THE EFFECTS OF LEADER BEHAVIOR ON FOLLOWER ATTITUDES AND INTENTIONS TOWARD THE PROVISION OF VOLUNTARY UPWARD FEEDBACK

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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Brandon Robert Kilburn entitled "The Effects of Leader Behavior on Follower Attitudes and Intentions Toward the Provision of Voluntary Upward Feedback." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy with a major in Business Administration.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to all those key individuals who told me I could when I thought otherwise. The obstacles which have been overcome to get to this point would have been much more difficult to navigate without the support and love of a strong family.

To my wife Ashley, words cannot properly describe what you have meant to me during this chapter in our lives. I feel honored to have been blessed with the unique opportunity that we have had during our time at the U of M. To have a spouse who completely understands the pressure of a program is a rare thing. I thank you for being my rock, my inspiration and my strength when I needed it. It is with love that I write these words and while we can now close this chapter in our lives, I look forward to a blank page upon which to begin another.

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ABSTRACT

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Feedback is a key factor influencing leader effectiveness. Often followers possess key information pertaining to leader effectiveness that may be conveyed to a leader in the form of feedback. The action of particular interest here is the volunteering of feedback to leaders. In this research, the reciprocal influence between followers and leaders is examined through the application of the theory of planned behavior. Here, the theory of planned behavior is applied to follower attitudes and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. Through the use of scenarios depicting specific behaviors of leaders, differences in responses toward providing voluntary upward feedback are identified.

Results, of this study, indicate that followers who are exposed to a leader exhibiting a high concern for relationships are more likely to have a positive attitude toward providing voluntary upward feedback. These attitudes are shown to be significantly linked to intentions to provide voluntary feedback. Thus, these findings contribute to the study of leader behavior and upward feedback by highlighting specific behaviors that are likely to facilitate this highly valuable resource in an informal manner (voluntary upward feedback). Findings examining gender, as a moderator, are shown to be contradictory to theory showing no significant difference between the attitudes of males and females who are exposed to certain leader behaviors. Based on Kelley's (1992) followership scale, results of this study also find no support for follower effectiveness as a moderator of the relationship between attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and intentions to provide this feedback.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS (cont.)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (cont.)

LIST OF TABLES

PAGE

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Feedback is a key factor influencing leader effectiveness. Followers often possess key information that may be conveyed to a leader in the form of feedback. Often, it is the choice of the follower whether or not to divulge this information. Therefore the effectiveness of a leader may rest in the follower's hands. Followers' attitudes and intentions toward providing voluntary feedback may be influenced by the behavior patterns of leaders. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), applied here, supports the notion that follower intentions to provide voluntary feedback should result in the actual provision of voluntary feedback (Ajzen, 1991). The following scenario emphasizes the value of critical information that rests in the hands of individuals who have the option to divulge or withhold this information.

Imagine yourself as a passenger in a vehicle speeding down the interstate at 70mph when suddenly you notice that the driver has drifted off to sleep. You notice that the vehicle begins to drift into the median toward oncoming lanes of traffic. At this point, the individual in charge of guiding the vehicle is totally oblivious to the situation and you, the passenger, are fully aware of the potential doom that awaits. If no action is taken by the passenger, extreme consequences may be incurred by all parties involved. What to do? Be proactive and alert the driver so that he can gain control and get the vehicle back on course or take no action and hope that things turn out alright. In either case, the choice is totally up to the passenger with outcomes completely dependent on the passenger's decision whether or not to volunteer feedback.

Often in leadership situations, the leader is like the sleeping driver: unaware that problems exist, while the followers, like the passengers, have a clear view of the situation. In this situation, it is totally up to the follower to decide whether or not to take action. The action of particular interest here is the volunteering of feedback to leaders to make them aware of potential damaging situations so that they may be avoided. The valuable information gained from feedback allows leaders to assess their own situation so that proper adjustments may be made to keep things on track, thus helping to keep leaders awake at the wheel.

While this depiction of a crisis situation demonstrates extreme consequences, similar situations exist in the realm of leadership within organizations. In organizational leadership, the consequences may not seem as immediate or extreme as those of the sleeping driver. However, the negative consequences that arise may be severe enough to place jobs, individual compensation, and organizational interests at risk, all of which may affect the lives of the leader and others in the organization.

This research examines how certain leader behaviors either promote or prohibit the provision of voluntary upward feedback from followers. By applying existing knowledge, from the fields of leadership, followership, and upward feedback, this study examines what influences a follower's attitude and subsequent decision to volunteer feedback to leaders. The unique junction of these research streams may allow insight into this phenomenon that has yet to be explored.

According to Hollander and Offerman (1990), effective leadership is achieved through a process in which there is reciprocity and the potential for power sharing and two-way influence. In this research effort, the reciprocal influence between followers and leaders will be examined through investigating the propensity of followers to volunteer feedback to leaders based on the effects of leader behavior. This study provides insight into understanding part of this reciprocal relationship by examining how leaders influence followers through specific leader behaviors, which may in turn determine how a follower can potentially influence a leader via voluntary feedback.

An examination of follower attitudes and intentions to provide voluntary feedback to leaders is conducted recognizing that these factors may lead to the actual provision of feedback. This is based on the work of Ajzen's (1988) theory of planned behavior which suggests that attitudes lead to intentions which in turn lead to behaviors. The application of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) supports the notion that follower intentions to provide voluntary feedback should result in the actual provision of voluntary feedback (Ajzen, 1991), which can impact a leader's effectiveness.

This study relies upon research, from behavioral and contingency theories of leadership, for insight into the behavior of leaders. Much of the research focusing on leader behaviors attempts to disclose overarching behaviors that impact leader effectiveness in most all situations (Blake & Mouton, 1985; Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1974; House, 1971; Lewin & Lippett, 1938; Schriesheim & Bird, 1979; Shartle, 1979; Stogdill & Coons, 1951). Thus far, the results of such efforts have been mixed showing little uniformity of findings.

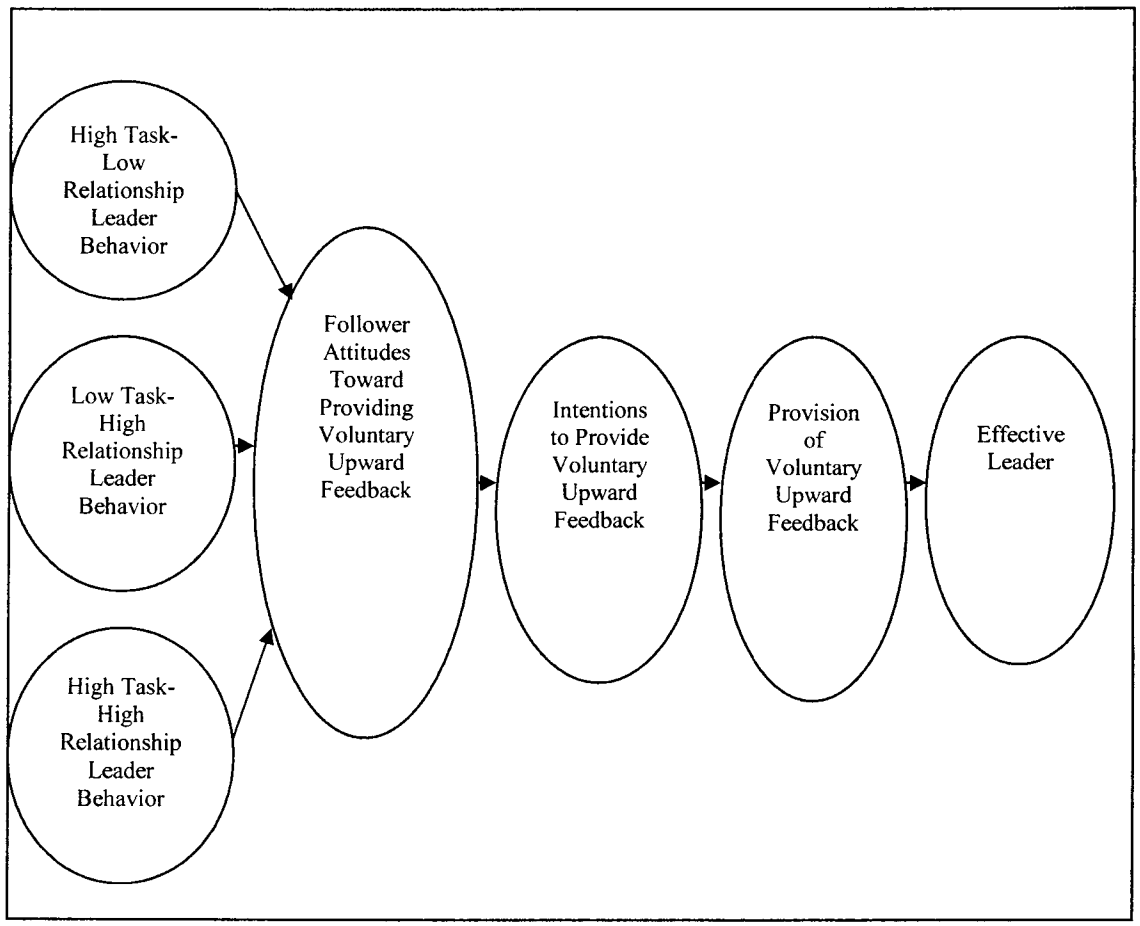
This research effort studies leader behavior in a more focused manner by examining one specific type of leadership situation: the effects of leader behavior on follower's propensity to provide voluntary feedback. This study will attempt to further our understanding of the effects of leader behavior through examining this specific interaction.

This study also utilizes and contributes to the literature examining upward feedback. Traditionally, research has focused on feedback directed from the leader to the follower and the feedback seeking activities of followers (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Fedor, 1991; Illgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Larson, 1989; Taylor, Fisher, & Illgen, 1984; Renn & Fedor, 2001). However, understanding what affects the distribution of feedback directed upward to the leader is also important due to the valuable influence that followers may possess through the sharing of information.

Efforts concerning the provision of upward feedback have primarily been concerned with formal feedback arising from organizational instituted 360° feedback programs (Atwater, Roush & Fischthal, 1995; Waldman & Atwater, 1998). Walker and Smither (1999) suggest that leaders need feedback outside of such formal sources to ensure that they have the necessary information to attempt specific behavioral changes and make subsequent improvements. This type of communication is important to the study of upward feedback because it is estimated to make up over 75% of a manager's communication in a typical day (Luthans & Larsen, 1986). Upon the suggestion of Tourish and Robson (2003), this effort will examine voluntary upward feedback which occurs through the use of informal media without solicitation from the recipient, in which sharing of information is provided exclusively at the discretion of the sender.

Integrating the afore-mentioned research, this study provides theoretical insight into behavioral issues concerning the interaction between followers and leaders from which future studies into this phenomenon may develop. Likewise, this effort provides practical implications, which may assist leaders in facilitating voluntary feedback from followers through self-monitoring of behaviors and behavioral alterations. Figure 1 provides a visual aid depicting the basic premise for this study.

FIGURE 1
The Influence of Leader Behavior on Intentions of Followers to Provide Voluntary Upward Feedback



CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The current chapter examines relevant literature regarding the influence of leader behavior on followers' attitudes and intentions toward providing voluntary upward feedback. This review will discuss issues pertaining to the following areas: leadership, followership, upward feedback, and leader behavior. Finally, a summary and research questions will be provided as a prelude to chapter three.

Leadership

The idea of leadership connotes images of influential individuals with power, who operate in a dynamic manner commanding troops in pursuit of an almighty cause. Many great examples of leadership arise from political, religious, social, and military scenarios. Of primary concern here, however, is leadership in organizational settings, particularly leadership by managers. The concern revolves around obtaining organizational objectives through the joint efforts between leaders and followers.

Leadership as a field of study has long piqued the interest of scholars. The impact of the leadership phenomenon may be observed in the volumes of literature that focus on this topic. Still, with all of the attention this topic has received over the years, no uniform definition of leadership has arisen from these efforts. Here, the definition of leadership is derived from a combination of previous works (Bass, 1985; Daft, 2005; Rost, 1993; Rost & Barker, 2000; Tichy & Devanna, 1986).

Leadership will be defined as an influence relationship between leaders and followers in which transformation of followers, creation of goal visions, and articulation of action is directed at producing outcomes that reflect their shared purpose. The major concepts of this definition (influence, transforming followers, goals, visions and shared purpose, articulating action and producing outcomes) will now be discussed in an effort to show how each aspect is important to the leadership process.

Influence relationship. Yukl (1989) describes influence as the effect of one party on the behavior of another. The influence of leaders can affect follower attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, and behaviors. Influence allows leaders to guide followers toward organizational objectives by changing attributes of followers in a positive manner.

Key to this influence relationship is the concept of power. Power may be defined as an agent's capacity to produce effects on others (House, 1984) and the potential to influence others (Bass, 1990). Leaders may possess different types of power that allow them to influence followers (French & Raven, 1960). French and Raven (1960) state that leaders may derive power from the position which they hold within an organization (legitimate power), the ability to reward (reward power) or punish followers (coercive power), attributes of the leader such as the knowledge or skills (expert power), and unique characteristics that cause followers to identify or admire the leader (referent power). The ability to influence followers and apply power plays a great role in transforming followers.

Transformation of followers. With the use of power and influence, leaders strive to transform followers in efforts to achieve organizational objectives and goals. In transforming followers, leaders create a desire within individuals to pursue an outcome by appealing to followers' values and sense of higher purpose (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1996). Transformation takes place through stimulating a willingness to contribute toward outcomes, in which the values, beliefs, and perceptions of the follower become more congruent with those of the leader. Transforming followers requires appealing to higher level motivators within the follower so that intrinsic ideals and values are reinforced (Burns, 1978). These ideals and values may reinforce the goals and vision of the leader, which serve as a shared purpose between the leader and followers.

Goals, and visions with a shared purpose. Goals and visions are the essence of leadership. Leaders are guided by the visions of what they want for the people they lead and the goals in place to get them there. A vision is the ability of a leader to intuitively focus on an outcome, which provides a sense of direction for leadership efforts (Bennis& Nanus, 1985; Nanus, 1992). Visions are cognitively constructed by leaders through environmental scanning (Adams, 1976; Dollinger, 1984) in conjunction with insight regarding appropriate outcomes (Smircich & Morgan, 1982). Once a leader establishes a vision, goals may be set in efforts to realize that vision. Goal setting is highly important to leaders, in that it provides direction and guidance for leadership efforts as well as motivation for followers (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1996).

Goals serve to direct attention, concentrate effort, aid in strategy development, and control processes until the point of achievement (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1996). Goal setting involves designating a future outcome to serve as a target, which guides the efforts of both leaders and followers, which provide a shared purpose. The adherence to specific goals and visions provides a reason for leader-follower relationships to exist while both parties work together toward achieving common goals and visions.

Articulation of action and producing outcomes. The articulation of action in efforts to produce outcomes occurs in two stages: development of action and implementation of action. In the developmental stage, leaders attempt to plan and organize processes toward outcomes. Planning is a cognitive activity, which consists of gathering information, processing information, analyzing, and determining solutions or outcomes (Yukl, 1998). Leaders engage in planning in order to guide behaviors and determine the most efficient and effective means to an outcome. Once plans are made, leaders begin to organize efforts in congruence with previously established goals and visions. Organizing involves aligning tasks and assigning roles to followers in an effort to complete tasks (Daft, 2003). Both planning and organizing are proactive behaviors exercised by leaders to create efficient and effective operations.

Following the development stage, the implementation of action takes place. The implementation stage consists of role clarification and controlling. Clarifying roles involves communicating role expectations and how to carry out those roles (Yukl, 1998). In clarifying roles, leaders communicate job responsibilities and assignments, policies and procedures, deadlines, performance goals, and they attempt to motivate employees as well as develop competencies.

Finally, controlling involves monitoring followers to ensure that outcomes are produced. A key part of controlling is problem solving through which leaders attempt to maintain stability within operations. Problem solving is a reactive behavior utilized when activities occur that are not in congruence with positive outcomes. Leaders engage in controlling activities in order to maintain congruence to goals and visions and produce desired outcomes.

Leader Effectiveness

A primary concern of leadership is leader effectiveness. Great effort is placed towards finding the right individuals to perform in leadership positions within organizations. Executives go to great lengths in reviewing the credentials of candidates to fill these key roles within organizations in hopes that these individuals will lead others to become more proficient at getting work done. Once these individuals are in place, executives will attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of these key individuals.

Measures of leadership effectiveness have typically been drawn from two common perspectives: the task perspective and the relationship perspective. The task perspective may be measured by the ability of a leader's organizational unit to achieve specified goals, which affect an organizations bottom line. In this context, the term task refers to the end result of leadership efforts, such as goal accomplishment, rather than the more narrowly focused subsets of tasks performed by followers that are used to achieve the greater objective.

Often objective measures such as shareholders return on investment, total profits, profit margin, sales increase, market share, productivity, cost decreases, and other accounting-based measures are used to assess a leader's effectiveness on task achievement (Dhar & Mishra, 2001). Other than accounting-based measures, leader task effectiveness may be ascertained by comparing pre set goals or desired outcomes to actual outcomes within a specified time frame. The task effectiveness of a leader is highly important to organizations due to its direct linkage to organizational survival.

