_degree	.07	.19	.02
Mas_degree	-.06	.11	-.03
Hum_discipline	.03	.12	.01
STEM_discipline	-.23	.14	-.10
Years_working	-.01	.01	-.05

Table 4-20. Mean transformation factor scores and standard deviations grouped by tenure

Tenure Status	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Tenure track	362	.05	.95
Non-tenure track	225	-.10	1.06

Table 4-21. Mean transformation factor scores and standard deviations grouped by sex

Sex	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Male	191	-.22	1.03
Female	381	.11	.96

Table 4-22. Mean transformation factor scores and standard deviations grouped by discipline

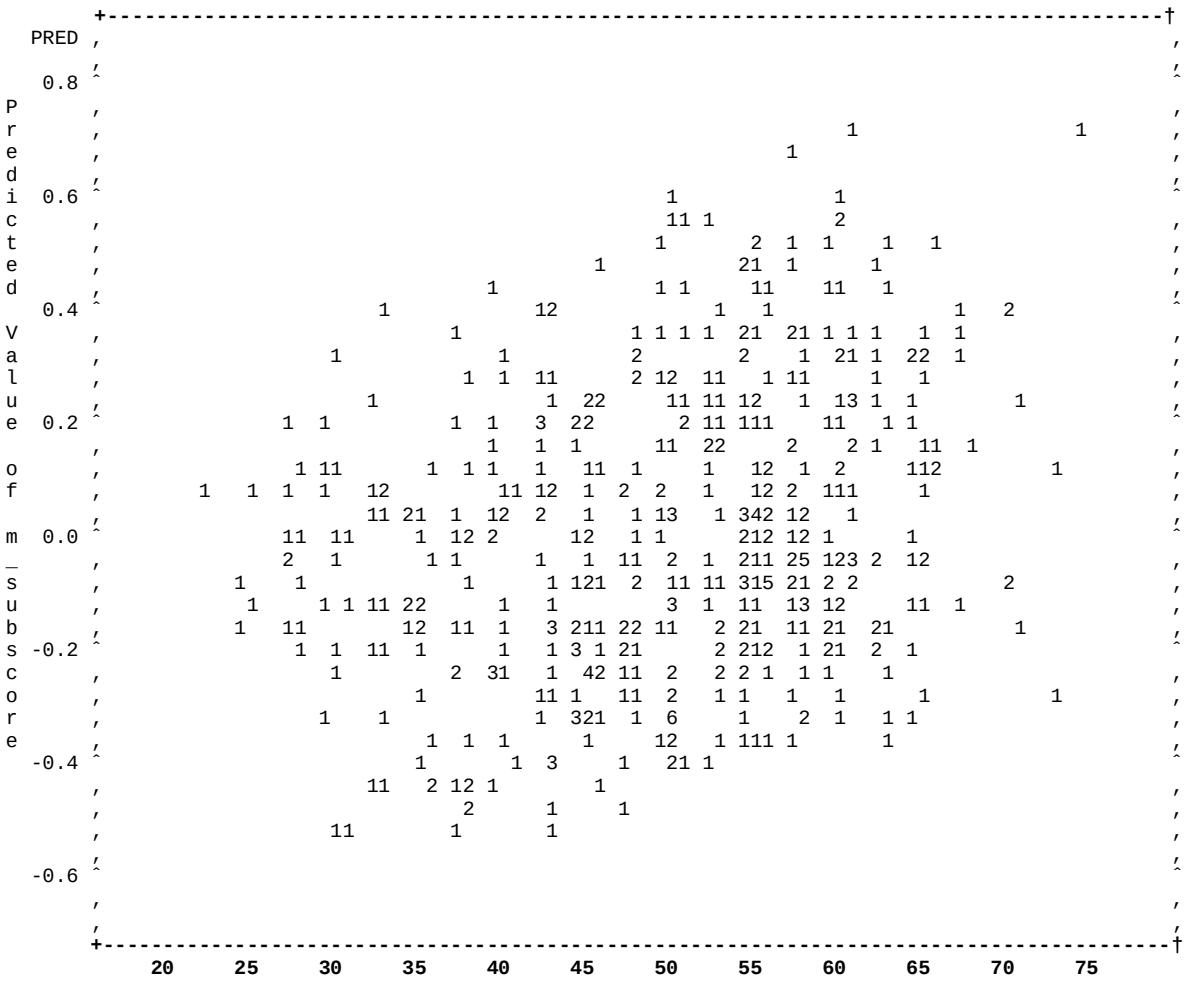
Discipline	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Humanities, business, education, or social sciences	332	.05	1.02
Math, science, technology, or engineering	143	-.20	.95
Health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts	101	.07	.93

Table 4-23. Summary moral action factor score regression table for demographic variables

Variable	B	*SE B*	β
Asst_prof	.15	.15	.05
Assoc_prof	-.15	.14	-.06
Full_prof	-.11	.13	-.05
Tenure	-.22	.11	-.11
Age	.01	.01	.15
Sex	.17	.10	.08
Race	-.21	.14	-.07
Assoc_degree	.21	.27	.04
Bac_degree	.06	.19	.01
Mas_degree	.09	.11	.05
Hum_discipline	-.13	.12	-.06
STEM_discipline	-.15	.14	-.06
Years_working	-.01	.01	-.06

Table 4-24. Mean moral action factor scores and standard deviations grouped by tenure

Tenure Status	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Tenure track	362	-.13	1.03
Non-tenure track	225	.19	.92



Age

Figure 4-4. Predicted moral action factor scores on age

Table 4-25. Mean followership factor scores and standard deviations grouped by culture type

Culture	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Clan	189	.30	1.33
Adhocracy	102	.11	1.36
Hierarchy	234	-.30	1.51
Market	65	-.04	1.25

Table 4-26. Summary followership ANOVA table for culture type

Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Culture	3	13.40	6.86	.0002 *
S/RT	586	1.95		

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-27. Shaffer-Holm procedure: followership factor scores and culture type

Rank	*t*	*C*	$+t_{\alpha fw/2,\ C,\ N-J}$	Comparison
1	4.44	3	2.40	Clan vs. Hierarchy *
2	2.50	3	2.40	Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy *
3	1.70	3	2.40	Clan vs. Market
4	-1.35	3	2.40	Hierarchy vs. Market
5	1.12	2	2.25	Clan vs. Adhocracy
6	0.67	1	1.96	Adhocracy vs. Market

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-28. Mean service factor scores and standard deviations grouped by culture type

Culture	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Clan	189	.22	.89
Adhocracy	102	.06	.94
Hierarchy	234	-.20	1.06
Market	65	-.04	1.05

Table 4-29. Summary service ANOVA table for culture type

Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Culture	3	6.14	6.28	0.0003 *
S/RT	586	.98		

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-30. Shaffer-Holm procedure: service factor scores and culture type