The relationship effectiveness of a leader describes the ability of leaders to facilitate and maintain relationships with followers. These leaders will display strong positive relationships with followers. Relationship effectiveness is commonly observed subjectively by ascertaining follower perceptions of the leader. The attitude of followers towards the leaders is directly related to a leader's ability to satisfy the needs and expectations of followers, as well as gain the respect and commitment of followers. Objective measures such as absenteeism, voluntary turnover, grievances and complaints filed, transfer requests, slacking, and sabotage may be used as indirect measures of relationship effectiveness of a leader (Dhar & Mishra, 2001). While relationship effectiveness of the leader is not required to achieve task effectiveness, it may have a great impact on the achievement of organizational goals through follower contributions.

Linking relationship effectiveness to task effectiveness. While both task and relational perspectives of leadership effectiveness have merit in determining what constitutes a good leader, studying one without regard for the other may obstruct research from reaching its full potential by limiting our understanding of leadership effectiveness. Since followers are responsible for major portions of task completion, it is through followers that leaders are able to achieve the tasks by which effectiveness is determined. If leaders are not able to maintain strong relational bonds with followers, it is highly possible that task effectiveness may suffer. Thus, the linkage between task effectiveness and relationship effectiveness becomes clearer. The previous situation is not a given, in that it is not impossible for a group to achieve a task in the absence of strong leader-follower relationships. However, when thousands or sometimes millions of dollars in resources are invested in achieving a task, one would likely not risk potential losses due to poor leader-follower relations.

Monitoring effectiveness. A key role of a manager is to monitor activities (Mintzberg, 1973). In a similar vein, leaders must monitor their own activities to determine their own level of effectiveness. Within organizations, leaders are frequently provided quantitative reports by which they may gauge their effectiveness in task achievement. Monitoring relationship effectiveness, however, is not quite as easy. Since the key determinant of a leader's relationship effectiveness is followers, a primary means of obtaining information regarding relationship effectiveness is through feedback from followers.

It is important to understand that more feedback is not always necessary for effectiveness to be achieved. Different situations may require less involvement from the follower (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). However, in most scenarios, leaders need feedback from followers in order to take corrective actions such as modifying goals and adjusting strategies to maintain effectiveness. The lack of feedback controlled exclusively by followers may inhibit leaders from achieving maximum effectiveness. In this study, the link between leader behaviors and follower attitudes and intentions toward to providing voluntary feedback is examined in an attempt to gain insight into how a leader may alter behavior in order to gain feedback used to monitor effectiveness.

Followership

The role of the follower in the leadership phenomenon should not be underestimated, for without followers, leaders would cease to exist. The sheer existence of followers suggests that leaders are not the sole possessors of power. Followers have some control over their own destiny in that they choose to follow or not to follow. It may be said that it is the follower who gives a leader power, through the choice to follow.

Often the success of the leader is attributed solely to the influence of the leader while the role of followers goes unnoticed (Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Hughes, Ginnet, & Curphy, 1996). However, the follower may have great influence on the success of the leader (Offerman, 2004). Contrary to common perceptions, influence is not solely possessed by the leader. Influence may arise from either party in the relationship (Hughes, Ginnet, & Curphy, 1996).

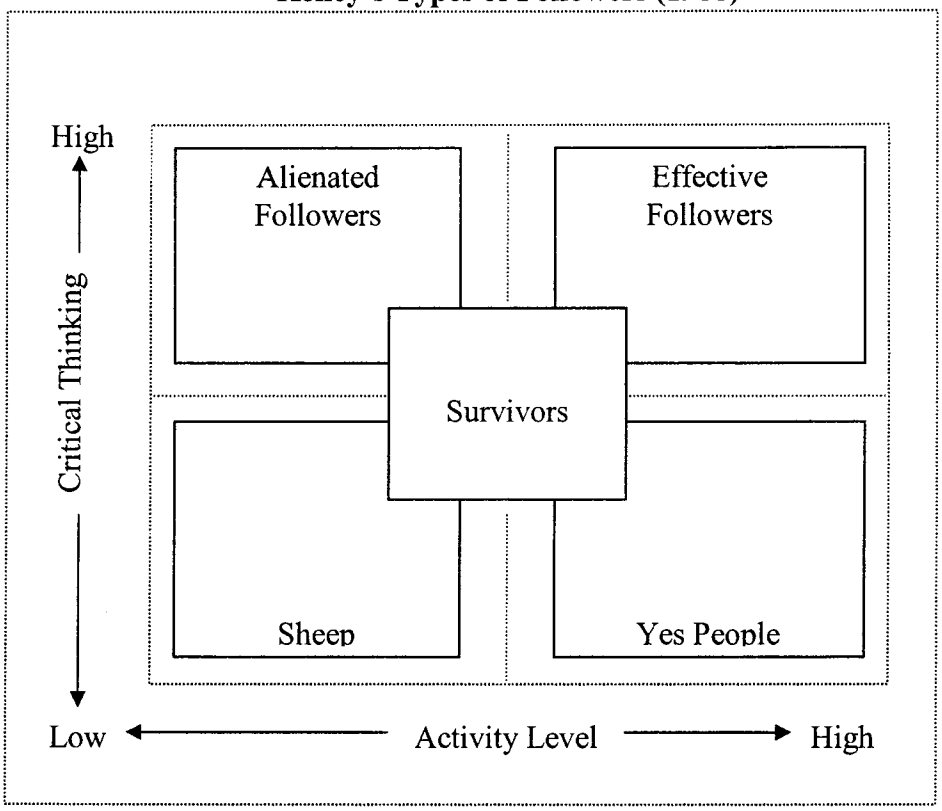
While the leader may assume a more prominent role within the relationship, followers may have substantial influence with both their leaders and other followers. This influence grants an imbalance of power as part of a social exchange (Homans, 1961). Thus, according to Hollander and Offerman (1990) effective leadership is achieved through a process in which there is reciprocity and the potential for power sharing and two-way influence.

The study of followership recognizes a mutual interdependence between leaders and followers. Followership studies examine the influence of followers on leader effectiveness. Leadership research has mainly focused on individuals in leadership roles with much less effort being placed on understanding followers (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy 1996). Within the leadership literature, only a small amount of effort has been directed toward understanding the contribution of followership (Yukl, 2002).

The role of the follower can be an active one that holds within it the potential of leadership. Behaviors that represent effective leadership such as the ability to think independently and to pursue action include attributes of good followership. Therefore, these effective followers hold the greatest potential to become effective leaders (Hollander & Webb, 1955; Kouzes & Posner, 1987). Increasing our knowledge of followership and applying it to existing knowledge of leadership may achieve a greater explanation of leadership effectiveness.

Types of followers. Kelley (1988) provides a categorization of five types of followers (effective, alienated, yes-people, sheep, and survivors) based on two dimensions: critical independent thinking and activity level (see Figure 2). It is important to understand that these groupings of followers are not static. Followers may move in and out of these groups depending on the situation.

FIGURE 2
Kelley's Types of Followers (1988)



According to Kelley (1988):

Effective followers have the vision to see both the forest and the trees, the social capacity to work well with others, the strength of character to flourish without heroic status, the moral and psychological balance to pursue personal and corporate goals at no cost to either, and above all, the desire to participate in a team effort for the accomplishment of some greater purpose (p.107).

In addition to Kelley's description, *effective followers* possess the insight and the motivation to provide voluntary upward feedback to leaders. These individuals are more likely to interact with leaders due to their active nature, while their ability to think critically may increase the value of the information they provide (Kelley, 1992). Leaders who surround themselves with these types of followers may achieve a greater effectiveness due to the valuable feedback that these followers provide.

The four remaining groups of followers are deficient in either level of activity or critical thinking, or both. The *'alienated'* followers are deficient in activity level. Members of this group possess the level of critical thinking to be effective; however, they choose to be inactive. Opposite of this group are the *'yes-people'* who are highly active yet lack critical thinking skills. Combining the weak points of these two groups gives us the *'sheep'* who are the farthest away from the effective group by displaying low levels of both activity and critical thinking. Possibly the most difficult group to lead are the *'survivors'*. These individuals pursue their own agenda and act as a chameleon doing what ever is necessary to preserve self.

While both effective followers and other followers may form similar attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback, the characteristics that determine effective followers (high levels of activity and independent thinking) may actually lead to higher intentions to actually provide feedback. This study will examine the relationship between follower type, based on Robert Kelley's work (1992), and follower attitude on follower behavioral intention to provide voluntary upward feedback.

Realizing that followers contribute largely to the success of leaders is essential to the study of leadership. Research that recognizes these different types of followers and attempts to examine what causes followers to adhere to a specific follower class may better equip leaders when trying to promote effective followers.

Follower attitudes formation and change. Critical to understanding the intentions and actions of followers are the attitudes of followers. Attitudes may be viewed as the affect for or against a psychological object (Thurstone, 1931). The attitudes of followers are critical because they are likely to be used when processing information, forming intentions, and taking action (Boninger, Krosnick, & Berent, 1995). This is of major concern to the study of leadership because follower attitudes may ultimately result in critical follower behaviors, which are crucial to leader effectiveness. Leaders who understand follower attitudes may be better equipped to positively influence follower attitudes that may impact leader effectiveness.

Understanding how attitudes are formed is important in understanding how attitudes affect followers' propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback based on leader behaviors. The basis of this issue is that follower attitudes lead to follower behaviors or behavioral intentions, which ultimately play a role in leader effectiveness. The ability to predict behavior from attitudes has been the topic of numerous studies (e.g., Fazio, 1989; Fazio & Zanna, 1981; Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Millar & Tesser, 1986). The relationship between attitude and behaviors has shown consistently mixed results (see McGuire, 1985, for a review).

While a considerable amount of literature suggests that attitudes do not predict behavior, there is still ample evidence that suggests otherwise. These mixed results prompted research to stop questioning if attitudes can predict behavior and start asking when attitudes predict behavior (e.g., Regan & Fazio, 1977; Zanna & Fazio, 1982). These studies lead to the general consensus that the predictive power of attitudes is greater when attitudes and the behaviors resulting from these attitudes is a close match (e.g., Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Davidson & Jaccard, 1979; Kraus, 1995). The mixed results among the attitude-behavior research also prompted researchers to look at intentions to perform behavior in lieu of direct behaviors. Ajzen's (1988) 'theory of planned behavior' provides one of the most influential works addressing this issue. The details of this theory are discussed in further detail in chapter 3.

A highly prominent model in the study of attitudes is the three-component model (Katz & Stotland, 1959; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). Here, an attitude is an unobservable psychological construct, which is brought forth through three possible channels (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). These channels are cognition, affect, and behavioral components.

The first component in the three-component model states that attitudes may be formed on the basis of cognitions (Fazio & Olson, 2003). Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) expectancy-value cognitive model describes this process. According to Fishbein and Ajzen, an individual's attitude toward an object (person, behavior, group, etc.) is the sum of the expected value of the object. Based on this theory, individuals make a cognitive assessment of an object and place a value (positive or negative) on the object, which forms an attitude.

This value is determined by individual beliefs about the object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Follower cognitions are critical to formation of attitudes toward leaders in that leaders who establish a positive value with followers are more likely have followers with positive attitudes.

In addition to cognitions, attitudes are also formed in part by affect, which stems from emotional reactions to an object. Through this process individuals are exposed to an object by which positive or negative feelings are associated with that object, thus resulting in positive or negative reactions by the individual (Fazio & Olson, 2003). These reactions lead to an affect toward the object, which results in an overall attitude. Based on this premise, followers who have positive reactions to leader behavior will be more likely to form positive attitudes toward followers.

Individual behavior may also influence the formation of attitudes. Bem (1972) suggested that past behavior might be used to infer an attitude toward an object through one's own self-perception. Therefore, if followers have positive experiences through past interaction with leaders, their attitudes will likely be positive toward future interaction with leaders.

While the process of attitude formation is important to understanding how attitudes affect followers' propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback, the process of attitude change is also important. A major assumption of this study is that leaders will be able to alter their behavior to promote greater amounts of voluntary upward feedback. While this assumption is not tested here, this change in leader behavior should lead to a change in follower attitudes, which result in a greater volume of voluntary upward feedback.

Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance suggests that mental representations of beliefs and attitudes should exist in harmony with attitudinally significant behaviors, decisions, and commitments (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). According to Petty and Cacioppo (1986), people are motivated to hold correct attitudes. Therefore, if leaders exhibit acceptable behaviors in the eyes of followers, those followers should reciprocate like behaviors (e.g.,, feedback) in an attempt to diminish dissonance. With dissonance arises a pressure within the individual to reduce or eliminate the discrepancy between their attitudes and their behaviors. Therefore, if a leader does in fact change the follower's attitude in a manner that promotes greater voluntary upward feedback, then followers who are not providing this feedback will experience dissonance and begin to provide the feedback.

Enduring several decades, the influence of attitudes on behaviors remains an important aspect of behavioral research today. Further insight into how followers form and alter attitudes toward leaders may be very insightful to future leadership research. The study conducted here will provide insight into this topic by examining how specific leader behaviors influence the attitudes of followers toward providing voluntary upward feedback and how these attitudes correlate with behavioral intentions to provide the feedback.

Upward Feedback

Another research area important to this study is upward feedback. Upward feedback is a specific type of organizational communication that has received much attention by researchers over the last few decades. Organizational communication is defined here as the process of sharing information among organizational members in which a common meaning is established (O'Reilly & Pondy, 1979). Organizational communication is highly important and may have major effects on individual, group, and organizational performance (Porter & Roberts, 1976). This allows employees to express their inner feelings and emotions (Fearing, 1954; Scott & Mitchell, 1976) and to understand each other's personalities, attitudes, values and beliefs (George & Jones, 2002). Communications between two or more people is considered interpersonal communication (Robbins & Coulter, 2005). The focus of this work is upon a specific type of interpersonal communication between followers and leaders: voluntary upward feedback.

Upward communication. Information within organizations may flow in various directions based on organizational hierarchy. Organizational communications may flow down the hierarchy from superiors to subordinates in a work unit, or in the opposite direction upward from subordinates to superiors. Lateral communications may also exist among employees on the same level and even diagonal communications are possible among employees from different work units at different levels within organizations.

Organizational communication may exist among and between all levels of the organizational hierarchy encompassing every individual within an organization. Of primary concern here is upward communication between followers and leaders. Upward communications occurs when individuals share information and establish a common meaning with another in a higher position in the organizational hierarchy. Information regarding problems, expectations, suggestions for improvement, grievances, disputes, finances, and other organizational activities may be provided through upward communications, making it highly valuable to organizations.

Information provided through upward communications may be highly critical to the success of leaders and the organization because the sender may supply important information concerning organizational issues. When coupled with downward communications, it completes the communication circuit between varying levels of the organizational hierarchy (Glauser, 1984; Glauser, 1985). Figure 3 identifies some of the benefits of upward communications resulting from Tourish and Robson's (2003) review of the upward communications literature.

FIGURE 3
Benefits of Upward Communication
(Tourish & Robson, 2003)

- Promotion of shared leadership, and an enhanced willingness by managers to act on employee suggestions. (Moravec, Gyr, & Friedman, 1993)
- A greater tendency by employees to report positive changes in their managers' behavior. (Hegarty, 1974)
- Actual rather than perceived improvements in management behavior following from feedback, beyond what could be attributed to regression to the mean. (Reilly, Smither, & Vasilopoulous, 1996)
- Awareness of discrepancies between superior and subordinate perceptions may be heightened which may result in a reduced gap between managers' self-ratings and those of their subordinates. (London & Wohlers, 1991)
- The creation of improved forums for obtaining information, garnering suggestions, defusing conflict and facilitating the expression of discontent. (Shenhar, 1990)
- Leaders may become more aware of their strengths and weaknesses (Ashford & Cummings, 1983) and improve weaknesses.

While the benefits of upward communication may be of great value, this type of communication is sometimes difficult to facilitate. Due to the directional nature of upward communications, barriers are imposed on the occurrence of this type of communication. Sharma (1979) lists four reasons why upward communications may be difficult to obtain: (1) followers may tend to conceal their thoughts, (2) followers may feel that their leader is not interested, (3) reward structures may not exist for upward communication, and (4) followers may feel that leaders are inaccessible or unresponsive to communication from followers.

As barriers prevent the occurrence of upward communication, organizations may suffer from insufficient upward information flow. Figure 4 provides a list of possible repercussions resulting from insufficient or absent upward communication systems, as identified by Tourish and Robson's (2003) review of the upward communication literature.

FIGURE 4
Negative Results of Insufficient Upward Communication Systems (Tourish & Robson, 2003)

Nutt, 1999:

- Decreased decision making quality for top management
- Failure in choosing appropriate alternatives
- Limited searching for alternatives
- Leaders rely on formal power rather than influence when implementing plans
- Low levels of participation
-

Janis, 1982:

- Groupthink may occur and criticism may be discounted
- False sense of security and identity may develop

Facilitating upward communications within organizations can provide a challenge to a leader. This study examines the effects of leader behavior on a specific type of upward communication (voluntary upward feedback), in an effort to provide insight into reducing upward communication barriers.

Feedback. A highly valuable type of communication within organizations is feedback. Feedback may play a critical role in the success of leaders. Feedback differs from other types of communication in that it concerns only information about a recipient that is provided to the recipient (Illgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979).

According to Illgen, Fisher, and Taylor (1979), feedback is a communication process in which a sender conveys information, concerning a specific individual's actions, to that individual. Optimally, feedback provides individuals with necessary information to correctly alter their perceptions, and to align their actions with the goals of the organization.

The influence of feedback on individual performance within organizations has been the focus of many research efforts (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Earley, Northcraft, Lee, & Lituchy, 1990; Illgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Kopelman, 1986; Larson, 1989). Traditionally, research has focused on feedback directed from the leader to the follower and the feedback seeking activities of followers. (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Fedor, 1991; Illgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Larson, 1989; Renn & Fedor, 2001; Taylor, Fisher, & Illgen, 1984). However, the focus of this research, upward feedback, is also important due to the valuable information that followers may possess.

Characteristics of valuable feedback. When seeking feedback, leaders desire to receive information that is useful in making decisions (Herold, Liden, & Leatherwood, 1987). Atwater, Roush and Fischthal (1995) suggest that feedback is particularly meaningful if it is specific (Ashford, 1989), emerges from multiple sources (Stone & Stone, 1984), and is exercised in a developmental manner (Farh & Werbel, 1986).

According to George and Jones (2002):

Good feedback concentrates on the message being responded to, not on the sender's personality, attitudes, capabilities, or more general performance levels. Good feedback is specific and focuses on things the sender controls. In providing feedback, the receiver should try to put himself or herself in the original sender's shoes, understand how the sender feels, and relay feedback in a manner that will convey the right message while not necessarily hurting the sender's feeling (p.443).

Feedback is valuable to individuals if it reduces uncertainty about appropriate behaviors for achieving goals or about how those behaviors are perceived by others (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). In order for feedback to be useful to leaders, it should possess three valuable characteristics: *R*elevance, *A*ccuracy, and *T*imeliness (*RAT*) (Kilburn & Jones, 2005). Feedback deficient in any of these three areas may be of little use to leaders and can negatively influence leader decisions. This study does not examine the actual provision of feedback or these important characteristics, however, this study does examine the effects of leader behavior on facilitating feedback that may be valuable to leaders.

While feedback is a highly sought after commodity, it is important to understand that not all feedback is valuable. Feedback that is irrelevant, inaccurate, or untimely may be useless to leaders. The first characteristic of valuable feedback is relevance. Feedback must be relevant to a specific topic in order to be useful. Feedback, which has no relevance to issues upon which the leader has influence, is useless to the leader. Without relevance, the other two characteristics (accuracy and timeliness) are of purpose because the feedback will have no value.

Once relevance has been established, leaders then seek accurate information upon which to base decisions. Without accurate information, leaders are unable to properly make decisions. The accuracy factor may the most critical of all the value determining characteristics. Inaccurate feedback may result in negative consequences for leaders.

After establishing relevance and accuracy, leaders seek timeliness as the third characteristic of valuable feedback. If the feedback provided is both relevant and accurate, it must be delivered within a useful time span. If feedback is provided in an untimely fashion, it may be rendered useless due to the fact that no action can be taken based on the feedback.

Each of these three characteristics plays a highly important role in influencing a leader's decision-making ability. With all three factors present, leaders may reap great rewards when receiving feedback from followers.

Upward feedback research. This study focuses on a specific type of feedback: upward feedback. Upward feedback differs from other types of feedback in that it concerns only upward communications from followers to leaders. Upward feedback, according to Bernardin and Beatty (1987), concerns subordinates' evaluation of their immediate leader. Followers who possess valuable information pertaining to the leader must make calculated decisions based on their own well being when determining whether or not to provide this crucial information to leaders.

Upward feedback is recognized by researchers as an increasingly important tool for individual and organizational development (Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998; Bernardin & Beatty, 1987; London & Beatty, 1993; London, Wohlers, & Gallagher, 1990; Timmreck, 1995). It has been recognized as one important aspect of a larger phenomenon, known as 360-degree or multisource feedback (Waldman & Atwater, 1998). Atwater, Roush and Fischthal (1995) describe upward feedback as followers' perceptions of leadership provided to leaders. The primary assumption underlying upward feedback is that individuals who receive it will be able to identify development needs and improve their leadership performance. This may be highly valuable in the development of leaders. Since the target of leader behavior is subordinates (Atwater, Roush & Fischthal, 1995), these subordinates may provide the most accurate assessment of leadership. Follower appraisals are highly valuable because they relay the unique experiences and perceptions that only they and or the leader have observed (Atwater, Roush & Fischthal, 1995).

In recent years, the study of upward feedback has evolved and feedback is increasingly being gathered from nontraditional sources such as subordinates, peers, and internal or external customers (London & Smither, 1995). The literature on upward feedback extends its focus beyond that of the most common feedback scenario of feedback given downward, from leader to follower. This research stream has observed numerous factors influencing the provision of upward feedback.

Issues such as impact on performance (Bernardin, Hagan & Kane, 1995; Hegarty, 1974; Heslin & Latham, 2004; Tuckman & Oliver, 1968; Walker & Smither, 1999), between-source (e.g.,, self-subordinate) agreement (Hazucha, Hezlett, & Schneider,1993; London & Wohlers, 1991), variables that affect agreement (e.g.,, Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Smither, Wohlers, & London, 1995), correlates of agreement (Hezlett, Kuncel, & Cochran, 1997), reactions to feedback (Bernardin, Dahmus, & Redmon, 1993; London, Wohlers, & Gallagher, 1990; Smither, Wohlers, & London, 1995), follower accountability (Antonioni, 1994; Kozlowski, Chao, & Morrison, 1998; London & Smither, 1995; London, Smither, & Adsit 1997) and practitioner oriented concerns such as instrument development and administration issues (e.g.,, Bernardin & Beatty, 1987; London, Wohlers, & Gallagher, 1990; Tornow, 1993; Van Velsor & Leslie, 1991a, 1991b) have sparked the interest of researchers.

Although some research has shown negative results occurring from the use of feedback (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996), findings associated with the influence of upward feedback on performance have been generally positive. These are similar to results concerning feedback in general (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Earley, Northcraft, Lee, & Lituchy, 1990; Illgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Kopelman, 1986; Larson, 1989). Research has shown that upward feedback can lead to increased performance (Hazucha, Hezlett, & Schneider, 1993; Heslin & Latham 2004; Smither et al., 1995; Tuckman & Oliver, 1968) and positive changes in follower perceptions (Bernardin, Hagan & Kane, 1995; Hegarty, 1974).

Longitudinal studies have also shown positive results for the effects of upward feedback over time periods extending beyond 2.5 years (Reilly, Smither, & Vasilopoulos, 1996; Walker & Smither, 1999). Overall, research examining the relationship between upward feedback and performance has promoted the use of upward feedback within organizations.

The study of upward feedback has also examined the congruence between self and other perception. Research in social psychology has demonstrated that evaluative feedback can positively affect an individual's self-perception (Shrauger & Schoenemann, 1979). Wickland (1975) contended that as individuals receive more feedback, they will become more self-aware and more motivated to decrease discrepancies between self-descriptions and actual behaviors in an attempt to live up to their own self-image. Yammarino and Atwater (1997) suggested that individuals who go through the self-other rating process generally fall into 4 categories: 1. over-estimators, 2. under-estimators, 3. accurate assessors who rate themselves favorably, as do others, and 4. accurate assessors who rate themselves unfavorably, as do others. Research has found that over time a leader's self perception becomes more congruent with the perceptions of followers after receiving upward feedback (Hazucha, Hezlett, & Schneider, 1993; Johnson & Ferstl, 1997; Walker & Smither, 1999). This suggests that as leaders receive upward feedback they may use this as a tool to improve self-awareness.

In the case of the follower, when upward feedback is not anonymous there might be a tendency to shy away from the provision of negative feedback or to tell a leader what he or she wants to hear. Therefore, upward feedback may often be flawed due to the fact that positive upward feedback is more common than negative upward feedback.

Findings from the study of negative upward feedback have shown that leader effectiveness can improve as a result of negative feedback from followers (Atwater, Roush, & Fischthal,1995; Johnson & Ferstl, 1997; Reilly et al. 1996; Smither, London et al., 1995;Van Velsor, Ruderman, & Phillips, 1991). Ashford and Tsui (1991) point out that this should help managers better regulate and adjust their behavior.

Two related explanations for these findings involve goal setting and control theory. From a goal setting perspective, the introduction of the feedback program itself sends a message that performance in the areas being measured is important and valued (Locke & Latham, 1990). Feedback on items that describe specific behavior (e.g.,, "Clearly stated expectations regarding our team's performance.") enabled managers to use the items to set specific goals for improvement. From a control theory perspective (Carver & Scheier, 1981,1982; Lord & Hanges, 1987) managers who have the largest discrepancy between feedback and a standard will be most motivated to change their behavior.

While these findings suggest that upward feedback is a contributor to increased performance, merely providing feedback may not be enough. Leader performance improvements will depend on the extent to which they utilize upward feedback. Atwater, Waldman, Atwater, and Cartier (2000) suggest that not every leader is likely to make improvements, and some may actually decrease their performance.

Studies have suggested that goal setting (Locke & Latham,1990), adequacy of the process (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994) and acceptance of the feedback (Atwater, Waldman, Atwater, & Cartier, 2000) influence the likelihood of benefiting from feedback. Whether or not feedback prompts behavior change can hinge upon factors such as attitudes, follow-up behaviors, or other characteristics of the feedback recipient (Hazucha et al., 1993; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Waldman & Atwater, 1998).

Upward feedback: formal vs. informal. A primary area of concern within the upward feedback research, as well as within organizational communications research, is upon the specific media used for conveying a message. Communications within organizations may occur in distinct forms and settings, which may affect the transmission of information. Communication may occur in both verbal and non-verbal forms as well as formal and informal settings. For the purposes of this work, the concepts and processes discussed will be exclusively applied in a verbal sense.

Communications within organizations may also take place within two settings: formal or informal. Formal communications are said to follow the official chain of command and may be required by the organization (Robbins & Coulter, 2005). Informal communications exist outside of the organization's structural hierarchy (Robbins & Coulter, 2005). This type of communication consists of purely social interaction and is for the most part unguided by formal authority.

Research has examined how various media are used in efforts to enhance communication effectiveness (Daft & Lengel, 1986; Lengel & Daft, 1988; Webster & Trevino, 1995). The pathway through which a message is conveyed to a recipient is a communication medium.

One method of differentiating between communication media is through information richness. Information richness refers to the amount of information a medium of communication can transmit and the extent to which it enables a common understanding between senders and receivers (Daft & Lengel, 1984; Daft, Lengel, & Trevino, 1987). Media that are high in information richness are capable of transferring more information and are more likely to generate a common understanding. Face-to-face communication has the highest potential for information richness because it allows for instant feedback, which reduces ambiguity (Daft, 1992; George & Jones, 2002). This helps to insure both the accuracy and completeness of the valuable information.

In the case of upward feedback, it most commonly occurs as part of the appraisal process, rather than through daily information communication channels. Upward feedback often entails receiving formal feedback in the form of written reports provided to respective managers. These reports, however, are inherently static and dry, they primarily contain numerical frequencies or at best, write-in comments. This format makes interpretation or assumption of causality difficult and allows for little richness in information. Thus, additional feedback may be essential in ensuring that managers have the correct information in order to change specific behaviors and make ensuing improvements (Walker & Smither, 1999).

Feedback may occur both formally and informally within organizations. Formal feedback is solicited in a non-voluntary manner in which followers are probed for information through a structured format. This type of feedback may occur in the form of written documents, monitored question/answer sessions, formal meetings with leaders, or other types of structured interactions. While this type of feedback is highly valuable to organizations, it may provide insufficient information to leaders.

It is estimated that over 75% of a manager's communication in a typical day is informal (Luthans & Larsen, 1986), thus allowing ample opportunity for leaders to seek feedback through informal means. Informal feedback, which is feedback provided through informal media such as general conversation, e-mail chatting, note writing, or any other type of unstructured communication (Duening & Ivancevich, 2003), and may allow leaders to probe deeper into the message through requests for elaboration, explanation, and clarification of language.

This study examines upward feedback outside formal settings. Here, concern revolves around followers' willingness to volunteer feedback to leaders without solicitation from the organization. This is an effort to extend the upward feedback literature by following the suggestion of Tourish and Robson (2003), to further examine informal upward feedback within organizations stepping outside traditional research that examines primarily formal upward feedback.

Voluntary Feedback

A great obstacle facing leaders in their pursuit of feedback arises when followers have the discretion to withhold feedback. Here, the act of volunteering feedback is the primary concern. Henceforth, I will refer to this specific type of feedback as "voluntary feedback."

Voluntary feedback is defined here as: *feedback occurring through the use of informal media without solicitation from the recipient, in which sharing of information is provided exclusively at the discretion of the sender.*

It is the unsolicited nature of voluntary feedback that makes this type of feedback unique. Here the focus is upon voluntary upward feedback. As previously stated, this type of feedback is provided exclusively at the discretion of the follower thus leaving leaders vulnerable to the possibility of feedback being withheld. This research effort examines specific leader behaviors, in an effort to determine which are more likely to promote the provision of voluntary upward feedback that may ultimately lead to increased leader effectiveness.

As mentioned earlier, informal forms of feedback may allow leaders to ascertain greater depth of information than more structured formal feedback. Due to reduced structure and barriers to communication, informal feedback sessions lend an increased opportunity to clarify the message and are able to reduce ambiguity within communication. Since voluntary feedback is informal in nature, leaders are more likely to receive valuable feedback (Luthans & Larsen, 1986). Feedback occurring through these channels can allow leaders to enhance the characteristics that add value to the information gained through feedback.

Benefits of voluntary feedback arise from the leader's ability to inquire when a message is unclear or irrelevant. This allows the leader to assess the characteristics that add value to feedback (relevance, accuracy, and timeliness) and improve the quality of feedback.

Examining voluntary upward feedback within organizations may provide insight into capturing a greater portion of information critical to leader effectiveness. Leaders armed with this feedback may reap great benefits with increased understanding of how to facilitate this type of feedback. Next, specific benefits that leaders may receive from voluntary upward feedback will be discussed.

Informational benefits. Leaders may gain specific information valuable to future decision making actions. Leaders may gain operations specific information as well as information pertaining to followers. The informal nature of voluntary feedback allows for inquiry when the leader is uncertain of the message being conveyed. The immediate nature of this type of feedback allows for information to be distributed in a more timely fashion. Leaders may also be able to assess the urgency of issues by observing the communication patterns of followers such as tone of voice, facial expressions, speed of language, bodily movements, excitement level, etc.

Relational benefits. Through voluntary feedback leaders may reduce ambiguity within leader follower-relationships. Followers conveying information about themselves or their coworkers enable a leader to gauge the strength of relationship between oneself and followers. Followers may voice issues of concern regarding the leader-follower relationships.

Leaders may also assess relationship concerns by observing the communication patterns of followers such as frequency of interaction, length of conversation, facial expressions, eye contact, volume of speech, inclusion of humor, avoidance tendencies, attention level, etc. Leaders may use voluntary feedback as a tool to develop open lines of communication with followers. As a result of continuous interaction with followers, leaders may increase the level of comfort followers have regarding interaction. Leaders may reduce barriers to information sharing by rewarding or encouraging this type of communication.

Leader-member exchange. The existence of voluntary upward feedback suggests exchange between leaders and followers. Followers make calculated decisions, based on assumptions of reciprocity by leaders, of whether or not to provide feedback to leaders. Research focusing on the theory of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) may provide insight into understanding this process.

This theory recognizes that followers are the means to goal achievement and that relationships between leaders and followers are critical. The theory of LMX brought to the forefront in the mid 1970's by the works of George Graen and associates and is an essential factor in understanding leadership today (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975). The central focus of LMX is on the relationships between leaders and followers. LMX stresses the need for relationships on an individual basis. LMX suggests that leaders should address issues pertaining to the differences between themselves and each of their followers, as opposed to grouping all followers together and establishing a generic relationship with the group as a whole (Bratton, Grint, & Nelson, 2005).

Graen (1976) recognized social interaction between the leader and follower as an exchange relationship. This theory proposes that followers make contributions at a cost to themselves and reap benefits at a cost to the leader where interaction is sustained because both parties find the interaction mutually beneficial. This exchange takes place When both parties are highly satisfied with the exchange, a high quality relationship exists informally between the leader and the follower and is negotiated between the leader and each follower on an individual basis (Graen, 1976). The quality of the exchange is based on the satisfaction of either or both parties involved. Liden and Graen (1980) found that members with higher quality relationships had higher performance ratings, assumed greater levels of responsibility, and made greater contributions to their jobs than those with low quality relationships.

LMX provides great insight into the dyadic relationship between leaders and their followers. Interaction between leaders and followers allows for relationships between the two to develop and mature. As well as understanding how leaders choose to interact with followers, greater understanding of how followers choose to interact with leaders can provide valuable insight into how leaders can achieve effectiveness. This study examines followers' propensity to exchange voluntary upward feedback with leaders based on specific leader behaviors by examining follower attitudes and intentions toward providing a leader with voluntary upward feedback.