Rank	*t*	*C*	$+t_{\alpha fw/2,\ C,\ N-J}$	Comparison
1	4.28	3	2.40	Clan vs. Hierarchy *
2	2.20	3	2.40	Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy
3	1.81	3	2.40	Clan vs. Market
4	1.28	3	2.40	Clan vs. Adhocracy
5	-1.13	2	2.25	Hierarchy vs. Market
6	0.65	1	1.96	Adhocracy vs. Market

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-31. Mean challenge factor scores and standard deviations grouped by culture type

Culture	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Clan	189	.12	.97
Adhocracy	102	-.05	.99
Hierarchy	234	-.15	1.02
Market	65	.17	.95

Table 4-32. Summary challenge ANOVA table for culture type

Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Culture	3	3.22	3.27	0.02 *
S/RT	586	.98		

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-33. Shaffer-Holm procedure: challenge factor scores and culture type

Rank	*t*	*C*	$+t_{\alpha fw/2,\ C,\ N-J}$	Comparison
1	2.74	3	2.40	Clan vs. Hierarchy *
2	-2.24	3	2.40	Hierarchy vs. Market
3	1.37	3	2.40	Clan vs. Adhocracy
4	-1.35	3	2.40	Adhocracy vs. Market
5	0.84	2	2.25	Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy
6	-0.32	1	1.96	Clan vs. Market

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-34. Mean transformation factor scores and standard deviations grouped by culture type

Culture	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Clan	189	.25	.86
Adhocracy	102	.12	.97
Hierarchy	234	-.19	1.07
Market	65	-.22	.99

Table 4-35. Summary transformation ANOVA table for culture type

Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Culture	3	8.24	8.58	< 0.0001 *
S/RT	586	.96		

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-36. Shaffer-Holm procedure: transformation subscores and culture type

Rank	t	C	$+t_{\alpha fw/2,\ C,\ N-J}$	Comparison
1	4.58	3	2.40	Clan vs. Hierarchy *
2	3.30	3	2.40	Clan vs. Market *
3	2.68	3	2.40	Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy *
4	2.17	3	2.40	Adhocracy vs. Market
5	1.06	2	2.25	Clan vs. Adhocracy
6	0.19	1	1.96	Hierarchy vs. Market

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-37. Mean moral action factor scores and standard deviations grouped by culture type

Culture	*N*	Mean	*SD*
Clan	189	.14	.98
Adhocracy	102	.09	.94
Hierarchy	234	-.12	1.03
Market	65	-.09	1.02

Table 4-38. Summary moral action ANOVA table for culture type

Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Culture	3	2.73	2.75	0.04 *
S/RT	586	.99		

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-39. Shaffer-Holm procedure: moral action factor scores and culture type

Rank	t	C	$+t_{\alpha fw/2,\ C,\ N-J}$	Comparison
1	2.63	3	2.40	Clan vs. Hierarchy *
2	1.73	3	2.40	Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy
3	1.62	3	2.40	Clan vs. Market
4	1.14	3	2.40	Adhocracy vs. Market
5	0.42	2	2.25	Clan vs. Adhocracy
6	-0.17	1	1.96	Hierarchy vs. Market

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-40. Pearson-r correlation coefficients and significance levels for institutional variables and TFP factor scores

	r_subscore	s_subscore	c_subscore	t_subscore	m_subscore	total_ score
Size	-.01	-.06	.01	-.05	-.001	-.03
	.81	.18	.87	.25	.98	.49
	534	534	534	534	534	534
Population	-.01	-.04	.02	-.04	.008	-.02
	.82	.35	.62	.35	.85	.71
	534	534	534	534	534	534
Urban_area	-.03	-.01	.01	-.06	.04	-.01
	.44	.82	.75	.19	.30	.80
	534	534	534	534	534	534
Pop_center	.03	.01	.03	.003	-.04	.01
	.48	.82	.53	.95	.39	.82
	534	534	534	534	534	534
Degree_Offer	-.05	.02	.01	-.05	.11	.01
	.30	.60	.87	.23	.01*	.81
	534	534	534	534	534	534

* significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-41. Summary moral action factor score regression table for institutional variables

Variable	B	*SE B*	β
Size	-1.66E-5	1.47E-5	-.10
Population	8.17E-8	1.90E-7	.03
Urban_area	.09	.15	.05
Pop_center	.10	.16	.05
Degree_offered	.28	.11	.13

Table 4-42. Mean moral action factor scores and standard deviations grouped by degree offered

Bachelor Degree Offered	*N*	Mean	*SD*
No	371	-.08	1.00
Yes	163	.15	.99

Table 4-43. Summary responsibility factor scores ANOVA table with interactions

Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Rank	3	.39	.42	.74
Tenure	1	5.57	5.91	.02*
Age	1	7.26	7.70	.01*
Sex	1	.57	.60	.44
Race	1	.13	.13	.71
High degree	3	1.66	1.76	.15
Discipline	2	5.12	5.43	.01*
Years work	1	.28	.30	.59
Tenure * Years_Work	1	6.64	7.05	.01*
Discipline * Years_Work	2	3.05	3.23	.04*
Error	495	.94		