Identifying Leader Behaviors

The following review provides insight into the study of leader behavior, which is essential to understanding how the behavior of leaders can influence the attitudes and intentions of followers toward providing voluntary upward feedback. The study of leader behavior has evolved out of the early research pertaining to leadership traits (Bird, 1940; Jenkins, 1947; Stogdill, 1948), which suggests that the success of a leader may be credited to the individual attributes of the leader. These studies recognized that variables such as intelligence, personality traits, values, and attitudes create differences between leaders. While these early studies provided much insight into leadership effectiveness, they were found only to have an indirect relationship with leadership effectiveness and failed to address the interactions of leaders and their group members. In lieu of these weak findings, these variables were hypothesized to have an effect on leader behaviors, which are more directly linked to leadership success. Thus the behaviors of leaders may be considered to have a more direct relationship with leader success.

An advantage to the study of leader behavior is that leader behaviors may be directly observed, in contrast to personality traits, values, and intelligence, which can only be inferred from behaviors or measured through tests (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1996). The study of leader behavior is also advantageous to research in the sense that it allows for more practical recommendations due to the ease of changing behavior as opposed to more abstract traits such as values, attitudes, personality, or intelligence.

Building from the trait research, the behavioral theories attempted to identify behaviors that differentiate effective leaders from ineffective leaders (Robbins & Coulter, 2005). From within this stream of research, four major efforts have come to stand out: the University of Iowa Studies (Lewin, 1939; Lewin & Lippett, 1938), Ohio State Studies (Schriesheim & Bird, 1979; Shartle, 1979; Stogdill & Coons, 1951), University of Michigan Studies (Kahn & Katz, 1960; Likert, 1979), and The University of Texas Studies-The Leadership Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1985). Each of these studies identifies specific behavioral dimensions in which leaders may be judged effective. Arising from each of these independent research efforts is the commonality of two primary behavioral dimensions of leader behavior (Robbins & Coulter, 2005): the task dimension and the relationship dimension. The following discussion will review the basic concepts of the early behavior theories of leadership and assess their similarity converging on two specific behavioral dimensions.

The Duality of Leader Behavior. The following discussion provides a review of leadership theories which have lead to the recognition of two primary leader behaviors. Figure 5 below provides a summary of the behavioral dimensions studied in these research efforts. The figure classifies the behaviors into a task or relationship dimension based on the term given to the behavior which was studied.

Beginning in the 1930's, the University of Iowa studies (Lewin, 1939; Lewin & Lippett, 1938) sought to explore the effects of leader behavior by examining three leadership styles: Autocratic style, Democratic style, and Laissez-faire. This study initiated the recognition of the duality of leader behavior.

Results from the University of Iowa studies were inconsistent in promoting one dimension as being more effective. However, the most consistent finding suggested that group member satisfaction level was higher under a democratic leader as opposed to an autocratic leader (Bass, 1981).

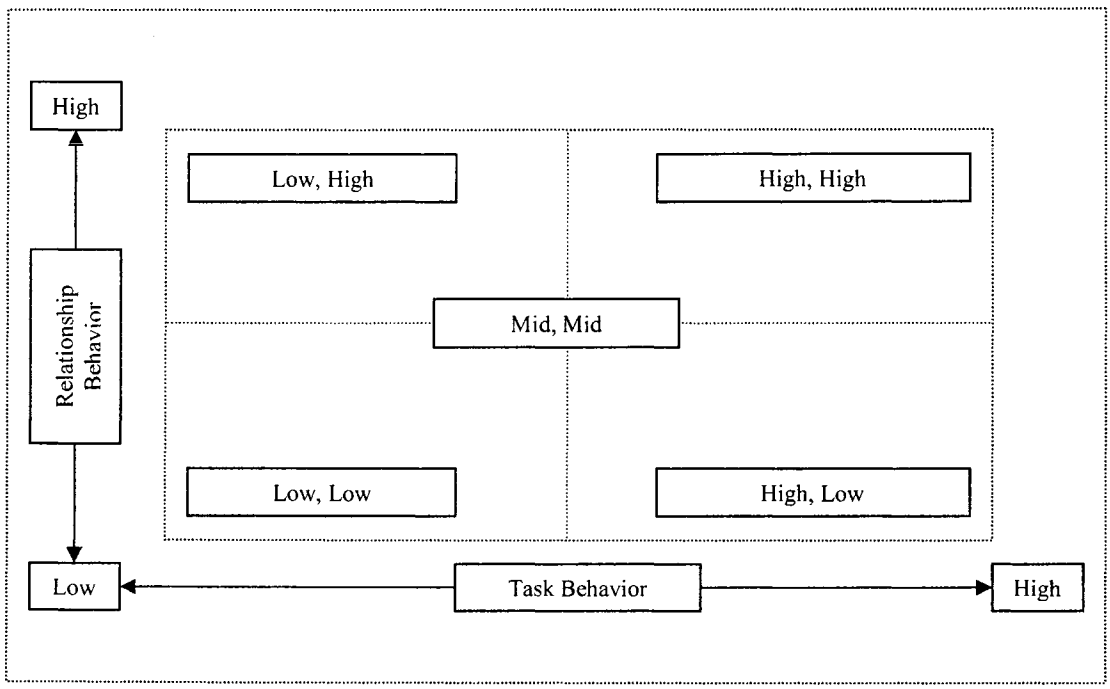
Following the University of Iowa studies, the Ohio State studies (Schriesheim & Bird, 1979; Shartle, 1979; Stogdill & Coons, 1951) addressed two similar behavioral dimensions: initiating structure and consideration. The study found that leaders who possessed a high degree of each of these behaviors (a "high-high" leader) achieved high group task performance and satisfaction more frequently than one who was rated low on either or both dimensions (Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy, & Stogdill, 1974). Fisher (1988), however, found that a "high-high" leader does not always yield positive results thus suggesting other factors may contribute to leader effectiveness.

Within the same time frame of the Ohio State studies, the University of Michigan studies (Kahn & Katz, 1960; Likert, 1979) were focused on a similar research objective. The University of Michigan studies identified and explored two orientations of leader behavior: employee orientation and production orientation, further emphasizing the duality of leader behavior. Conclusions of this effort suggested that employee-oriented leaders were associated with higher group productivity and job satisfaction (Robbins & Coulter, 2005).

Drawing from the previous efforts, the Leadership Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1985) encapsulates the behavioral dimensions into a two-dimensional grid. Similar to previous research, the axes represent behavior styles, which fall into a task/relationship orientation.

The Leadership Grid recognizes the two behavioral dimensions as being independent of each other and identifies 5 leadership styles (Figure 5) based on the degree of adherence to a given behavior, which is rated from 1 to 9 (low-high). These specific leader behavior styles provide the basis for the specific leader behaviors studied in this research effort. The 9,9 ("high-high") style represents a leader who has both high concern for production and a high concern for people where as the 1,1 (low, low) style represents a leader low on both dimensions. The other three styles are 9,1 (high task, low relationship); 1,9 (low task, high relationship); 5,5 (mid-point of the axis). Findings from this research has shown little evidence to suggest one most effective style (Larson, Hunt & Osborn, 1976; Nystrom, 1978). The false belief that the "high-high" style of leadership is the most effective has become known as the "high-high" myth (Larson, Hunt & Osborn, 1976; Nystrom, 1978).

FIGURE 5
Leadership Grid
(Blake & Mouton, 1985)



Building from the behavioral theories, the study of leadership began to recognize the existence of situational variables in the leadership process, thus forming contingency theories of leadership. While these theories advanced the field of leadership by addressing the influence of situational variables, the role of leader behavior serves a key function in these theories. These contingency theories addressed the importance of both the task and relationship behaviors to leadership effectiveness.

Fred Fiedler (1967) was one of the first scholars to propose a comprehensive contingency model of leadership effectiveness. Fiedler suggested that leaders could be categorized on a continuum between task orientation and relationship orientation.

This theory treated leadership style as if it were fixed and suggested that leadership effectiveness could only be changed through two methods: changing the leader or changing the situation. Flaws in the theory exist because the theory basically ignores the ability of individuals to change and it suggests a reciprocal relationship between relationship orientation and task orientation.

Later, Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard (1974) developed a contingency leadership theory that focused on follower readiness. This theory suggested that leaders should have varying levels of task or relational focus depending on follower readiness. Readiness, according to Hersey and Blanchard, refers to the extent to which followers have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task.

While each of the previous studies addresses similar leader behaviors, these studies differ in their terms used to address the specific behaviors examined. However, their similarity in behavioral descriptions points to a convergence among the studies. A brief break down of studies discussed above is provided in Figure 6, below. Figure 6 shows how these behaviors converge upon two behavioral dimensions based on their description: task dimension and relationship dimension.

FIGURE 6
Summary of Behavioral Dimensions Studied

Study	Behavioral Dimension Addressed in Study	
	TASK	*RELATIONSHIP*
University of Iowa (Lewin and Lippitt, 1938)	**Autocratic Style:** dictating work, centralized decision making, limited participation	**Democratic Style:** involving subordinates, delegating authority, encouraged participation
Ohio State (Stogdill and Coons, 1951)	**Initiating Structure:** structuring work and defining roles to meet goals	**Consideration:** developing trust and respecting ideas and feelings of members
University of Michigan (Kahn and Katz, 1960)	**Production Orientation:** emphasize technical aspects of the job and view members as a means to accomplish goals	**Employee Orientation:** personal interest in needs of followers and accepting of individual differences
Leadership Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1985)	**Concern for Production:** leader's level of concern for task accomplishment	**Concern for People:** leader's level of concern for subordinates
Fiedler Contingency Model (Fiedler, 1967)	**Task Orientation:** Primarily interested in productivity and job completion	**Relationship Orientation:** Primarily interested in good personal relationships
Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1974)	**Task Behavior:** Defines roles and directs task accomplishment	**Relationship Behavior:** Leader and follower share the role of decision-making and communicate openly
Path-Goal Model of Leadership (House, 1971)	**Directive:** Gives specific guidance for task performance **Achievement Oriented:** Sets challenging goals	**Supportive:** Shows concern for followers and is friendly toward followers **Participative:** Consults with group members and utilizes their input.

A number of studies have surrounded each of these two behavioral dimensions and their specific behaviors (Figure 7). Figure 7 provides a list of specific task and relationship behaviors, which have been examined in research. These dimensions will now be discussed in greater detail.

FIGURE 7
Behaviors Associated with Task and Relationship Orientation

Task oriented behavior has been associated with a leader's:
Strong concern to achieve goals (Bass, 1967; Fiedler, 1967)
Concern for production (Blake and Mouton, 1964)
Production orientation (Katz, Maccoby, and Morse; 1950)
Emphasizing production (Fleishman, 1957)
Goal achievement (Cartwright and Zander, 1960)
Need for achievement (McClelland, 1961; Wofford, 1970)
Achievement orientation (Indvik, 1986)
Role definition (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982)
Work facilitation and goal emphasis (Bowers and Seashore, 1966)
Goal setting (Bales, 1958)
Controlling supervision (McGregor, 1960)
Initiating structure (Hemphill, 1950)

Relationship oriented behavior is associated with a leader's:
Concern to pursue and maintain relationships (Katz, Maccoby, and Morse, 1950)
Individual relationship maintenance (Misumi, 1985)
Group relationship maintenance (Cartwright and Zander, 1960; Wofford, 1970)
Concern for people (Blake and Mouton, 1964)
People focus or center (Anderson, 1974)
Interaction facilitation and supportiveness (Bowers and Seashore, 1966)
Interaction orientation (Bass, 1967)
Emphasis on employees (Fleishman, 1957)
Expressiveness and tendency to establish social and emotional ties (Bales, 1958)
Sense of trust and loose supervision (McGregor, 1960)
Need for affiliation (McClelland, 1961)

The task dimension. The task dimension of leader behaviors concerns focusing on the pursuit of results. Birnbrauer and Tyson (1984) term these leaders as hard drivers and persuaders. Likewise Reddin (1977) termed this type of leadership as autocrat leadership, Downton (1973) termed it as instrumental leadership, and Misumi (1985) termed it as performance leadership. These types of leaders, in the purest form, will likely maintain distance between themselves and followers along with the tendency to be cold and aloof toward followers (Blau & Scott, 1962).

Goals and objectives are a primary concern of task-oriented leaders. These leaders will likely pursue goals through whatever means necessary. Enforcing sanctions, allocating labor, defining roles, providing structure, providing instruction, establishing patterns of organization, and opening channels of communication are common examples of these means (Bales, 1958; Hemphill, 1950). These leaders may be viewed as strategic thinkers (Cleveland, 1980), which foster a culture for productivity (Akin & Hopelain, 1986).

In studies examining task behavior, numerous findings have arisen. Bass (1962) found task oriented leaders prefer to be wise; experience a job well done; to get things done. Further, task leaders were found to be more self-sufficient, resourceful, will power driven, anti-social, serious, tough, realistic, aggressive, and competitive (Bass & Dunteman, 1963). These leaders are more likely to show restraint, masculinity, objectivity, thoughtfulness, endurance, need for achievement (Bass, 1967). Task orientation has been shown to be higher among men than among women (Bass, 1990).

Task orientated individuals were found to be more likely to volunteer for a task and to displace effort more voluntarily until completion of the task (Frye & Spruill, 1965). Marston (1964) suggests that these individuals also have a tendency to be self-reinforcers.

The relationship between task orientation and productivity has been the focus of numerous efforts. Likert (1955) found that, while follower satisfaction decreased, performance increased with an increase in pressure for production by the leader. Similarly, Litwin (1968) provided evidence that leaders who displayed a strong need for achievement were more productive than those who displayed a strong need for affiliation. A common finding in studies analyzing leader behavior and employee production is has been that workers have a tendency to be more productive under leaders with a task orientation (Dunteman & Bass, 1963; Mann, Indik, & Vroom, 1963).

The relationship dimension. The relationship dimension of leader behavior leaders differ from the task dimension in that leader focus highly on maintaining relationships with followers. Through heavy interaction with followers, these leaders constantly facilitate and monitor relationships. Reddin (1977) termed this type of leader a missionary or developer. Similarly, Misumi (1985) referred to this type of leader as a maintenance oriented leader. These types of leaders display a heavy concern for people and closeness to followers frequently facilitating interaction.

Facilitating and maintaining relationships are the primary concern of relationship oriented leaders. The concern for relationship may be manifest in various ways. Communication is a key factor in the existence of relationship-oriented leaders.

Kirmeyer and Lin (1987) observed the communication patterns of leaders in efforts to examine which supervisors were relationship-oriented. Organizational shifts toward democratic systems also identify a relationship orientation. Daley (1986) suggests that the concern for relations is central to humanistic management and may be realized through the autonomy of employees, promoting the personal significance of work, and fair treatment of employees.

Studies examining relationship behavior have presented various results. In 1962, Bass examined leader preferences and found that relationship leaders wanted to have fun; be helpful; work cooperatively; gain friends; be easy to talk to. Relationship oriented leaders have been shown to be more socially dependent, warm, sociable, and affiliation driven (Bass & Dunteman, 1963). This orientation also showed a correlation with wanting to be close to others, wanting affection from others, wanting to include others as well as wanting to be included by others (Bass, 1967). Studies have also documented that relationship oriented leaders obtain higher performance levels of their work groups (Barrow, 1975; Bass, Binder, & Breed, 1967, Farris & Lim, 1969; Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950). These studies are conflicting with those that show task-oriented behaviors to obtain higher performance.

The effects of behavioral orientation on followers have indicated that subordinate satisfaction with the leader is linked to the relations oriented behavior of followers (Bass, 1990). Julian (1964) showed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and closeness with the leader. Workers have been found to be more satisfied when supervisors understood their problems and made effort to help them out (Hoppock, 1935; Roberts, Miles, & Blankenship, 1968).

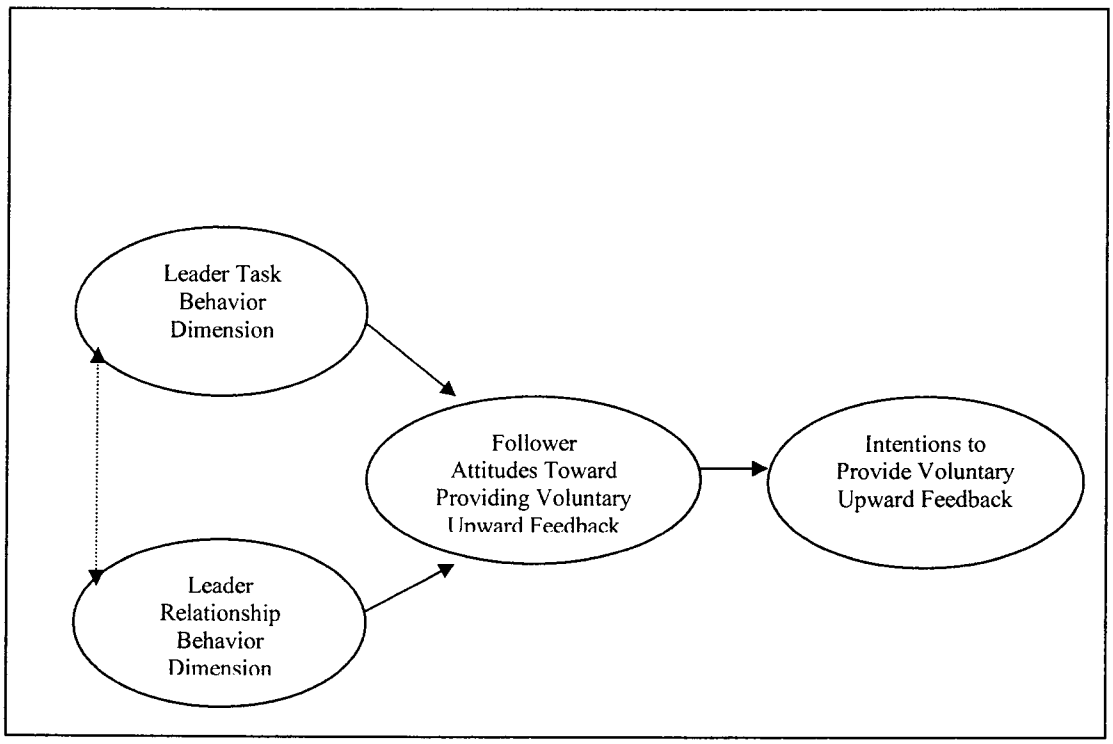
Research has found that workers are more satisfied when supervisors are good at handling grievances, good at communicating, considerate of feelings, recognize good work, have reasonable expectations, and stand up for their subordinates (Mann & Hoffman, 1960; Stagner, Flebbe, & Wood, 1952). Bose (1955) found that workers show more pride in their group under a relationship-oriented leader. Employee dissatisfaction and turnover have been found to be lower under relationship oriented leaders (Mayo & Lombard, 1944). Numerous other field studies (Gruenfeld & Kassum, 1973; Likert, 1955; Maloney, 1979) as well as laboratory experiments (Fox, 1954; Fox, 1957; Heyns, 1948; Maier & Danielson, 1956; Schwartz & Gekoski, 1960; Wischmeier, 1955) have documented a positive relationship between relationship-oriented leader behavior and follower job satisfaction.

Coupling task and relationship behaviors. While much effort has been placed towards determining the effectiveness of a specific behavior type, considerable research has been amassed to argue for the leader's application of a combined task and relationship behavior. The basic premise of this research stream suggests that the effectiveness of leaders is greatest when they adhere to both task and relationship attitudes and behaviors.

Patchen (1962) found that leaders with high-performance norms and concern for efficiency, coupled with concern for follower rewards were likely to have high performing groups. Numerous other studies have lead to similar results over the years (Daniel, 1985; Hall & Donnell, 1979; Tjosvold, 1984). This has lead to another stream of research, which has centered around displacing this "high-high" myth (Larson, Hunt & Osborn, 1976; Nystrom, 1978).

While numerous studies support one specific behavioral orientation to show higher performance, conflicting results exist. This study examines each behavioral type (high task-low relationship, low task-high relationship, and "high-high") in the context of follower attitudes and intentions toward providing upward feedback to determine which behavior lends itself more readily to facilitating voluntary feedback from followers. Figure 8 provides a conceptual model of the influence of leader behavior on follower attitudes and intentions toward providing voluntary upward feedback based on the interaction of two primary behavioral dimensions.

FIGURE 8
Influence of Leader Behavior



As Figure 8 shows, the task and relationship dimensions interact to form actual leader behaviors. Blake and Mouton (1985) provide a 4x4 matrix that allows us to operationalize the different degrees of interaction between these two behaviors (see Figure 5). Basing this study off of Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid three of the five types of leader behavior will be examined. These are: high task-low relationship, low task-high relationship, and the "high-high". The other two behavior types ("mid-mid" and "low-low") are omitted from this study due to the fact that these styles have not been substantially linked to higher performance for leaders, nor have they sparked the volume of debate surrounding the other three styles. This effort plans to revisit the debate of the effectiveness of the high task-low relationship, low task-high relationship, and "high-high" leader behaviors by examining the effects of these behaviors on followers' attitudes and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. The following section presents a possible explanation for why followers may react differently to certain leader behaviors.

Linking Leader Behavior to Follower Behavior

Leader behaviors act as cues upon which the followers base attitudes and intentions. It is the leader that sets up the nature of the exchange. Therefore the follower is the reactant to the leader's cues (task cues vs. relationship cues). In the case of voluntary follower behaviors, such as those examined here (voluntary upward feedback), these cues are highly influential in determining followers' attitudes and intentions toward interacting with leaders. As mentioned earlier, in these situations the choice to interact is entirely up to the follower. According to Social Exchange Theory, followers will react reciprocally to leader behaviors and give back in turn what they receive.

Blake and Mouton (1985) believe the task and relationship dimensions of leader behavior are interdependent variables that influence the behavior of followers. These dimensions are viewed as interdependent since effective leadership cannot be exercised without both interaction with people and concerns for tasks (Blake & Mouton, 1985). Therefore, variance in the level of adherence to either of these behavioral dimensions will produce different leader behaviors depending on how they are combined.

Based on social exchange theory, followers will act in a similar (reciprocal) manner to these leader behaviors. Blau (1964) explains basic reciprocity as an individual's determination of present actions on past returns they gained from the other which guides the social exchange. Reciprocity evokes obligations toward other on the basis of past behaviors (Gouldner, 1960). Gouldner (1960) discusses the concept of instrumentality, or one's assessment of expected benefits. Here, individuals are more likely to contribute to another who provides benefits in lieu of one that does not. Blau (1964) maintained that benefits can contain both extrinsic (money, fulfillment of an order, physical assistance, a favor, advice, invitations, compliance) and intrinsic currency (emotional support, trust, honor and hostility).

When considering voluntary upward feedback, the relationship dimension of leader behavior provides the initial criteria for opening the door to communication (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987). Therefore, the more open the leader is, the more open the follower will be. Once followers are willing to communicate, they will then assess the instrumental value of providing this feedback. Depending on the perceived level of instrumentality, followers will determine whether it is worthwhile to provide voluntary upward feedback to leaders.

Based on these premises, in a leadership situation, followers will react to leader behaviors in a reciprocal manner based on expected instrumental values both intrinsic and/or extrinsic in nature. Relationship behavior primarily renders intrinsic rewards (e.g.,, friendliness, favors, advice), while the task leader mainly provides extrinsic rewards (e.g.,, monetary rewards, promotion). Therefore, the relationship and task behaviors render different instrumental assessments: intrinsic and extrinsic, respectively.

Differing leader behaviors may, in turn, cause followers to react differently based on the level of adherence to the specific dimensions and the followers' assessments of instrumental value (the worthwhileness of activites)(Bass, 1990). In the case of voluntary feedback, the relationship dimension provides the initial link for communication to exist between the leader and the follower (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987) as well as possible intrinsic rewards, while the task dimension appeals to the follower's assessment of extrinsic benefits.

Relationship linkage. Based on social exchange theory, the sheer nature of relationship oriented leader behavior should lend leaders more freely to voluntary upward feedback than those displaying task oriented leader behaviors. The relationship dimension of leader behavior differs from the task dimension in that leader focus highly on maintaining relationships and interacting with followers. Through high levels of interaction with followers, these leaders constantly foster positive relationships and open communications (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987), which in turn will result in followers acting reciprocally resulting in high levels of interaction.

Bass (1962) examined leader preferences and found that relationship leaders wanted to facilitate ease of communication. Thus according to social exchange theory, followers would act in a similar (reciprocal) manner (facilitating communication) thus increasing their propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback.

Relationship oriented leaders have been shown to be more socially dependent, warm, sociable, and affiliation driven (Bass & Dunteman, 1963), thus encouraging followers to act in a similar manner. Relationship oriented leaders typically display greater understanding of follower problems and make greater effort to help them out (Hoppock, 1935; Roberts, Miles, & Blankenship, 1968) as well as handling grievances well, communicating well, considering others' feelings, recognizing good work, having reasonable expectations, and standing up for their subordinates (Mann & Hoffman, 1960; Stagner, Flebbe, & Wood, 1952). Thus, potential intrinsic instrumental value is perceived by followers, which may occur in the form of kindness, emotional support, feeling good about one's self, etc. In the current research effort, followers exposed to relationship oriented leader behavior will be more willing to interact with leaders and provide voluntary upward feedback than those exposed to task oriented behavior.

Task linkage. In contrast to relationship-oriented leaders, task oriented leaders have been found to be more anti-social and serious toward followers (Bass & Dunteman, 1963). These leaders typically display a strong need for achievement with little concern for affiliation (Litwin, 1968).

According to Blau and Scott (1962), task oriented leaders, in the purest form, will likely maintain distance between themselves and followers along with the tendency to be cold and aloof toward followers. In accordance with social exchange theory, followers will act in a reciprocal manner to task oriented leaders displaying anti-social behaviors, acting in a strictly serious manner, showing little concern for affiliation, acting cold and aloof toward their leader thus shutting off communications of a voluntary nature.

As Green and Schriesheim (1977, 1980) refer to task oriented leadership as instrumental leadership, followers may find high levels of extrinsic instrumental value in providing voluntary upward feedback to task-oriented leaders (task accomplishment may lead to: bonuses, raises, promotion, etc). However, the lack of interaction and blocked communication occurring from a strictly task focuses leader prohibits such interaction from occurring. If a leader encourages a dry, structured interaction focusing only on outcomes, then followers are likely to react in a reciprocal manner often unwilling to extend personally beneficial feedback to leaders.

"High-High" linkage. Considerable research has been amassed to argue for the leader's application of a combined task and relationship behavior. Leaders with high-performance norms and concern for efficiency, coupled with concern for follower rewards have been shown to have high performing groups (Patchen, 1962). The basic premise of this research stream is that the effectiveness of leaders is greatest when they adhere to both task and relationship attitudes and behaviors.

According to Blake and Mouton (1985), leadership involves achieving a task through a high degree of shared responsibility, participation, involvement and commitment. Blake and Mouton (1985) believe the task and relationship dimensions of leader behavior are interdependent variables that provide the basis for effective leadership through both interaction with people and concerns for tasks. Based on this premise they suggest that leaders displaying high levels of adherence to both dimensions are the most effective.

This has lead to another stream of research, which has centered on displacing this "high-high" myth (Larson, Hunt & Osborn, 1976; Nystrom, 1978). This study examines the differences between followers' responses to "high-high" leader behavior in comparison to both high task-low relationship and low task-high relationship behavioral styles, in the context of attitude and intentions toward providing voluntary upward feedback. While numerous studies support one specific behavioral orientation to show higher performance, conflicting results exist. This study plans to examine each behavioral type (high task-low relationship, low task-high relationship, and "high-high") in the context of follower attitudes and intentions toward providing upward feedback to determine which behavior lends itself more readily to facilitating voluntary feedback from followers.

Based on principles of reciprocity and social exchange theory, these leaders would appeal to followers in the sense that they are receptive to feedback and willing to interact with followers thus opening the door to communication, in conjunction with providing both intrinsic and extrinsic instrumental value to followers who choose to provide voluntary upward feedback. In contrast to the relationship-oriented leader and the task-oriented leader, the "high-high" leader offers high levels of both intrinsic and extrinsic instrumental value to followers. Thus leaders displaying the "high-high" behavior may receive more voluntary upward feedback due to the high level of leader follower interaction, open lines to communication and the benefits perceived from both intrinsic values (friendliness, favors, advice, emotional support, etc.) and extrinsic (bonuses, raises, promotion, etc) values perceived by followers.

Gender differences. Differences between male and female follower reactions to the types of leader behavior may also influence the intentions of these followers in determining whether or not to provide feedback to leaders. Deaux (1976b) postulates that men show greater concern for task success while women are more likely to seek success in relationships. Also, according to Bass (1990), task-orientation has been shown to be higher among men than among women. This suggests that men will be more task-oriented while women will be more relationship-oriented. In support of this, Vinacke (1969) suggests that females are more likely to focus on maintaining harmonious relationships, where as males are more likely to focus on attaining performance.

Similarly, in an examination of behavior during communication, Case (1985) found that during interaction women displayed a more personal style of communication as opposed to men's more authoritative style. These differences between males and females may influence their preference for a specific type of leader behavior. Based on past research, females might prefer a Low Task-High Relationship leader while males may prefer a High Task-Low Relationship leader. According to this research, the "High-High" behavior would be best suited for both gender types.

Summary

The contributions of followers to the effectiveness of leaders should not go unrecognized. Through upward communications, specifically voluntary upward feedback, followers may influence leader effectiveness. The study of leadership has long recognized influence as a key factor leading to the effectiveness of leaders. Often the success of the leader is attributed solely to the influence of the leader while the role of followers goes unnoticed (Hughes, Ginnet, & Curphy, 1996; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). However, the follower may have great influence on the success of the leader (Offerman, 2004). Contrary to common perceptions, influence is not solely possessed by the leader. Influence may arise from either party in the relationship (Hughes, Ginnet, & Curphy, 1996). While the leader may assume a more eminent role within the relationship, followers may have substantial influence with both their leaders and other followers. This influence grants an imbalance of power as part of a social exchange (Homans, 1961).

Thus, according to Hollander and Offerman (1990) effective leadership is achieved through a process in which there is reciprocity and the potential for power sharing and two-way influence. The Theory of Leader Member Exchange recognizes reciprocity in exchange relationships (Graen, 1976) between leaders and followers. This study examines influence of leader behaviors on the specific exchange of voluntary feedback to leaders in an effort to determine how leader behaviors may influence exchange relationships.

This study recognizes the reciprocal nature of influence within leader-follower relations and plans to examine a specific type of leader influence on followers: the influence of leader behaviors on followers' propensity for providing voluntary upward feedback. Understanding this influence relationship is important to leaders because it may affect the reciprocal positive influence of followers provided through the provision of voluntary upward feedback. Thus it is highly important to leaders to understand what behaviors may promote increased frequency of voluntary upward feedback in order to gain valuable insight into one's own effectiveness.

This study investigates the effects of leader behavior on the attitudes of followers. The attitudes of followers are critical because they are likely to be used when processing information, forming intentions, and taking action (Boninger, Krosnick, & Berent, 1995). The ability to predict behavior from attitudes has been the topic of numerous studies (e.g., Fazio, 1989; Fazio & Zanna, 1981; Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Millar & Tesser, 1986).

Further insight into the effects of leader behaviors on the formation of follower attitudes toward leaders may be very insightful to leadership research. This effort will offer insight into this topic by examining how specific leader behaviors influence the attitudes and intentions of followers toward providing voluntary upward feedback.

Also, literature focusing on followership has suggested that different follower types exist (Kelley, 1988; 1992). Kelley (1988) provides a four-quadrant breakdown of five follower types (see Figure 2). While other groups of followers may form similar attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback effective followers should have significantly higher intention score to provide this feedback. Based on Kelley's follower types, effective followers are more likely to interact with leaders along with an increased capacity to think critically as compared to the other follower types. Based on this premise, these followers are more likely to form higher intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. This study examines this premise in an effort to advance Kelley's work along with furthering our understanding of the differences between followers.

Recognizing that leader behavior may influence the provision of voluntary upward feedback, this study intends to determine which leader behaviors (high task-low relationship, low task-high relationship, or "high-high") may result in more upward feedback from followers. This study revisits an old topic of discussion in the leadership literature and examines leader behavior in a context specific application.

Another research area important to this study is that focusing on upward feedback. Information within organizations may flow in various directions based on organizational hierarchy. Organizational communication may exist within and between all levels of the organizational hierarchy.

Of primary concern here is upward communication between followers and leaders. Upward communications occurs when individuals share information and establish a common meaning with another in a higher position in the organizational hierarchy. Facilitating upward communications within organizations can provide a challenge to a leader but in many instances is well worth the effort. Research shows that upward communications may greatly improve the effectiveness of leaders (Tourish & Robson, 2003). This study advances this research by examining the effects of leader behavior on a specific type of upward communication (voluntary upward feedback), in efforts to provide insight into reducing upward communication barriers.

The influence of feedback in general on individual performance within organizations has been the focus of many research efforts (Ashford & Tsui, 1991; Earley, Northcraft, Lee, and Lituchy, 1990; Illgen, Fisher, and Taylor, 1979; Kopelman, 1986; Larson, 1989). Upward feedback differs from other types of feedback in that it concerns only upward communications from followers to leaders. Upward feedback, according to Bernardin and Beatty (1987), concerns subordinates evaluation of their immediate leader. Research focusing on upward feedback highlights the importance of such communication within organizations and identifies the benefits of upward feedback to leaders. Researchers recognize upward feedback as an increasingly important tool for individual and organizational development (Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998; Bernardin & Beatty, 1987; London & Beatty, 1993; London, Wohlers, & Gallagher, 1990; Timmreck, 1995).

Research has shown that upward feedback can lead to increased performance (Hazucha, Hezlett, & Schneider, 1993; Heslin & Latham 2004; Smither et al., 1995; Tuckman & Oliver, 1968) and positive changes in follower perceptions (Bernardin, Hagan & Kane, 1995; Hegarty, 1974). This study will examine upward feedback outside formal settings. Here, the concern revolves around followers' willingness to volunteer feedback to leaders without solicitation from the organization. This is an extension of the upward feedback literature by following the suggestion of Tourish and Robson (2003), to further examine informal upward feedback, particularly voluntary upward feedback, within organizations stepping outside traditional research that examines primarily formal upward feedback.

Merging the research focusing on followership, attitudes, leader behavior, and upward feedback this research will address a phenomenon highly important to organizational and leader success. While there have been studies that examine aspects of this leader behavior/voluntary upward feedback phenomenon, research has yet to begin to delve into issues pertaining to the effects of leader behavior on followers propensity for providing voluntary upward feedback. This study breaks new ground by examining how followers form intentions to provide this valuable type of feedback to leaders based on leader behavior, while advancing each of the above mentioned research streams, with hope advancing and fostering new theory that may be explored and applied in a practical sense.