* significant at $p < .05$

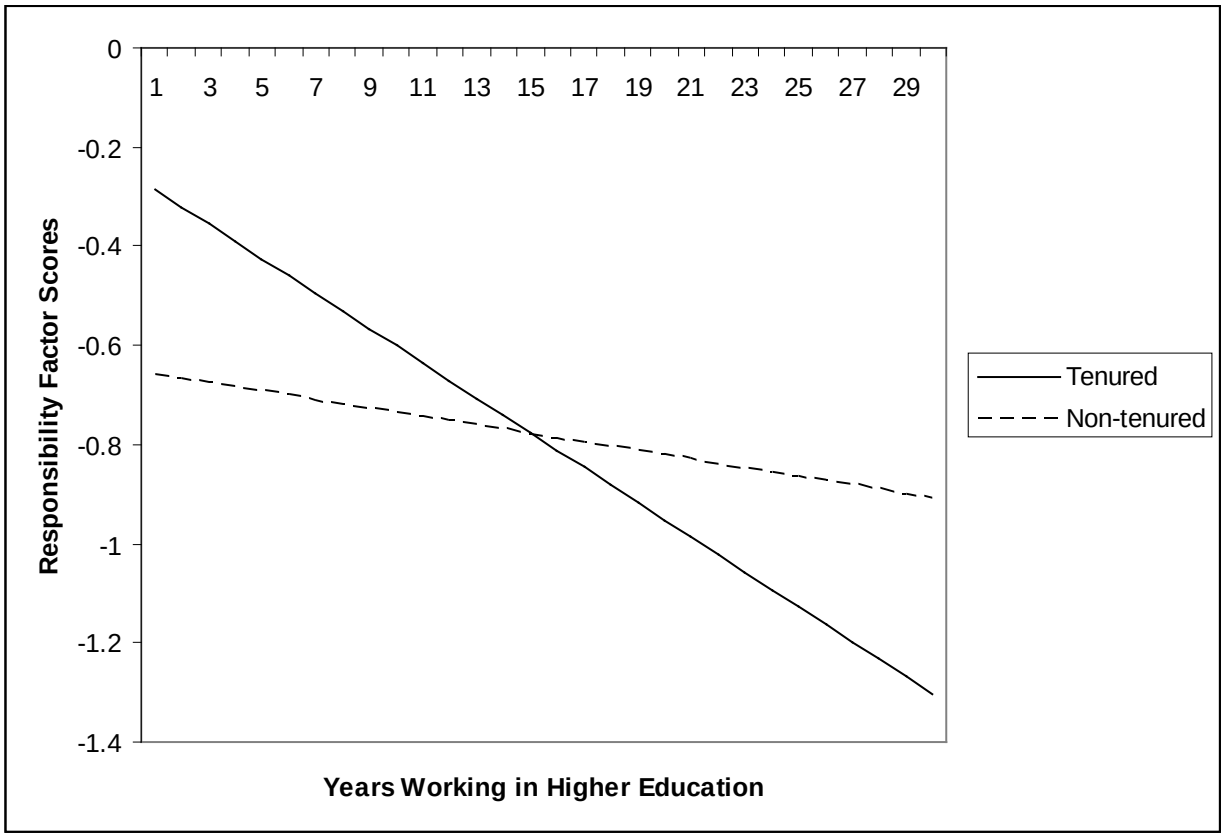


Figure 4-5. Predicted responsibility factor scores by tenure status and years working in higher education

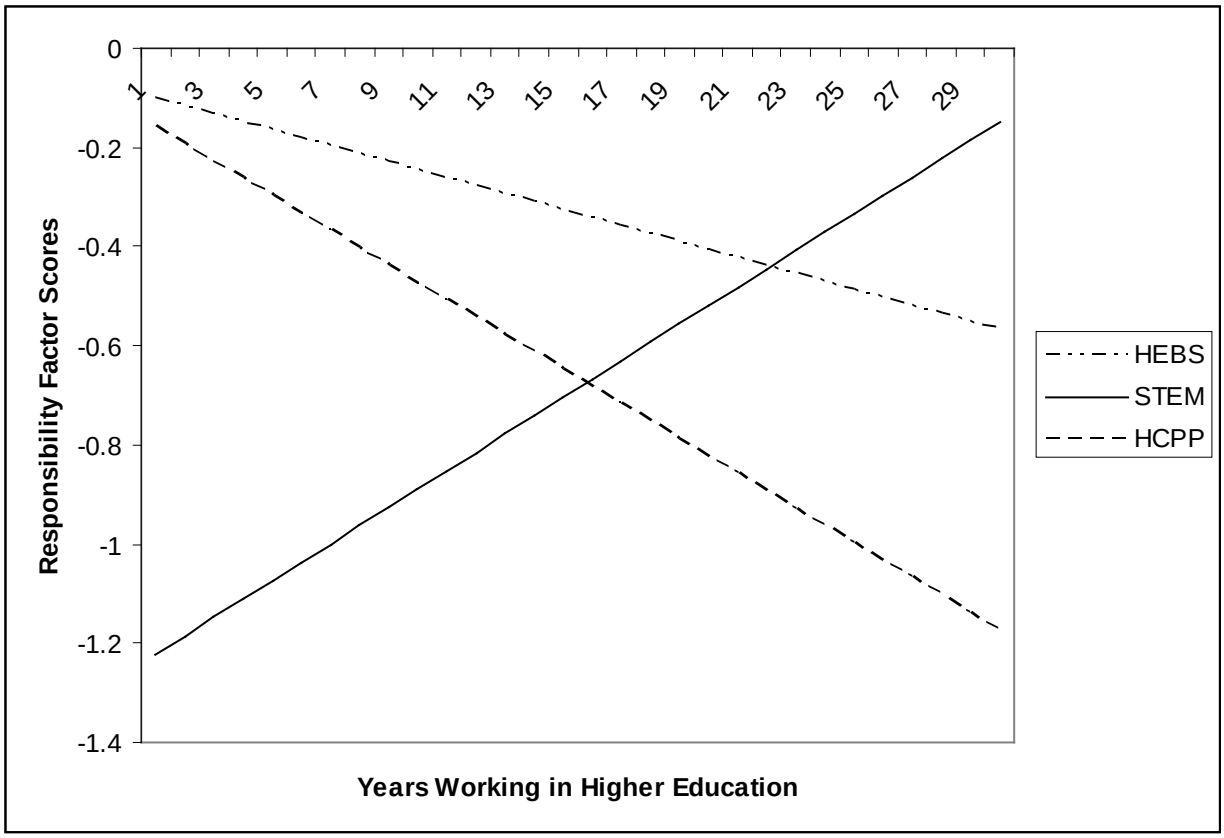


Figure 4-6. Predicted responsibility factor scores by academic discipline and years working in higher education

Table 4-44. Summary service factor scores ANOVA table with interactions

Source	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*p*
Rank	3	3.20	3.27	.02*
Tenure	1	6.65	6.77	.01*
Age	1	3.11	3.18	.08
Sex	1	7.24	7.38	.01*
Race	1	.00	.00	.95
High degree	3	1.15	1.16	.32
Discipline	2	1.81	1.84	.16
Years work	1	.26	.26	.61
Age * Tenure	1	5.23	5.33	.02*
Error	497	.98		