Based on the current literature review, it seems natural to examine these research streams in conjunction with each other. Given this, research questions addressing the study of the effects of leader behavior on followers' propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback are posited. The research questions addressed below provide a basis for this study. The following chapter will outline the methodology used to study this phenomenon.

Research Questions

- How is a follower's propensity to provide feedback influenced by specific types of leader behavior?
- Will leaders displaying high levels of both task and relationship behaviors receive more upward feedback than leaders who adhere primarily to one specific leader behavior?
- Will positive follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback lead to positive intentions to provide this feedback?
- Are effective followers more likely to provide upward feedback than other groups of followers?
- Does gender play a role in forming followers' attitudes toward specific leader behaviors?

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The forthcoming chapter provides a description of this study, which examines the impact of leader behavior upon follower attitudes and intentions toward providing voluntary upward feedback. Before discussing specific methodological issues, the application of the theory of planned behavior will be discussed. The theory of planned behavior provides a foundation for this study and justifies the study of attitudes and intentions as predecessors to behavior. Description of data collection method, establishment of validity, and the data analysis methods which were utilized will also be discussed in this chapter.

Theory of Planned Behavior

The application of the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) supports the notion that follower intentions to provide voluntary feedback should result in the actual provision of voluntary feedback (Ajzen, 1991). TPB brought forth by Ajzen (1988), is an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), which suggests that human behavior is guided by behavioral and normative beliefs (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Together these beliefs effect an individual's intention to execute behavior. Thus, intentions lead to factors that motivate individuals to act in a manner where the intention is often directly followed by behavior.

The basic assumptions of TPB are that: (1) attitudes concerning outcomes resulting from behaviors will influence behavior, (2) beliefs concerning normative expectations will influence behavior, and (3) beliefs concerning possible issues that affect behavioral control over performance will influence behavior (Figure 9). These assumptions lead to behavioral intentions, which are viewed as being direct antecedents to actual behaviors (Ajzen, 1991).

The antecedent attitude is an indication of positive or negative feelings about performing particular behaviors. In the case of voluntary upward feedback, the attitude antecedent would concern followers' feelings about providing voluntary feedback to their leader. The establishment of these attitudes is dependent upon individual beliefs concerning the consequences of behavioral performance. These consequences are then evaluated by the follower and attitudes and intentions are formed based on that evaluation.

The subjective norms of social groups also influence an individual's intention to perform or behave in a certain manner. Subjective norms are formed by individuals through their perceptions of whether or not referent others consider the behavior acceptable. With subjective norms, individuals will form either a positive or negative opinions of behavior based on the establish perceptions of what will be accepted by referent others.

The perceived behavioral control aspect of intentions concerns the ability to actually perform behavior. Perceived behavioral control is an indication of the belief one has about factors that could inhibit or foster the performance of a particular behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

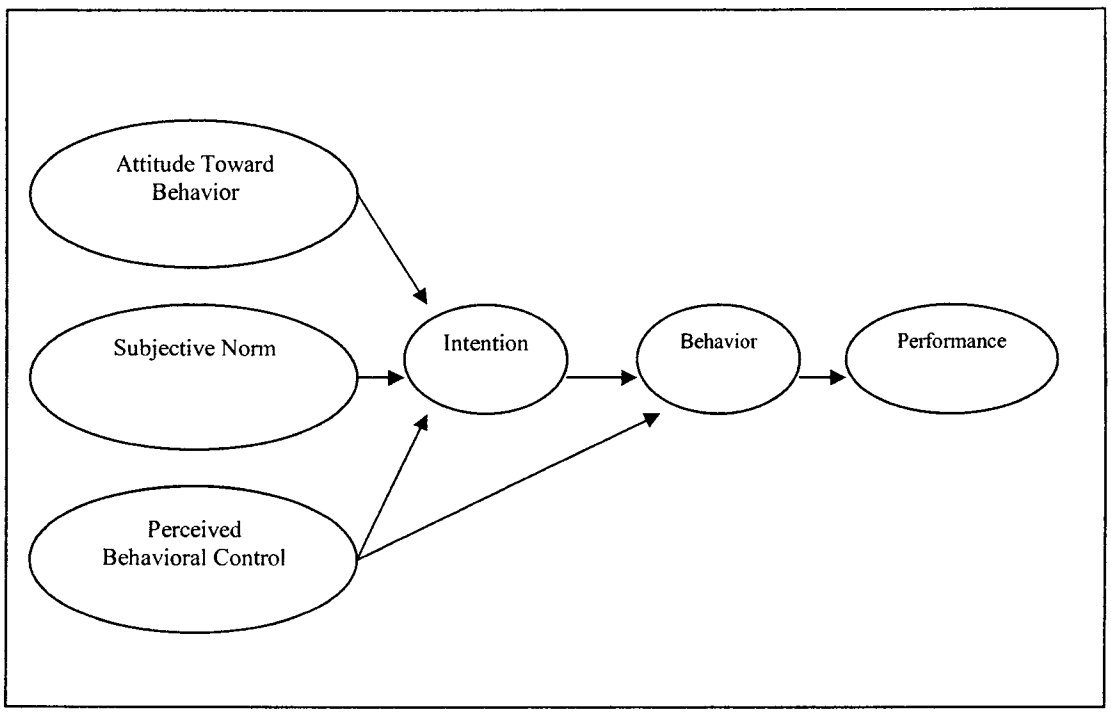
This factor is the capability an individual has to facilitate a desired behavior. These perceptions of individual ability have a direct effect on both intentions and behaviors of individuals.

The application of TPB in this study permits the assumption that the behavior of leaders will influence the behavior of followers (provision of voluntary feedback to leaders) by examining follower intentions to provide voluntary feedback. Of the three antecedents to follower intentions, this research is primarily concerned with the attitude antecedent. While subjective norms are formed by groups and perceived behavioral control pertains to control over behavior (Ajzen, 1991), it is the attitude toward providing voluntary feedback that may be highly influenced by leader behavior. The cognitive aspect of attitudes may lead to certain beliefs about behavioral outcomes while the affect aspect will lead to feelings about these outcomes (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). This study proposes that exposure to specific leader behaviors may result in variations in attitudes based on these behaviors. This suggests that the behaviors of a leader may lead to different beliefs and feelings about outcomes resulting from the provision of voluntary feedback to leaders.

The Theory of Planned Behavior has been used extensively in management research to successfully predict behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Fishbein & Stasson, 1990; Gentry & Calantone, 2002; Rei, Lang, & Welker, 2002; Van Der Zee, Bakker, & Bakker, 2002). Specifically, the feedback literature has used the theory to examine the intentions of managers to improve their behavior based on feedback from followers (Maurer & Palmer, 1999) as well as to investigate how employees respond to feedback (Fedor, 1991).

Applying TPB to this research effort allows the study of follower intentions to be examined, which may be conceptually linked to behavior. The study of actual voluntary upward feedback would provide great obstacles both temporally and financially. Application of TPB allows this research to be conducted in a more manageable fashion.

FIGURE 9
Theory of Planned Behavior



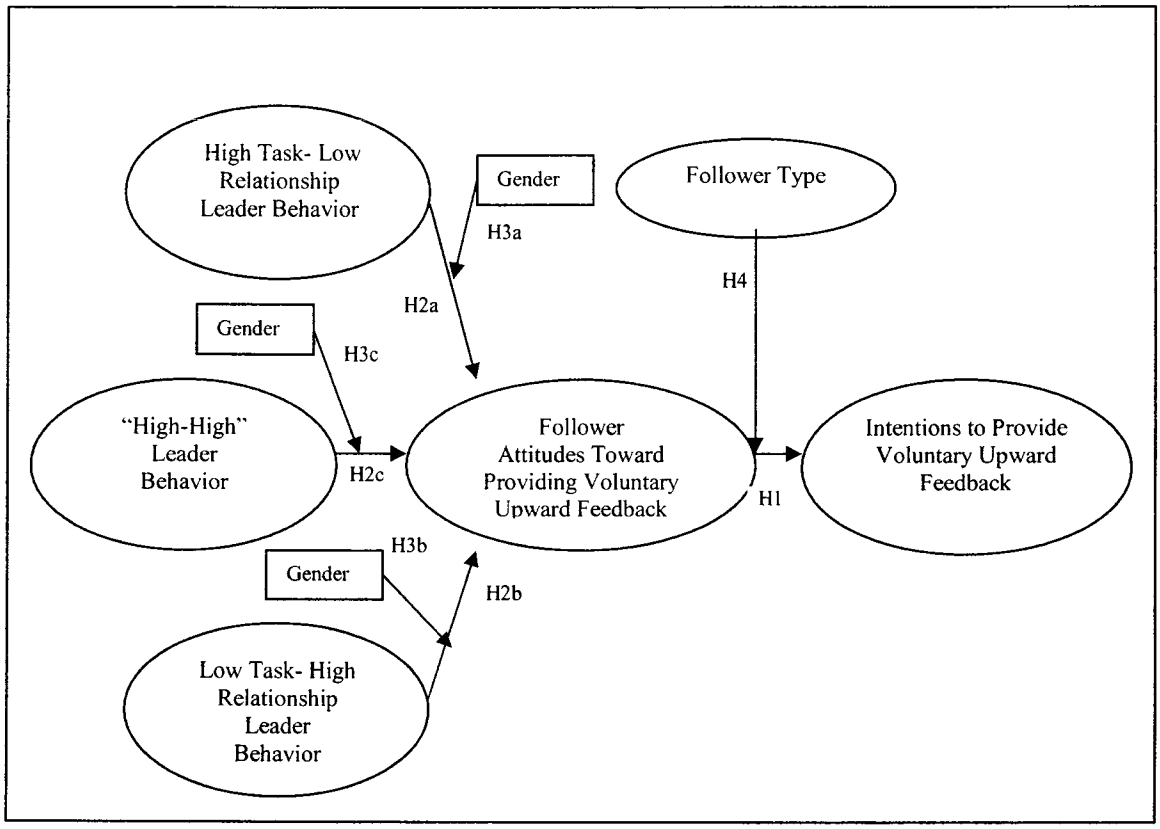
The Study

This study was performed with an experimental design which examined the effects of perceived leader behaviors on follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and actual intentions to volunteer feedback to leaders. Respondents were exposed to written descriptions identifying leaders exhibiting either high task-low relationship behaviors, low task-high relationship behaviors, or "high-high" behaviors.

Administered along with this description were sample surveys that were utilized to capture immediate responses to the treatments. The sample survey provided opportunity for participants to respond to specific leader behavior treatments along with providing perceptions of themselves and demographic data. Past research using similar scenario methodology has been utilized to examine differences in the ways that leader behavior influences followers (Deluga, 1990; Deluga, & Souza, 1991; Levy, Cober, & Miller, 2002). Leader behavior, (Task and Relationship) exhibited in the descriptions, serve as the independent variable for this study. It is important to note, at this juncture, that each respondent was exposed to only one type of leader behavior. Therefore, upon completion of survey administration, three respondent groups exist.

As previously mentioned, three descriptions were developed. These leaders were described as adhering to high task-low relationship behavior, low task-high relationship behavior or "high-high" behavior. Once respondents were exposed to a particular description, they were briefed on what voluntary feedback is and subsequently answered questions pertaining to voluntary upward feedback based on the behavior to which they were exposed. Along with the briefing of voluntary feedback, there was a similar short description of general feedback included. This was implemented in an effort to desensitize respondents to the voluntary upward feedback items. A pilot study was conducted to assess measures prior to conducting the primary study. This procedure was employed to identify any possible complications with measures as well as to assess the effectiveness of the manipulations. Figure 10 provides an overarching model of this study.

FIGURE 10
The Influence of Leader Behavior on Follower Attitudes and Intentions to Provide Voluntary Upward Feedback



Hypothesis Formulation

Linking Follower Attitudes to Intentions. After being exposed to a description depicting a leader who displays a specific leader behavior, participants answered four questions on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). This response was used to determine whether or not they had a positive attitude toward providing voluntary feedback to leaders.

Similarly, upon review of the leader description, participants also answered four questions on the same Likert type scale to determine whether or not they had positive intentions to provide voluntary feedback in that particular situation. These responses are used to assess the relationship between attitudes to provide voluntary upward feedback and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback to their respective leaders described in the treatment.

According to the theory of planned behavior, followers will form intentions to provide voluntary feedback to leaders based on their attitudes toward providing this feedback (Ajzen, 1991). These attitudes will be formed according to the specific leader behavior to which they are exposed. Upon exposure to specific leader behaviors the formed attitudes will lead to intentions to either provide or withhold voluntary feedback for leaders. This leads to hypothesis H1 stated below.

> $H1_O$: Follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback will have no significant impact on follower intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback.
> $H1_a$: Positive follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback will result in positive follower intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback.

NOTE: Appendix D provides a list of items used to measure intentions adapted from Bock et.al.'s (2005): Intentions to share knowledge ($\alpha = .93$). Appendix D also provides a list of items used to measure attitudes adapted from Taylor and Todd (1995) ($\alpha = .85$).

Leader behaviors. Descriptions of leaders exhibiting specific behaviors were provided to respondents to serve as the treatment of this research effort. These descriptions were constructed from past research efforts focusing on specific leader behaviors (Figure 7). The specific behaviors demonstrated in this study were chosen based on findings, which linked these behaviors to high leader effectiveness.

Manipulation checks of the behaviors were conducted to establish face validity of the treatments. Once the treatments were determined to be face valid, the leader behaviors were presented in the descriptions as the common behavior of a leader. These behaviors were described as a general perception of a leader, which has been established over time. The participant were informed that these are the perceptions of all coworkers of the leader as well as other followers. It is the common established behaviors that are being studied here as opposed to the way followers interact with situation specific behaviors. Based on leader behaviors, followers may form different attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback, thus leading to following hypotheses: H2a, H2b, and H2c.

> *$H2a_O$: High task-low relationship leader behavior will have no significant impact on mean attitude scores among different respondent groups.*
> *$H2a_A$: High task-low relationship leader behavior will have a significantly lower mean attitude score than other respondent groups.*

> *$H2b_O$: Low task-high relationship leader behavior will have no significant impact on mean attitude scores among different respondent groups.*
> *$H2b_A$: Low task-high relationship leader behavior will have a significantly lower mean attitude score than the "high-high" respondent group and a significantly higher mean attitude score than the high task-low relationship respondent group.*

$H2c_O$: "High-high" leader behavior will have no significant impact on mean attitude scores among different respondent groups.
$H2c_A$: "High-high" leader behavior will have a significantly higher mean attitude score than the other respondent groups.

Gender differences in preference for specific behaviors. Past research has shown differences between males and females based on their adherence to a task vs. relationship orientation (Bass, 1990; Case, 1985; Deaux,1976b; Vinacke, 1969). This research suggests that men display a greater concern for task-orientation while women are more relationship-oriented. These differences between males and females may impact their preference for a specific type of leader behavior. Based on past research, females might prefer a low task-high relationship leader while males may prefer a high task-low relationship leader. According to this research, the "high-high" behavior would be best suited for both gender types. Considering these differences in gender, hypotheses H3a, H3b, and H3c are postulated. For hypothesis H3c, based on theory, analysis should fail to reject the null $H3c_O$.

$H3a_O$: High task-low relationship leader behavior will result in no significant difference of mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among males and females.
$H3a_A$: High task-low relationship leader behavior will result in significantly higher mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among males than females.

$H3b_O$: Low task-high relationship leader behavior will result in no significant difference of mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among males and females.
$H3b_A$: Low task-high relationship leader behavior will result in significantly higher mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among females than males.

$H3c_O$: "High-high" leader behavior will result in no significant difference of mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among males and females.
$H3c_a$: "High-high" leader behavior will result in significant difference among mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback of males and females.

Follower type. Followers who are considered "effective" are those who score high on the two dimensions used by Robert Kelley (1992) to categorize followers. These followers display high levels of activity as well as critical thinking (Kelley, 1988; 1992). Because the four remaining types are deficient in either one or both of these dimensions, the effective followers will be more likely to volunteer feedback to leaders. Due to their active nature and their ability to think critically, these followers are more likely to interact with leaders (Kelley, 1992). Followers deficient in critical thinking are not as likely to formulate feedback to communicate to leaders and followers who are deficient in activity level are not as likely to pursue interaction with leaders. Thus, the type of follower may impact the relationship between attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. Hypothesis H4 is presented below.

$H4_O$: Follower type will have no significant influence on the relationship between follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and their intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback.
$H4_a$: Follower type will significantly influence the relationship between follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and their intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback.

NOTE: Appendix E provides Kelley's self report Followership Questionnaire for classifying followers based on these two dimensions reliabilities for this measure are currently unpublished.

Sample

The unit of analysis of this study was comprised of both undergraduate (juniors and seniors) and graduate business administration students with work experience. The population was gathered from three West Tennessee higher education institutions. Two of these were public universities and one was a private college.

An Institutional Review Board approved the treatments and the measures prior to administration of the surveys (Appendix J). Permission was acquired from the professors for each respective class administration. The students were informed that the completion time of the survey would be in the 15-20 minute range. The participants were not debriefed about the content of the survey in any manner prior to administration; they were merely instructed to follow the directions provided in the instrument. Participation was strictly voluntary and no incentives were provided by the survey administrator or the professor for participation.