* significant at $p < .05$

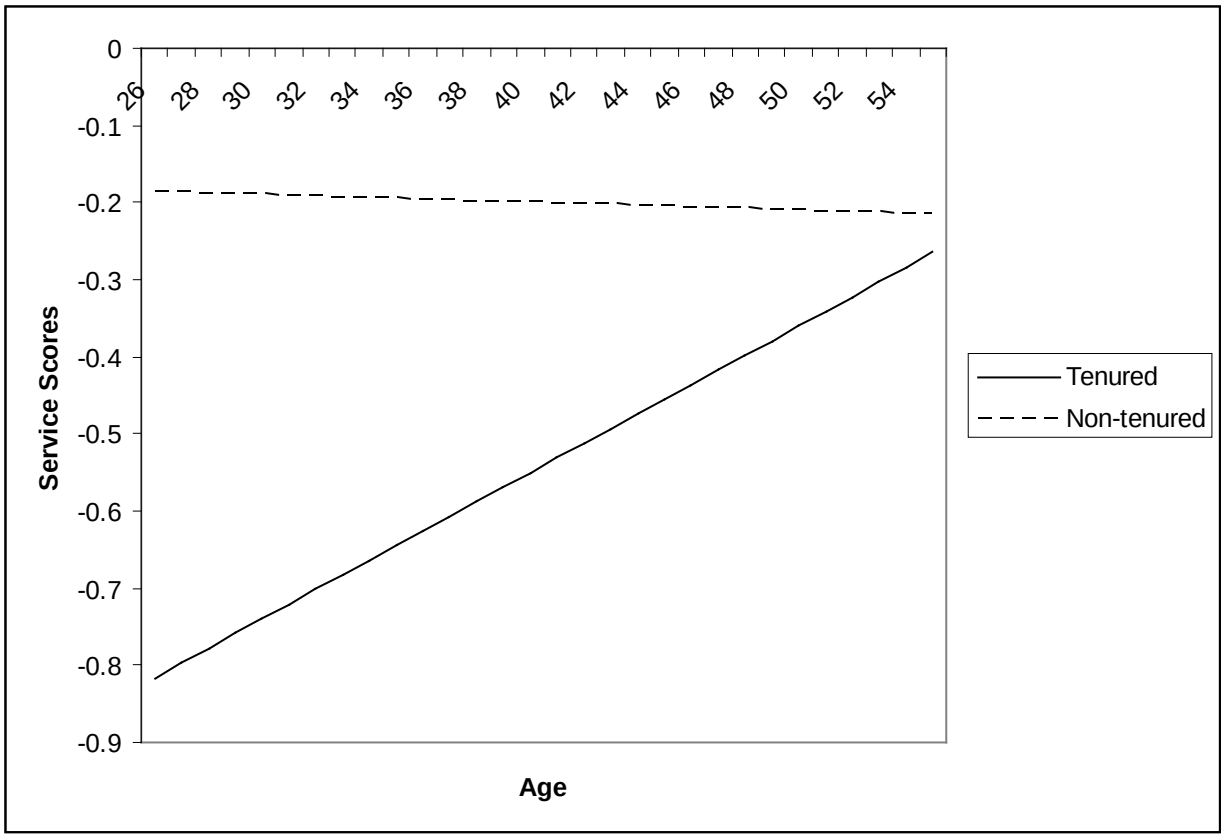


Figure 4-7. Predicted service factor scores by tenure and age

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to test Chaleff's (1995) theory of courageous followership among Florida community college faculty members by relating followership: to the variables of faculty rank, receipt of tenure, age, sex, race, education level, discipline, and number of years working in higher education; to the way by which faculty members perceived the organizational culture of their institution; and to the community colleges' size, population, location, and highest degree-offered. This chapter presents a summary of the study's findings, limitations and future research considerations, and conclusions that can be drawn from these findings.

Findings

Survey Response

3,200 surveys were electronically mailed to a randomly selected sample of Florida community college faculty members. 661 surveys were returned for a response rate of 20.7%. This rate fell within the predicted response rate of 20 to 25 percent suggested by previous studies (Gerity, 1999; Phillips, 2002; Roark, 1988; Sheehan, 2001). Of the 661 returned surveys, 64 surveys were incomplete and were deleted. This left 597 surveys that were used in the data analyses.

Respondents were similar to the Florida community college faculty population with respect to the factors of sex, race, and highest degree earned while tenured faculty were over-sampled (see Table 2). This difference may have been the result of collecting data during the summer semester when very few adjunct faculty teach (B. Sloan, personal communication, May 13, 2008) as well as relying on the institutions' on-line faculty directories to build the sampling frame. Adjunct faculty as more likely than full-time faculty to be missing from these listings (W. Leite, personal communication, July 10, 2008).

Question 1

Faculty rank. Previous research studies indicated that individuals of higher professional status (of which academic rank served as an indicator) would more likely exhibit exemplary conduct (Abbott, 1983; Braxton & Bayer, 1999) and take responsibility to challenge known incidents of wrongdoing (Braxton & Bayer, 1996; Knight & Auster, 1999). Additionally, existing models of followership purported that attributions of followership varied by organizational level with greater attributions corresponding to higher organizational levels (Chaleff, 1995; Wortman, 1982). Research by Dixon and Westbrook (2003) and Ray (2006) found support for this proposition. However, no study had examined this claim with regard to community college faculty.

The findings of this research contradicted those of the aforementioned studies. In general, faculty of low rank (i.e., assistant professors) scored higher across all dimensions of followership than more senior faculty (i.e., associate and full professors). Statistically significant differences were achieved for the service dimension between assistant and associate professors, $t(498) = 9.31$, $p = .002$, $d = .46$, and between and assistant professor and full professor, $t(498) = 5.54$, $p = .02$, $d = .27$, and for total followership factor scores between assistant professors and associate professors, $t(498) = 5.60$, $p = .02$, $d = .28$, and between assistant professors and full professors, $t(498) = 4.58$, $p = .03$, $d = .20$. The only dimension where senior faculty outscored junior academics was for the responsibility factor scores. This difference was not significant. These findings suggested that junior faculty were more willing to assume additional tasks in service to the institution.

Tenure. Prior research on tenure indicated that tenured faculty were more likely to sanction inappropriate behaviors by other faculty (Braxton, Eimers, & Bayer, 1996) and were more likely to voice stronger disapproval of inviolable behaviors than untenured academics

(Braxton & Bayer, 1999). Researchers also found that untenured faculty were more fearful of being labeled a whistleblower, since the stigmatization could damage their professional standing and harm their chances for career advancement (Braxton & Bayer, 1999; O'Toole, 1978). However, more recent research by Williams and Ceci (2007) found that only when faculty members were promoted from associate professors with tenure to full professors was there a significant increase in their willingness to speak freely, to teach courses unpopular with one's colleagues, to publish controversial research, and to blow the whistle on ethical transgressions.

The current study found that untenured Florida community college faculty members tended to score higher than tenured faculty in all followership dimensions, except responsibility and transformation. However, significant differences due to tenure status were found only for the dimensions of transformation, $t(498) = 2.10$, $p = .04$, $d = .15$ (tenured faculty scored higher than non-tenured), and moral action, $t(498) = -2.04$, $p = .04$, $d = .32$ (non-tenured faculty scored higher than tenured). This suggested that tenured faculty were willing to create environments supportive of change while untenured faculty members were more likely to speak out against inappropriate behaviors and play the role of whistleblower. These findings more closely aligned to the findings of Williams and Ceci (2007) than those of the earlier studies (Braxton & Bayer, 1999; Braxton, Eimers, & Bayer, 1996).

Age. Studies that considered age as an independent variable found that it exerted a considerable influence on followership behaviors, with older participants scoring significantly higher than younger subjects (Colangelo, 2000; Dixon, 2003; Koo & Choi, 2000; Steyer, 2001). The findings of this study supported those of earlier research. Across all dimensions, older faculty scored higher than younger faculty with significant differences due to age found for the dimensions of responsibility, $t(498) = 2.75$, $p = .006$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$; challenge, $t(498) = 2.99$,

p = .003, partial η^2 = .02; moral action, $t(498) = 2.83$, p = .005, partial η^2 = .02; and total followership, $t(498) = 3.15$, p = .002, partial η^2 = .02. Older faculty members were more likely to take initiative without formal authority, challenge inappropriate behaviors, and remain devoted to their personal ethics.

Sex. Researchers previously found that women faculty members expressed a greater commitment to teaching than their male counterparts (Bayer & Astin, 1975; Boice, 1992; Boyer, 1990; Finkelstein, 1984; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Among college faculty, researchers have noted that women were more likely than men to experience significant increases in their service obligations at their universities following tenure (Terosky, Phifer, & Neumann, 2008). Furthermore, researchers have found that women tend to voice stronger disapproval for condescending negativism and personal disregard, as well as a greater disdain for colleagues who demean co-workers (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). These findings suggested that women should exhibit higher followership scores than men.

However, previous research conducted on followership behaviors generally did not discern any statistically significant differences due to gender (Colangelo, 2000; Dixon, 2003; Geist, 2001). The one exception was Steyer (2001), who examined followership behaviors among primary and secondary school teachers. She found that women consistently displayed statistically greater followership behaviors than men.

Our findings supported those of Steyer (2001). Female faculty members scored higher than males across all followership dimensions, with statistically significant differences for service, $t(498) = 2.82$, p = .005, d = .26; transformation, $t(498) = 3.00$, p = .003, d = .34; and total followership, $t(498) = 2.12$, p = .03, d = .22. These findings suggest female community college

faculty were more likely to demonstrate a stronger willingness to express support for their supervisors and co-workers, as found in the earlier research of Braxton and Bragg (1999).

Race. Though minority group member faculty tended to score higher than non-minority group member faculty in all followership dimensions except responsibility and service, none of the differences were significant. These results were similar to those of Geist (2001).

Education level. In research on followership behaviors, Colangelo (2000), Pierce (2002), and Koo and Choi (2000) found significant differences due to respondents' educational level. Ackerman (1985) linked increased education to corresponding gains in followership. Alternatively, findings from Geist's (2001) and Dixon's (2003) studies contested these earlier results.

This study found no discernible pattern in followership scores due to education level. Faculty with an associate's degree scored highest among the groups in the service and moral action dimensions but lowest for the responsibility, challenge, and transformation dimensions. Those with a bachelor's degree scored highest in the challenge and transformation and total followership dimensions. The master's degree group scored lowest for the total followership score dimension. Faculty with a doctorate scored highest in the responsibility dimension but lowest for the service and moral action dimensions. Significant differences due to educational level were found only for the responsibility dimension between faculty with a doctorate and those with a master's degree, $t(498) = 2.53$, $p = .01$, $d = .26$. Small samples of associate's degree holders ($n = 17$) and those with bachelor's degrees ($n = 40$) may have influenced these results.

Academic discipline. In earlier research, discipline accounted for a larger proportion of the variance explained in faculty disapproval of inappropriate behaviors than individual faculty characteristics such as administrative experience, gender, and research activity (Braxton &

Bayer, 1999). In followership research, both Steyer (2001) and Koo and Choi (2000) attributed significant differences in followership behaviors to academic discipline.

Our study found that faculty members with a background in math, science, engineering, or technology scored the lowest across all followership dimensions. Faculty members with a background in humanities, business, education, or social sciences scored the highest in the dimensions of responsibility, challenge, and total followership while faculty with a background in health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts scored highest in service, transformation, and moral action. Significant differences due to discipline appeared between faculty in humanities, business, education, or social sciences and faculty in math, science, engineering, or technology for the dimensions of responsibility, $t(498) = 10.85$, $p = .001$, $d = .32$; service, $t(498) = 4.04$, $p = .04$, $d = .22$; challenging, $t(498) = 4.87$, $p = .03$, $d = .22$; transformation, $t(498) = 5.68$, $p = .02$, $d = .25$; and total followership, $t(498) = 7.92$, $p = .005$, $d = .31$. In each case, humanities, business, education, or social sciences faculty scored significantly higher than math, science, engineering, or technology faculty. These findings suggested humanities, business, education, or social sciences faculty were more likely to be self-managed, assume initiative, and keep commitments.

Years working in higher education. Earlier research on followership was split on the effect of time spent with an organization. Dixon (2003) and Koo and Choi (2000) reported a significant effect due to time employed while Colangelo (2000), Geist (2001), and Steyer (2001) did not find employment duration to have a significant effect on followership behaviors. The results of the current study did not find any significant relationships in any of the followership factor scores associated with the number of years working in higher education institutions.

Question 2

Though several studies examined the relationship between leadership styles and followership behaviors (Brown & Thornborrow, 1996; Colangelo, 2000; Geist, 2001), no study examined the relationship between organizational culture and courageous followership. Each of the earlier studies found significant relationships between preferred leadership styles and followership. In a similar manner, the current study found significant relationships between organizational culture and followership behaviors.

Faculty members who rated their institutional culture as a Clan scored the highest across all followership dimensions, except responsibility, while faculty who scored their culture as a Hierarchy scored the lowest across all dimensions. Statistically significant differences were found in comparing Clan vs. Hierarchy cultures in service, $t(586) = 4.28$, $p < .0001$, $d = .43$; challenging, $t(586) = 2.74$, $p = .01$, $d = .27$; transformation, $t(586) = 4.58$, $p < .0001$, $d = .45$; moral action, $t(586) = 2.63$, $p = .01$, $d = .26$; and total followership, $t(586) = 4.44$, $p < .0001$, $d = .42$. Additionally, statistically significant differences were found for Adhocracy vs. Hierarchy cultures in transformation, $t(586) = 2.68$, $p = .01$, $d = .30$; and total followership, $t(586) = 2.50$, $p = .01$, $d = .28$. Finally, statistically significant differences were found for Clan vs. Market cultures in transformation, $t(586) = 3.30$, $p = .001$, $d = .53$. These findings suggested that courageous followership behaviors are promoted in institutions exhibiting Clan culture characteristics while suppressed in Hierarchical cultures.

Question 3

The only significant difference among factor scores due to institutional factors was found in the moral action dimension for the variable of degree offered. Faculty from institutions that offered bachelor's degrees scored significantly higher for moral action than faculty from institutions that did not offer bachelor's degrees. In earlier studies, Braxton and Bayer (1999)

found that academics in two-year colleges tended to exhibit significantly lower levels of disapproval for inappropriate behaviors than faculty members in other institutional settings. Steyer (2001) found that school level, which she defined as either elementary, middle, or high school, had a significant effect on followership behaviors among primary and secondary school teachers. In the present study, significant differences for moral action factor scores were found for the variable of degree offered, $t(528) = 2.55$, $p = .01$, $d = .23$. Faculty from institutions that offered bachelor's degrees scored significantly higher for moral action than faculty from institutions that did not offer bachelor's degrees. These findings suggested that faculty from bachelor's degree-granting institutions would be less willing to compromise their personal ethics for continued employment.