Data collection took place over a period of 5 months. Initial data collection began in October through late November, ceased through December and early January, and was completed by mid February. The total number of responses collected was 531, of which 55 were utilized in the pilot study and 440 were employed in the primary study. This allowed for a 93% response rate. The remaining (36) responses were omitted for the following reasons:

- Respondents indicated (on the last survey question) that they had been involved in this survey administration in a previous class. (Prior to administration, respondents were asked not to participate if they had participated in a previous class.)

- Respondents indicated (on the work experience survey question) that they had not worked before. Participation in the study required respondents to relate to past work experience. If a respondent indicated no prior work experience, then that respondent could not relate to a past leader experience in a work setting therefore this response was omitted from analysis.
- Survey data was incomplete.

Demographics. Demographic information collected in the survey included the following: ethnic background, work experience, employment status, tenure in current job, industry worked in, age, gender, marital status, income level, educational background. For the complete breakdown of these variables, see Appendix I. As previously mentioned, only respondents with work experience were included in the final sample. Of the usable responses, 49% (n = 214) indicated that they were currently employed on a part time basis (part time employment = less than 40 hours per week), 31% (n = 136) indicated that they were currently employed full time (full time employment = 40 hours per week or greater), and the remaining 20% (n = 90) indicated that they were currently unemployed but had previously been employed. The respondents averaged 5-8 years work experience with an average tenure in the current job of 1-2 years.

These respondents represented no less than 8 different broad industrial categories with 54% representing the service industry category (n = 236). The sample of respondents included in the primary study consisted of 40% college graduates (n = 176), with the remaining 60% being undergraduates (n = 264) with an overall average age of 25 years.

Seventy-four percent of the respondents indicated that they were single with a current average annual income of $10,000-$20,000 for the entire population. Fifty-five percent of the respondents were males (n = 240) and 45% females (n = 200). The ethnic breakdown of the population resulted in a predominately Caucasian sample (70%: n = 310). Eighteen percent of the respondents were African American (n = 76) with the remaining 12% representing a number of other ethnic backgrounds.

Validity

Statistical conclusion validity. Statistical conclusion validity refers to the ability to make correct inferences, from our results, concerning relationships between observed variables (Cook & Campbell, 1976). Threats to this type of validity include small sample size, low scale reliability, and the use of inappropriate statistical tests. Follower attitudes and intentions toward providing voluntary upward feedback comprise the units of analysis in this study. The desired sample size of the study is calculated based on (a) Effect size, or the magnitude of findings (b) Type I error, α, or the error of rejecting the null hypothesis when it should not have been rejected, and (c) Type II error, β, or the failure to reject the null hypothesis when it should have been rejected (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Effect size will be set at .40 by conventional guidelines that detects medium differences between means. Cohen (1988) suggests that in order to be meaningful differences between group means need to be at least .40 of a standard deviation. Assuming alpha (type I error rate) .05 and power .80 (1-beta, type II error), a minimum sample size of 99 respondents per group (3) was required.

Therefore an overall target sample size of 297 (99*3) was the goal of this study in order to allow for a sufficient level of statistical power in data analysis. This target sample size, for the primary study, of n = 99 per treatment was met with the high task-low relationship treatment, low task-high relationship treatment and the "high-high" treatment having 145, 147, and 148 useable responses respectively. Effort was placed on maintaining an equal sample size for each treatment group. This was accomplished by subjecting equal amounts of each treatment to respondents during each administration through distributing the surveys in a stratified random manner. Distribution of surveys in a stratified random manner increases the level of assurance for gaining sufficient numbers, of responses per group, thus leading to statistical efficiency of the estimates (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

Reliability refers to the degree to which the items representing one construct are internally consistent (Cronbach's alpha) and contain low measurement error. Coefficient alphas for all constructs were calculated and all exceeded .70 (Hinkin, 1995) with the exception of the independent thinking dimension of the follower type scale ($\alpha = .69$). Existing reliabilities for scales of attitudes and intentions used here were $\alpha = .85$ and .93 respectively. Specific reliability analysis results are provided below.

Random assignment to treatment groups helped to ensure an approximately equal number of males and females responded to treatments in an effort to maintain statistical conclusion validity during analysis of the gender related hypotheses. Overall there were 240 usable male responses and 200 female responses.

Internal validity. Internal validity refers to the degree to which one can make correct assertions regarding the effects of the independent variable(s) on the dependent variable(s) (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Multiple measures were taken in order to ensure the internal validity of this study. These efforts will now be discussed.

The internal design of the survey provided efforts to desensitize the respondents to the target questions asked. In an effort to accomplish this, prior to answering survey questions a detailed explanation of general feedback was included along with the description of voluntary feedback. While the inclusion of a description of the voluntary feedback was necessary to ensure that the respondents could appropriately answer the target items, the general feedback description was included exclusively to direct the respondents focus toward the all types of feedback as opposed to just the type of feedback (voluntary feedback) targeted in the study. In congruence with the feedback descriptions, respondents were exposed to non-voluntary feedback items in the survey as well as voluntary feedback questions in order to maintain the respondent focus on feedback in general.

The implementation of the additional general feedback description and items added to the internal validity of the study by decreasing possible respondent bias that might have occurred if only directed toward voluntary feedback items. The additional items focusing on general feedback were merely included to reduce the threat to internal validity and were not be included in data analysis.

Along with the inclusion of desensitizing items, a pilot study was conducted to assess the internal validity of the items prior to implementation of the primary study. The pilot study was conducted with a sample of 55 undergraduate students from a private college in West Tennessee. During the pilot study respondents were exposed to the entire instrument.

Conducting a pilot study provided preliminary insight into the scales used in the survey. Respondents were allowed to provide feedback on the wording of the items; those items that they felt were confusing or uninterruptible. Respondents did not provide any feedback that led to the altering of any item. The pilot study also provided an approximate completion time that was later included in the primary study introduction. Further, preliminary inter-item reliabilities were sufficient (Nunnally, 1978). A correlation matrix was also run and revealed that all relationships among scales were in the expected direction. The pilot study results suggested that the scales were suitable for administration in the primary study.

External validity. External validity refers to the extent to which findings may be generalized across time, settings, subjects, etc. (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Threats to external validity refer to biases due to the research setting, time and subjects. In this study, students representing different organizations provide unique responses, thus promoting generalizability of the findings to a broad range of organizations and industries. This sample also represents a broad geographic population.

Students participating in the study were primarily from the southeast United States, however, many participants represented other areas of the U.S. as well an International locations. The demographic variation of the collection sites allows for greater generalizability of the findings. The largest of the institutions from which data was gathered is represented by a primarily urban population, while the next largest institution is represented by a primarily rural population , and the smallest institution (a private college) is comprised of a largely upscale population with mixed urban and rural backgrounds. The population was comprised of 176 college graduates and 264 undergraduate Juniors and Seniors which represented no less than 8 broad industry categories (Appendix I). The survey was also randomly assigned among 240 male and 200 female respondents. This allows for further increasing the generalizability to the greater workforce.

Construct validity. How accurately observed variables capture the unobservable variables is referred to as construct validity (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Construct validity is adversely affected to the extent that the obtained scores are due to the specific method used (mono-method bias, mono-operation bias). Convergent validity refers to how well maximally different methods measure one construct (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Discriminant validity refers mainly to the distinctiveness of constructs given maximally similar methods (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Evidence for convergent and discriminant validities are established in this study by performing Factor Analysis. Items loading >.40 on one factor showing no significant cross-loadings will be considered to show significant evidence for convergent and discriminant validities (Hinkin, 1995).

Manipulation checks were included in the survey in effort to establish construct validity for the treatment (independent variable: leader behavior). This ensures that the leader behaviors described in the treatments were perceived by respondents as the study intended. The respondents were exposed to the manipulation check items immediately after being exposed to the treatment (leader behavior scenario). The specific behaviors included in the treatment, which also serve as the independent variable, were obtained from Bass (1990: 472-473)(Figure 7).

These behaviors listed by Bass in effort to describe task orientation and relationship orientation are an accumulation of numerous other works cited over several decades (Anderson, 1974; Bales, 1958; Bass, 1967; Blake & Mouton, 1964; Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Cartwright & Zander, 1960; Fiedler, 1967; Fleishman, 1957; Hemphill, 1950; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Indvik, 1986; Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950; McClelland, 1961; McGregor, 1960; Misumi, 1985; Wofford, 1970). In this exercise, respondents were asked to identify to what extent the leader behaviors, to which they were exposed, adhered to specific task and relationship behaviors listed in a 10-item measure. If interpreted properly respondents exposed to high task-low relationship behaviors should score high only on the task items while respondents exposed to low task-high relationship behaviors should score high only on the relationship items. Respondents exposed to "high-high" behaviors should score high on all 10 items.

Assessment of measures

Each respondent was provided with a brief description (3 paragraphs with 3-5 sentences each) of high task-low relationship, low task-high relationship, or "high-high" behaviors in the form of a scenario. The behaviors included in each scenario were obtained from Bass (1990). The respondents then completed scale items regarding their (1) attitude towards providing voluntary feedback to the described leader, (2) intentions to provide voluntary feedback to the leader, and (3) follower type.

Reliable scales have been developed to capture both attitude towards providing voluntary upward feedback, intentions to share knowledge and follower type. Each existing scale item was adapted to fit the context of this study. However, no items existed that could be used for a manipulation check. The typical behaviors listed by Bass (1990) which used to construct the scenarios, were also used to create new manipulation check items to ensure that each respondent answered his or her questions based on one of the three types of leader behavior.

Each scale was assessed for inter-item reliability. Coefficient alphas for all constructs were calculated and exceed .70 (Nunnally, 1978). In addition, each scale was subjected to exploratory factor analysis using Principal Components Analysis based on pilot study results. Factors were retained whose eigenvalues >1.0 and items were retained with loadings > .40 in order to assess each scale's dimensionality and convergent validity (Hinkin, 1995). Based on the primary study results factor analysis, using Principal Components Analysis was conducted again to reinforce the validity of the measures. Again, factors with eigenvalues $\geq$1.0 and factors with loadings >.40 were retained.

Evidence for discriminant validity was assessed through a correlation matrix (Table 1), which was analyzed for any values close to 1.0 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The highest correlation between scales was .85 between attitudes and intentions, which can be expected based on past research (Ajzen, 1991). Further, there is an expected negative relationship between task and relationship manipulation check scales. These results suggest all constructs used in the study are distinct from one another.

TABLE 1
Correlation Matrix for Measures

Pearson Correlations

	Manip: Rel Items	Manip: Task Items	Attitude	Intention	FollShip Score	Instrmnt Val Intrin	Instrmnt Val Extrin	Opnnss to Commun
Manip Rel Items		-.51**	.50**	.45**	.04	.62**	.52**	.84**
Manip Task Items	-.51**		-.17**	-.16**	.04	-.26**	-.20**	-.40**
Attitudes	.50**	-.17**		.85**	.12*	.64**	.46**	.57**
Intentions	.45**	-.16**	.85**		.15**	.64**	.46**	.54**
FollShip Score	.04	.04	.12*	.15**		.07	-.01	.10*
Instrmntl Val Intrin	.62**	-.26**	.64**	.64**	.07		.73**	.74**
Instrmntl Val Extrin	.52**	-.20**	.46**	.46**	-.01	.73**		.58**
Opnnss to Commn	.84**	-.40**	.57**	.54**	.10*	.74**	.58**	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Manipulation Checks. During administration respondents were provided with one of three scenarios describing behaviors typical of a certain leadership style: high task-low relationship, low task- high relationship or "high-high". In order to ensure that respondents interpreted each scenario correctly, manipulation check items were included.

The behaviors included in each scenario and therefore in each manipulation check item were obtained from Bass (1990) (Figure 7). Five items were created based on Bass's typical relationship leader behaviors, as well as five items typical of task leader behaviors (1990).

Face validity was established to ensure the adequacy of the sample of items constructed to represent the universe of possible items capable of capturing relationship and task behaviors (Churchill, 1979). The ten items were shown to a 3-member panel of academicians familiar with both orientations of leader behaviors. The panel made suggestion regarding wording of the items. The items were then assessed through exploratory factor analysis using pilot study data. Exploratory factor analysis revealed strong loadings of each item onto its underlying factor with loadings exceeding .40. One task behavior item, however, had a loading of < .40. Consequently, this item was removed, leaving a 5-item and 4-item manipulation check for relationship and task behaviors, respectively. Reliabilities for relationship and task scales were .95 and .95, respectively.

Factor analysis, using primary study data, revealed a 1-factor, 5-item solution, which accounted for 78% of the variance in the relationship behavior (Appendix H). Factor loadings for each of the five items ranged from .80-.93 indicating preliminary evidence for convergent validity. The reliability of the relationship behavior manipulation check was .93, exceeding the .70 standard (Nunnally, 1978).

The task behavior manipulation check was also exposed to factor analysis, resulting in a 1-factor, 4-item scale, accounting for 81% of the variance in task behavior (Appendix H). Factor loadings ranged from .82-.94 suggesting each item converged onto its respective factor. Inter-item reliability for the task behavior scale exceeded the .70 minimum (α = .92) (Nunnally, 1978).

As mentioned earlier, the correlation of the composite scores of each of these two scales is negative. Since each of these two scales represent opposing types of behavior, this relationship is expected and provides evidence that each scenario is viewed as being distinct from the other.

Attitude toward providing voluntary upward feedback. An existing 4-item scale was adapted to capture attitude toward providing voluntary upward feedback. This scale was obtained from Taylor and Todd (1995). The authors reported a α = .85. Exploratory factor analysis using data collected in the pilot study resulted in a single factor solution with all item loadings exceeding .40. Reliability was also sufficient (α = .93). Factor analysis, using primary study data, revealed that each of the four items loaded onto one underlying factor, with loadings ranging from .85-.90, suggesting evidence for convergent validity. The four items accounted for 78% of the variance in attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback (Appendix H). The reliability for the 4-item scale exceeded Nunnally's .70 (α = .90).

Intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. Bock, et al's (2005) measure of intentions to share knowledge was adapted to capture intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. The authors reported a reliability of .93 for the 4-item measure.

Exploratory factor analysis resulted in a single factor solution, with all loadings >.40 and inter-item reliability of .95. Factor analysis, using data collected in the primary study, also revealed that each of the four items loaded onto one underlying factor, with loadings ranging from .91-.95, suggesting evidence for convergent validity. The four items accounted for 87% of the variance in intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback (Appendix H). The reliability for the 4-item scale was .95, exceeding Nunnally's .70 standard.

Follower type. Kelley's 20-item, 2-dimensional scale used to classify follower type through follower activity level and follower independent thinking was used here (1992). Respondent scores for the dimensions of activity level and independent thinking are summed to create a follower type. Kelley did not report reliability for the scale. Exploratory factor analysis revealed that the 20 items intended to capture independent thinking and activity level failed to load separately onto their respective factors. Principal Component Analysis suggested a 5-factor matrix retaining factors with eigenvalues $\geq$1.0. As a result, six independent thinking items were removed due to loadings <.40. Using Maximum Likelihood extraction method and Varimax rotation, a 2-factor solution with loadings >.40 emerged. Reliabilities were sufficient (α = .74 for independent thinking and α = .76 for activity level).

Factor analysis, using Maximum Likelihood with Varimax rotation, confirmed two distinct factors: four items tapping independent thinking and ten items tapping activity level. Both factors had eigenvalues $\geq$1.0.

The remaining four independent thinking items each had loadings exceeding .40, ranging from .47-.67 and loaded onto one underlying factor, which accounted for 37% of the variance in independent thinking. The four-item scale showed reliability (α = .69). This coefficient alpha is below Nunnally's suggested .70 standard. However, the maximum reliability was achieved through retention of these four items and could not be increased with the inclusion or deletion of other items.

Ten items were used to assess activity level, the second dimension of follower type. Factor analysis showed that each item loaded onto one underlying factor with an eigenvalue $\geq$1.0, accounting for 47% of the variance in activity level (Appendix H). Reliability for the activity level dimension is .87. Therefore, the 14-item, 2-dimensional follower type scale demonstrates sufficient evidence for reliability, as well as convergent and discriminant validities.

Supplemental Scales. Supplemental scales were included to provide analytical support for the theoretical foundation of this study as well as to provide further insight into the phenomenon of study. The supplemental scales included in the study and subjected to data analysis were as follows: Instrumental Value Extrinsic scale, Instrumental Value Intrinsic scale, and Openness to Communication scale. Analysis of each of these scales will now be discussed in their respective order.

Analysis of the Instrumental Value Extrinsic scale will now be discussed. Five items were constructed to capture a follower's perception of extrinsic instrumental value gained from providing voluntary upward feedback based on Blau's definition of extrinsic value (1964). Exploratory factor analysis using pilot study data (Principal Components

Analysis) revealed that each of the five items (loadings ranging from .75-.86) loaded onto one underlying factor, with that factor accounting for 66% of the variance in extrinsic instrumental value. Preliminary reliability was also sufficient (α = .87).