Additional Analyses

Potential two-way interactions were tested. Significant interactions in the responsibility dimension for tenure by years working, $F(1, 495) = 7.05$, $p = .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, and for discipline by years working, $F(2, 495) = 3.23$, $p = .04$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, were found. Analysis indicated that responsibility factor scores of tenured faculty declined over time faster than non-tenured faculty factor scores. Analysis also indicated that responsibility factor scores improved as employment duration grew among faculty with backgrounds in the math, science, technology, and engineering disciplines while faculty with backgrounds in humanities, business, education, or social sciences and in health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts showed declining responsibility factor scores as their years in higher education increased.

In the service dimension, a significant age by tenure interaction, $F(1, 497) = 5.33$, $p = .02$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$, was found. Analysis indicated that among young faculty members, tenured faculty had lower service factor scores than non-tenured faculty. As age increased, tenured faculty service factor score increased while non-tenured faculty remained almost constant.

Limitations and Future Research Considerations

The major limitation of this study was the inability to establish causation due to its ex post facto design. It looked only at the degree of association between multiple variables. Therefore, inferences of causality were inappropriate. Although significant relationships existed between followership behaviors and a number of variables, the direction of influence was not apparent. For example, do individuals who obtain a degree in humanities, business, education, or social sciences develop stronger followership behaviors than their peers who obtain degrees in other fields or are individuals with stronger followership behaviors drawn to the fields of humanities, business, education, or social sciences? This question and questions like it were unanswerable in this study as the problems of reverse causality and spurious correlations may have existed. Therefore, our findings did not provide evidence of causal relationships, only information about the degree and shape of the relationship between the variables of interest. A more controlled experimental design with manipulation of variables may help understand the directional influences between followership behaviors and the individual and institutional factors examined in this study. Additionally, the use of structural equation modeling could increase the understanding of direction of influence between followership and individual and institutional variables.

Several issues related to participants created limitations to this study. Since all participants were Florida community college faculty members, the generalizability of this study is limited. The possibility of "cultural" implications unique to this population might have influenced the findings. Although this suggests continued research on faculty members from other educational institutions is needed, it should also be noted that the individual differences found in this study may not be unique to this setting. As stated earlier in this chapter, many of this study's findings supported those of other followership studies. In other words, discounting the relationship

between age and followership behaviors in other institutions simply because they are not Florida community colleges seems unwise.

Participation in this study was limited to Florida community college faculty. Numerous differences between community college and university faculty have been identified in the literature.

> The proportion of men is lower than in universities, higher than in secondary schools. Most of the faculty members hold academic master's degrees . . . they are less likely to hold advanced graduate degrees than university professors are. Their primary responsibility is to teach. They rarely conduct research or scholarly inquiry. They are more concerned with subject matter than are their counterparts in secondary schools, less so than university professors. On a full-time basis they conduct four or five classes per term . . . Sixty percent are part-time employees at their colleges. Many, both full- and part-timers, sustain other jobs in addition to their teaching (Cohen & Brawer, 1989).

Future research could continue to explore these differences and their effects on followership behaviors. In particular, some Florida community colleges are starting to offer four-year bachelor's of applied science degrees. In this study, faculty from community colleges that offered bachelor's degrees scored significantly higher for moral action than faculty from institutions that did not offer bachelor's degrees. Other researchers found that faculty in two-year colleges tended to exhibit significantly lower levels of disapproval for inappropriate behaviors than faculty members in other institutions (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). Further research to explore additional potential differences within institutions between faculty working in four-year programs and those working in two-year and certificate programs could provide additional clarity to the emerging picture of community college faculty.

Sixty-four surveys were deleted from analyses due to incompleteness. Most of the incomplete surveys went unfinished beginning with *TFP* questions on courage to take moral action or during the *IPS* cultural scenarios. It would appear that these individuals ceased answering questions because they either did not understand what was being asked (a likely

explanation for the *IPS* cultural scenarios) or felt threatened by what the questions asked about their followership behaviors (a likely explanation for the moral action questions). Stopping at these points meant that no biographical information on the respondents was collected. Had the data from these surveys been available, the findings of this study may have been altered. Although experts recommend beginning questionnaires with the "most interesting" items and placing "duller, demographic data (age, gender, and the like) at the end of a self-administered questionnaire" (Babbie, 2007, p. 256), it may have resulted in additional data for analyses in this instance if the demographic data had been collected during the first portion of the questionnaire. Also, the coefficient alphas obtained for responsibility, challenge, transformation, and moral action were below the traditional target of .7 noted by Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) and Hair, Anderson, Tathem, and Black (1998). Increasing the number of items in the dimensions falling short of the target would increase their coefficient alphas. Table 44 provides the number of items needed to reach the target .7 coefficient alpha for each *TFP* dimension.

An additional limitation concerning the participants of this study was the small sample of racial minority groups (n = 68) and holders of associate's (n = 17) and bachelor's degree (n = 40). Other followership researchers have experienced similar issues regarding small samples of minority group members (Dixon, 2003; Geist, 2001). Small sample sizes limit the ability of researchers to detect anything but relatively large differences. Though the data appeared to indicate that between-group differences may have existed for some followership dimensions, the small samples likely contributed to these differences not reaching significance. Also, the tenure status of the sample was not representative of Florida's community college faculty population, possibly contributing to the existence of a sampling bias (Weiten, 2001). Collecting data during the summer semester when many adjunct faculty were not working as well as relying on

institutional websites to build the sampling frame may have contributed to this shortfall. Other researchers studying college faculty may realize more representative samples by collecting data during the fall or spring semesters. Nonetheless, this study was able to collect sufficient data that described several significant relationships and differences between followership behaviors and the Florida community college faculty population.

A final limitation of the current study concerns the biases of mono method (Cook & Campbell, 1979) and social desirability (Weiten, 2001). This study utilized self-report measures for the *TFP* followership dimensions and *IPS* cultural scenarios for gathering sample data. No other means to assess followership or institutional culture were utilized. Weiten (2001) reported that self reports may be plagued by a tendency for respondents to give socially approved answers to questions about oneself. Future studies might incorporate observer ratings or supervisor evaluations in assessing followership behaviors and address the relation of self and observers' ratings (Funder & West, 1993) to minimize the possibility of mono method and self-report biases. A measure such as the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale might also be utilized to assess for social desirability bias.

Conclusions

This research provided additional support to several existing studies on followership and its relation to demographic variables such as age, sex, educational level, duration of employment, and educational discipline. In these areas, this study suggested that Florida community college faculty members were similar to workers in health care, the military, technology, administration, and primary and secondary education. However, this study also contradicted earlier studies in the areas of rank, tenure, and employment duration.

These findings have implications for community college leaders as they work to increase the performance and accountability of their organizations. Understanding faculty followership

behaviors can help administrators manage the challenges of reduced resourcing, changing faculty demographics, rising accountability, and worker downsizing that educational institutions face in the evolving environment of higher education. Community college leaders whose institutions are undergoing change should understand that tenured and female faculty members are more likely to provide greater levels of support then non-tenured or male faculty. In addition, leaders should recognize that female faculty and assistant professors are more likely to voluntarily assume additional responsibilities in service to the institution while older faculty, those with masters' degrees, or whose background is in humanities, business, education, or social sciences are more likely to demonstrate a sense of ownership for themselves and their organizations as opposed to younger scholars, those with doctorates, or those who studied math, science, engineering, or technology.

Also, community college administrators should acknowledge that their institutions' cultures may influence the followership behaviors of their faculty. Colleges whose cultures were characterized as having high flexibility, individuality, and spontaneity earned higher followership scores across all dimensions than institutions whose cultures were known for their stability, control, and predictability. Schein (2004) asserted that one of leadership's crucial roles is to shape the culture of an organization. Following this contention, community college administrators should attempt to build institutional cultures that value flexibility, individuality, and spontaneity by recognizing, acknowledging, and rewarding such behaviors by organizational members, and by recruiting, selecting, and promoting internal administrators who appreciate these same characteristics.

Finally, community college leaders must recognize that their institutional members' followership behaviors may evolve as their institutions become bachelor's degree-granting

institutions. Earlier studies found that four-year college faculty tended to exhibit stronger levels of disapproval for inappropriate behaviors than their two-year college counterparts (Braxton & Bayer, 1999). The present study made similar findings. Administrators must remember that changes to one area are often followed by unintended changes to other areas. When these changes are desirable, the organization benefits. However, unwanted outcomes may also be the result of these alterations. For example, increasing the number of untenured faculty relative to tenured scholars may result in the college having members more willing to speak out against inappropriate behaviors and play the role of whistleblower while concurrently decreasing the number of constituents who are more strongly supportive of institutional change.

The role of followership among community college faculty is increasing as workforces downsize and requirements escalate. Administrators continue to look to their faculty members to do more in support of institutional requirements. These leaders must develop a better understanding of followership and how their institutional faculty respond. This study made an important contribution to understanding followership in the community college environment by helping to define how faculty members viewed themselves as followers. These contributions may help community college leaders develop more positive relationships with their faculty members that, in turn, can assist in advancing programmatic and institutional change agendas.

Table 5-1. TFP item changes to increase reliability

	Coefficient alpha	Desired reliability	Increase in *n* needed for desired K	Initial no. of items	Required no. of items for desired K
Service	.74	.7	.83	5	5
Transformation	.67	.7	1.16	4	5
Challenging	.60	.7	1.54	4	7
Responsibility	.60	.7	1.55	6	10
Moral action	.54	.7	2.01	4	9
Total items				23	36

APPENDIX A
SAMPLE SIZE CALCULATION

(Algina, 2008)

```
*This program can be used for power calculations for between-subjects main
effects in completely between-subjects and in split-plot designs.
Approximations are used to avoid having to specify all variances and
covariances for the repeated measures. Compound symmetry is assumed. As a
result of the approximations, the n will not be exactly correct for split
plot designs;

data one;
es=.35      ; *Effect size for largest and smallest mean;
alpha=.05   ; *Type I error rate;
j=3         ; *Number of levels for the between-subjects factor for which es
               is defined. j is limited to 6 or less;
tpower=.80  ; *Target power;
minn= 002   ; *Minimum sample size for calculations;
maxn= 2000  ; *Maximum sample size for calculations;
prodw=1     ; *Product of number of levels of all within-subjects factors.
               Equals p (the number of levels for the within-subjects
               factor) when there is just one within-subjects factor. Equals
               1 when there are no within-subjects factors;
prodb=2      ; *product of number of levels of the other between-subjects
               factors. Equals 1 for a design with one between-subjects
               factor design and equals the number of level in the second
               factor if there are two between-subjects factors;
rho=.0       ; *correlation for within-subjects variables. Equals zero if
               there are no within subjects factors;

Note that mu's are in standard deviation units

   Obs   comment

    1  analysis ok
    2  analysis ok

   Obs config

    1  maximum range, one extreme mean, and two extreme means
    2  minimum range and equally spaced

   Obs prodw  prodb  rho   es   j  alpha  tpower  power

    1    1      2     0   0.35  3   0.05    0.8    0.8
    2    1      2     0   0.35  3   0.05    0.8    0.8

   Obs  mu1       mu2     mu3    cell_n    lambda    cval

    1  -0.18      0.18    0.18      60        9.8     3.02
    2  -0.18      0.00    0.18      80        9.8     3.01

Total participants = 3 rank levels * 2 tenure levels * 80 participants per
cell = 480 Total Participants
```

APPENDIX B
THE FOLLOWERSHIP PROFILE – ABBREVIATED

(Dixon, 2003)

	No Extent	Slight Extent	Moderate Extent	Great Extent	Very great Extent
1. I create a supportive environment at my workplace in which change can occur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. I am passionate about my work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. I acknowledge improvements that my supervisor has made.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. I provide support to my supervisor for experimentation and learning.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. I prepare to transfer responsibilities should severance become necessary.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. I am self-managed in meeting deadlines and keeping commitments.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. I reflect my supervisor's values to the organization without injecting my own personal agenda.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. I assume responsibility in dilemmas where rules impede service.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. I would resign to protect my supervisor from the repercussions of my actions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. I establish coping mechanisms that reinforce transformational progress.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. I summarize communications for my supervisor.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. I minimize unnecessary pressure on my supervisor.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. I defend my supervisor from unwarranted attacks.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. I encourage complainers to communicate concerns not emotions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

15. I confront groupthink.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. I assess my own performance.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. I take initiative without formal authority.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. I challenge inappropriate behaviors.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. I am willing to bend the rules to get the right things done.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. I will not compromise my personal ethics for continued employment.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. I do what I believe is right even when there may be negative repercussions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. I give honest feedback to my supervisor on his/her behaviors.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
23. I would resign rather than violate important personal values.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

APPENDIX C
PERMISSION TO USE THE FOLLOWERSHIP PROFILE

On Fri Nov 10 16:27:29 EST 2006, "Dixon, Gene" <DIXONE@ECU.EDU> wrote:

You have permission to use TFP (The Followership Profile), provided you forward a copy of your collected raw data to me. The data will be compiled with other data received from users like yourself in an on-going effort to update supportive metrics. Additional studies beyond your doctoral study will require additional permission.

TFP along with the original validation and reliability estimates are available from:

UMI Corporation,
300 North Zeeb Road,
Ann Arbor MI 48106
800-521-0600 x7020
734-997-4113 (F)
disspub@umi.com
Registration number TX5-848-482

Gene Dixon, MBA, PhD
Director, ECU, Inc.
College of Technology and Computer Science
Department of Engineering
East Carolina University
Greenville NC 27858
252-737-1031 (O)
252-737-1041 (F)

APPENDIX D
IPS CULTURAL SCENARIOS

(Smart & St. John, 1996)

These questions relate to the type of organization your institution is most like. Each of these items contains four descriptions of institutions of higher education. Please distribute 100 points among the four descriptions depending on how similar the description is to your school. None of the descriptions is any better than the others; they are just different.

For each description use all 100 points.

For example, in question 1, if Institution A seems very similar to mine, B seems somewhat similar, and C and D do not seem similar at all, I might give 70 points to A, 30 points to B, 0 points to C, and 0 points to D.

1. Institutional characteristics (Please distribute 100 points).

_____ Points for A — Institution A is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.

_____ Points for B — Institution B is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.

_____ Points for C — Institution C is a very formalized and structured place. Bureaucratic procedures generally govern what people do.

_____ Points for D — Institution D is production oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People aren't personally involved.

2. Institutional leader (Please distribute 100 points).

_____ Points for A — The head of Institution A is generally considered to be a mentor, sage, or a father or mother figure.

_____ Points for B — The head of Institution B is generally considered to be an entrepreneur, an innovator, or a risk-taker.

_____ Points for C — The head of Institution C is generally considered to be a coordinator, an organizer, or an administrator.

_____ Points for D — The head of Institution D is generally considered to be a producer, a technician, or a hard driver.

3. Institutional “glue” (Please distribute 100 points).

_____ Points for A	The “glue” that holds Institution A together is loyalty and tradition. Commitment to this school runs high.
_____ Points for B	The “glue” that holds Institution B together is a commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being first.
_____ Points for C	The “glue” that holds Institution C together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running institution is important here.
_____ Points for D	The “glue” that holds Institution D together is the emphasis on tasks and goal accomplishment. A production orientation is commonly shared.

4. Institutional image (Please distribute 100 points).

_____ Points for A	Institution A emphasizes human resources. High cohesion and morale in the school are important.
_____ Points for B	Institution B emphasizes growth and acquiring new resources. Readiness to meet new challenges is important.
_____ Points for C	Institution C emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficient, smooth operations are important.
_____ Points for D	Institution D emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Measurement goals are important.

APPENDIX E
PERMISSION TO USE CULTURAL SCENARIOS

On Tue Feb 05 12:51:45 EST 2008, “John C Smart” <JSMART#MEMPHIS.EDU> wrote:

Greetings,

The items I used (from the work of Kim Cameron at the University of Michigan) are not copyrighted and thus you should feel free to use them in your dissertation research. Good luck on your dissertation research.

John Smart

APPENDIX F
INTRODUCTORY EMAIL AND CONSENT FORM

Dear faculty member,

Please participate in an online survey that Scott Smith, a University of Florida doctoral candidate, is using to collect data for his dissertation. The survey examines followership behaviors among community college faculty members. Completing this survey should take no more than 10 minutes of your time. By clicking the link below and submitting the survey, you are consenting to voluntarily participate in the study:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=

Your responses will be anonymous and there will be no identifying information associated with them. We are using a host provider that does not maintain the Internet addresses of respondents, so we will have no way of knowing who has responded and who has not. There are no risks or compensation involved with participation. If you decide to take part in the study, you do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer; just skip to the next question.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Scott Smith at jssmit13@ufl.edu or Dr. David Honeyman at daveh@coe.ufl.edu. Thank you in advance for participating in this survey. Your time and help are greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Scott Smith and David Honeyman, Ph.D.
Department of Educational Administration and Policy
University of Florida
(352) 392-2391 ext. 272

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in a research project, you can contact the UFIRB Office, Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250; tel. (352) 392-0433.

APPENDIX G
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD LETTER

UF | Institutional Review Board
UNIVERSITY of FLORIDA

PO Box 112250
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250
352-392-0433 (Phone)
352-392-9234 (Fax)
irb2@ufl.edu

DATE: April 15, 2008

TO: John S. Smith
2835 SW 98th Drive
Gainesville, FL 32608

FROM: Ira S. Fischler, PhD, Chair ISF:dl
University of Florida
Institutional Review Board

SUBJECT: **Approval of Protocol #2008-U-0401**

TITLE: Followership Behaviors in Community College Faculty

SPONSOR: None

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review Board has recommended approval of this protocol. Based on its review, the UFIRB determined that this research presents no more than minimal risk to participants, and based on 45 CFR 46.117(c), authorizes you to administer the informed consent process as specified in the protocol.

If you wish to make any changes to this protocol, ***including the need to increase the number of participants authorized***, you must disclose your plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact on your protocol. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected complications that affect your participants.

If you have not completed this protocol by **April 10, 2009**, please telephone our office (392-0433), and we will discuss the renewal process with you. It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status of this research protocol.

ISF:dl

APPENDIX H
DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Please provide the following demographic information.

1. What is your title?
   a. Instructor
   b. Assistant Professor
   c. Associate Professor
   d. Professor
   e. Other (please list _____)

2. Are you on continuing contract (tenured)?
   a. Yes
   b. No

3. What is your age? _____

4. What is your sex?
   a. Male
   b. Female

5. What is your race?
   a. American Indian or Alaska Native
   b. Asian
   c. Black or African American
   d. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
   e. White
   f. Other

6. Are you Hispanic or Latino?
   a. Yes
   b. No

7. What is your highest attained education level?
   a. High school graduate or GED
   b. Associate (2-year) degree
   c. Bachelors (4-year) degree
   d. Master's degree
   e. Doctoral degree

8. From what field did you obtain your highest degree?
   a. Humanities, business, education, or social sciences
   b. Math, science, technology, or engineering
   c. Health, culinary arts, public safety, or performing arts
   d. Other (please list _____)

9. How many years have you worked in higher education? _____

10. What is the name of your institution? _____

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Scott Smith was born and raised in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. After graduating from West Point in 1991, he was commissioned as a field artillery officer in the United States Army. He served in Korea as a company fire support officer, battery fire direction officer, platoon leader, battalion ammunition officer, division artillery fire control officer, battery commander, and group personnel management officer; at Fort Sill, Oklahoma as a brigade training officer; and at West Point, New York as a psychology instructor and assistant professor. He holds a BS degree in National Security and Public Affairs from the United States Military Academy, an MBA from Oklahoma City University, and MS and EdS degrees in Counseling and Human Systems from Florida State University. Upon completion of the University of Florida's PhD program in Higher Education Administration, Scott returns to West Point to serve as the Deputy Director of the Center for Enhanced Performance.