Factor analysis, using the primary study data, also provided a 1-factor solution with loadings ranging from .76-..86 suggesting that the scale has evidence for convergent validity. The five items accounted for 68% of the variance in extrinsic instrumental value (Appendix H). The scale's reliability (α = .88) is sufficient and exceeds Nunnally's .70 standard. The extrinsic instrumental value scale, therefore, demonstrates sufficient evidence for convergent and discriminant validities.

Next, the analysis of the Instrumental Value Intrinsic scale will be discussed. A five-item scale was also constructed to tap a follower's perception of intrinsic instrumental value gained from providing voluntary upward feedback based on Blau's definition (1964). Pilot study exploratory factor analysis (Principal Components Analysis) revealed a 1-factor solution (loadings ranging from .76-.90) accounting for 67% of the variance in intrinsic instrumental value. Preliminary reliability was also sufficient (α = .87).

Factor analysis, using primary study data, also provided a 1-factor solution with loadings ranging from .81-.89 suggesting that the scale has evidence for convergent validity. The five items accounted for 72% of the variance in extrinsic instrumental value (Appendix H). The scale's reliability (α = .90) is sufficient and exceeds Nunnally's .70 standard. The extrinsic instrumental value scale, therefore, demonstrates sufficient evidence for convergent and discriminant validities.

Analysis of the final supplementary scale (Openness to Communication) will now be discussed. Five items were created to capture the respondent's perception of a leader's openness to communication based on Hersey and Blanchard (1982) and Kirmeyer and Lin (1987) who suggest that openness to communication is associated with a leader's relationship orientation. Pilot study exploratory factor analysis (Principal Components Analysis) revealed a 1-factor solution (loadings ranging from .92-.96) accounting for 89% of the variance in a follower's perception of a leader's openness to communication. Preliminary reliability was also sufficient (α = .97).

Factor analysis, using primary study data, also provided a 1-factor solution with loadings ranging from .91-.94 suggesting that the scale has evidence for convergent validity. The five items accounted for 87% of the variance in respondent's perception of a leader's openness to communication (Appendix H). The scale's reliability (α = .96) is sufficient and exceeds Nunnally's .70 standard. Evidence for convergent and discriminant validities is demonstrated in the scale.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Data Analysis

Data analysis observed variations in responses to treatments provided. These responses were collected through the use of surveys, which were administered along with the treatments. All mean scores, with the exception the followership scores, are based on the following Likert type scale points 1- Strongly Disagree to 5 – Strongly Agree. Data scores for all items were reverse coded during data entry in order to coincide with hypotheses. This provides a - Low to + High scale (Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree) as opposed to the – High to + Low scale (Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree) which was reflected by the survey. The reverse coding appropriately emphasizes positive outcomes with high scores.

For hypotheses testing, one-way ANOVA was employed to test for significant differences between leader behavior treatment groups (independent variable) on the dependent variable attitudes (scores) and between followership style and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. The treatment groups of high task-low relationship, low task-high relationship, and "high-high" leader behaviors had n = 145, 148, and 147 respectively. The analysis of the manipulation checks also employed one-way ANOVA to see whether the descriptions evoked the desired mindsets of the respondents.

Two-way ANOVA was employed to test for interaction effects between gender and treatment group on attitudes. For the remaining hypothesis (H1), a linear regression analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback to determine whether higher attitude scores lead to higher scores on intentions.

For all ANOVA analysis (one-way or two-way) with more than two groups, significant differences were examined pair-wise using, the Tukey Method, to assess where the differences actually occur. Hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. With alpha at .05, the null hypothesis was rejected when the f-statistic exceeded 2.74 (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1998). Null hypothesis states that no differences exist between the three groups. Given significant f-statistics post hoc multiple comparison tests were performed. The post hoc analysis led to identification of the significant differences between leader behavior groups.

Manipulation Check Analysis

Analysis of the manipulation check items was conducted to ensure that the respondents did in fact perceive differences between the treatments (leader behavior descriptions). This analysis assesses the internal validity of the study. Respondents were exposed to one of three different leader behaviors and then asked in a short 9-item survey measure to classify these behaviors. This measure included items that described both task and leader behaviors (Appendix C).

In order to conduct analysis of the manipulation check items, three different composite scores were constructed and compared. These composite scores were computed by averaging the task items to get a task composite, averaging the relationship items to get a relationship composite, and averaging the entire scale (task and relationship) to get a composite score for the entire scale.

Once computed, each of the composite scores was analyzed using one-way ANOVA to detect significant mean differences among treatment groups. In order to demonstrate internal validity, mean scores on the appropriate scales should be reflected in the corresponding treatment group (i.e., respondents to the task treatment should score high on the task items while respondents to the relationship scales should not, the same can be said for the relationship treatment group and relationship items while the "high-high" treatment group should score higher on the composite which reflects both task and relationship scores combined) and significant differences should exist.

Results did show evidence for the internal validity of the treatments. One-way ANOVA for the relationship items reflected high mean scores for both the relationship treatment group (Mean = 4.31) and the "high-high" treatment group (Mean = 4.03) and low mean scores for the task treatment group (Mean = 2.00). Significant differences were found (F = 456.84) at the .000 level and Tukey post-hoc analysis indicated that mean scores for all treatment groups were significantly different.

Similarly, one-way ANOVA analysis for the task items reflected high mean scores for both the task treatment group (Mean = 4.30) and the "high-high" treatment group (Mean = 4.00) and low mean scores for the relationship treatment group (Mean = 2.20). Significant differences were found (F = 217.26) at the .000 level and Tukey post-hoc analysis indicated that mean scores for all treatment groups were significantly different.

The final ANOVA analysis of manipulation check items observed the composite scores for the entire measure which included both task and relationship items. One-way ANOVA analysis for this composite reflected higher mean scores for the "high-high" treatment group (Mean = 4.00) with the relationship treatment group and the task treatment group demonstrating mean scores of 3.26 and 3.11 respectively. Once again significant differences were found between respondent groups (F = 121.91) at the .000 level and Tukey post-hoc analysis indicated that mean scores for all treatment groups were significantly different.

As a secondary means to assess significant difference between treatment groups, a chi-square difference test was conducted. Results from this test showed additional support for the differences between treatment groups. With a chi-square statistic of 99.59 and 32 degrees of freedom this statistic showed significant differences among the treatments at the .000 level based on all critical values.

Hypotheses Testing Results

This section presents the findings of hypothesis testing for this study. Beginning with H1 and ending with H4, the statistical analysis method used will we discussed for each hypothesis along with the results of these analyses. Each hypothesis will be restated and discussed individually in conjunction with their coinciding analysis and findings. A discussion of the hypotheses testing results along with potential implications will be presented in the next chapter (Chapter 5).

Hypothesis H1. Hypothesis H1 addresses the impact of follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback upon follower intentions to provide this type of feedback. The following null and alternative hypothesis H1 are stated as follows:

> *$H1_O$: Follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback will have no significant impact on follower intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback.*
> *$H1_A$: Positive follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback will result in positive follower intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback.*

The testing of hypothesis H1 employed a linear regression analysis to demonstrate the relationship between attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. With an R square of .716, an adjusted R square of .715 and a Beta Coefficient of .846 (significant at the .000 level) this analysis indicated that higher attitude scores did in fact lead to higher scores on intentions, thus supporting hypothesis H1.

Hypotheses H2a-c. Hypotheses H2a – c tap the core of this study. These hypotheses address the relationship between leader behavior (independent variable) and follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback. One-way ANOVA was employed to test for significant differences in mean attitude scores between treatment groups. Beginning with hypothesis H2a, analysis and findings pertaining to each hypothesis will be discussed separately. Null and alternative hypotheses H2a are stated as follows:

Task-Oriented Leader

> *$H2a_O$: High task-low relationship leader behavior will have no significant impact on mean attitude scores among different respondent groups.*
> *$H2a_A$: High task-low relationship leader behavior will have a significantly lower mean attitude score than other respondent groups.*

One-way ANOVA was employed to test hypothesis H2a for significant differences in attitude scores of respondents exposed to the high task-low relationship leader behavior (n = 145) and the attitude scores of respondents exposed to other treatments. The null hypothesis was rejected when the f-statistic exceeded 2.74 (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1998). With the lowest mean score (mean = 3.15) of the three treatments (indicating a more negative attitude score when compared to the low task-high relationship leader behavior (mean = 4.06) and the "high-high" leader behavior (mean = 4.07)), the analysis indicated the presence of significant differences with and F-statistic of 45.157 (sig. 000) thus rejecting the null.

Further investigation through Tukey post hoc analysis indicated that respondent mean scores of the high task-low relationship treatment group did in fact differ significantly at the .000 level from both of the other treatment groups (see table 2 p. 98), thus finding *full support for hypothesis $H2a_a$.* Next, the results of hypothesis testing for H2b will be presented. Null and alternative hypotheses H2b are stated as follows:

Relationship-Oriented Leader

> *$H2b_O$: Low task-high relationship leader behavior will have no significant impact on mean attitude scores among different respondent groups.*
> *$H2b_a$: Low task-high relationship leader behavior will have a significantly lower mean attitude score than the "high-high" respondent group and a significantly higher mean attitude score that the high task-low relationship respondent group.*

One-way ANOVA was employed to test hypothesis H2b for significant differences in attitude scores of respondents exposed to the low task-high relationship leader behavior (n = 148) and the attitude scores of respondents exposed to other treatments. The null hypothesis was rejected when the f-statistic exceeded 2.74 (Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs, 1998). With a mean score of 4.06, (indicating a more positive attitude score when compared to the high task-low relationship leader behavior (mean = 3.15) and slightly more negative attitude score when compared to the "high-high" relationship leader behavior (mean = 4.07)), the analysis indicated the presence of significant differences with and F-statistic of 45.157 (sig. 000), thus rejecting the null.

Further investigation through Tukey post hoc analysis indicated that respondent mean scores of the low task-high relationship treatment group were only significantly different at the .05 level from the high task-low relationship leader behavior treatment group (see Table 2). According to this post hoc analysis, mean scores for the low task-high relationship treatment group and the "high-high" treatment groups were not significantly different, thus finding only *partial support for hypothesis H2b$_a$.*

Next, the results of hypothesis testing for H2c will be presented. Null and alternative hypotheses H2c are stated as follows:

"High-High" Leader

> *H2c$_O$: "High-high" leader behavior will have no significant impact on mean attitude scores among different respondent groups.*
> *H2c$_a$: "High-high" leader behavior will have a significantly higher mean attitude score than the other respondent groups.*

One-way ANOVA was employed to test hypothesis H2c for significant differences in attitude scores of respondents exposed to the "high-high" leader behavior (n = 147) and the attitude scores of respondents exposed to other treatments. The null hypothesis was rejected when the f-statistic exceeded 2.74 (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1998). With the highest mean score (mean = 4.07) of the three treatments (indicating a more positive attitude score when compared to the high task-low relationship leader behavior group (mean = 3.15) and slightly more positive attitude score when compared to the low task-high relationship leader behavior group (mean = 4.06)), the analysis indicated the presence of significant differences with and F-statistic of 45.157 (sig. 000), thus rejecting the null.

Further investigation through Tukey post hoc analysis indicated that respondent mean scores of the "high-high" treatment group were only significantly different at the .05 level from the high task-low relationship leader behavior treatment group (see table 2 p. 98). According to this post hoc analysis, mean scores for the "high-high" treatment group and the low task-high relationship treatment groups were not significantly different, thus finding only *partial support for hypothesis* $H2b_a$.

TABLE 2
Anova Results for H2a-c

Treatment Group	Mean Attitude Score
High Task-Low Relationship	3.15*
Low Task-High Relationship	4.06
High Task-High Relationship	4.07

F = 45.157 sig. .000
*Tukey post hoc identifies the High Task-Low Relationship group as significanltly different from both other groups. This is the only significant difference identified in the post hoc analysis.

Hypotheses H3a-c. Hypotheses H3a – H3c address the possible moderating effect of gender differences among followers on the leader behavior/follower attitude toward voluntary upward feedback relationship. Two-way ANOVA was used to analyze differences in mean attitude scores of male (n = 240) and female (n = 200) respondents for each treatment group.

This allows for the examination of the interaction effect of gender and leader behavior treatments. The null hypothesis was rejected when the f-statistic exceeded 2.74 (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1998). The F-statistic for the interaction effect of gender and leader behavior (treatment) will be reported for each of the H3 hypotheses tests below.

Beginning with hypothesis H3a, analysis and findings pertaining to each hypothesis will be discussed separately. Null and alternative hypotheses H3a are stated as follows:

> *$H3a_O$: High task-low relationship leader behavior will result in no significant difference of mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among males and females.*
>
> *$H3a_a$: High task-low relationship leader behavior will result in significantly higher mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among males than females.*

Mean attitude scores differed slightly between males (3.07) and females (3.26) within the high task-low relationship group; however, these differences were not found to be significant (F = .044: sig. 834). The interaction effect of treatment group and gender was also not found to be statistically different (F = 1.143; sig. .320))(see table 3 p.101). Therefore, results indicate no significant differences in the effect of gender based on treatment group. Additionally, a multiple regression analysis was employed to test for the moderating effect of gender. This analysis found no support for the gender moderator showing no significant change (sig. .426) for the interaction term: treatmentXgender (beta .148). These results fail to reject the null $H3a_O$, therefore hypothesis *$H3a_a$ is unsupported.*

Next, the results of hypothesis testing for H3b will be presented. Null and alternative hypotheses H3b are stated as follows:

> *$H3b_O$: Low task-high relationship leader behavior will result in no significant difference of mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among males and females.*
> *$H3b_a$: Low task-high relationship leader behavior will result in significantly higher mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among females than males.*

Similar to hypothesis H3a, mean attitude scores differed slightly between males (4.12) and females (3.98) within the low task-high relationship treatment group; however these differences were not found to be significant (F = .044: sig. 834). The interaction effect of treatment group and gender was also not found to be statistically different (F = 1.143; sig. .320))(see table 3 p.101). This analysis indicates that no significant differences exist for the effect of gender based on treatment group. These results fail to reject the null $H3b_O$, therefore hypothesis *$H3b_a$ is unsupported.*

Next the results of hypothesis testing for H3c will be presented. Null and alternative hypotheses H3c are stated as follows:

> *$H3c_O$: "High-high" leader behavior will result in no significant difference of mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback among males and females.*
> *$H3c_a$: "High-high" leader behavior will result in significant difference among mean attitude scores toward providing voluntary upward feedback of males and females.*

As with the previous two hypotheses (H3a and H3b), mean attitude scores differed very little between males (4.071) and females (4.068) for the "high-high" treatment group. This being the most minuscule difference, in mean score (.003), of all three hypothesis. Similarly, these differences were not found to be significant within the treatment group (F = .044: sig. 834). The interaction effect of treatment group and gender was also not found to be statistically different (F = 1.143; sig. .320)(see table 3 p.101). In congruence with hypotheses H3a and H3b, no significant differences in the effect of gender based on treatment group exist.

These results fail to reject the null $H3b_0$, therefore hypothesis *$H3b_a$ is unsupported.*

Note: In this instance the null is more congruent with theory as there should be no difference in mean attitude scores based on gender for the "high-high" treatment.

TABLE 3
Anova Results for H3a-c

Error!

Treatment Group	Mean Attitude Score	
	Males	Females
High Task-Low Relationship	3.07	3.26
Low Task-High Relationship	4.12	3.98
High Task-High Relationship	4.07	4.07

Gender: F = .044 sig. .834
Treatment*Gender: F = 1.143 sig. .320
No significant differences exist based on gender alone or the treatment*gender interaction

Hypothesis H4. Composite followership scores were established for each of the two critical factors of followership (independent thinking and activity level). These two composites were then combined to form an overall composite score for followership (this procedure followed Kelly's (1992) instruction on how to calculate a followership score). Followership composite scores (cfss) were then recoded based on the pre-set range (Kelly, 1992) and classified into two groups consisting of High Effectiveness Followers and the Other Follower Group containing the remainder (Kelley (1992) had a Low and Medium: For the purpose of this study they were lumped into the other category). A separate factor was created for the Followership Classification Dummy Variable (follcat), in which scores were assigned to the "Other" (n = 204) group or the "Effective" group (n = 236).

NOTE: These followership scales had no previously reported reliabilities or published analysis results.

Next the results of hypothesis testing for H4 will be presented. Null and alternative hypotheses H4 are stated as follows:

> *$H4_O$: Follower type will have no significant influence on the relationship between follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and their intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback.*
> *$H4_a$: Follower type will significantly influence the relationship between follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and their intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback.*

Hypothesis H4 addresses the possible moderating effect of followership style differences among followers on attitude toward voluntary upward feedback/intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback relationship. Multiple regression analysis was used to test for the moderating effect of follower type on the attitudes/intentions relationship. In order to test for moderation, a new interaction term was created (AttXFCat) by multiplying follower type (moderating variable) and attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback. Employing this interaction variable identifies the significance of the impact of follower type on intentions as compared to the main effect of attitudes on intentions.

Results from the multiple regression analysis suggest that followership style does not have a moderating effect on the attitudes/intentions linkage. With a beta of -.133 the interaction term AttXFCat did not show significant change (sig. .302) when compared to the main effect of attitudes on intentions. Based on this analysis *hypothesis $H4_a$ is not supported.*

Supplemental Analysis: Theory

Supplemental analysis was conducted in an effort to examine the theoretical assumptions regarding propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback of the model examining responses to three supplemental scales. Based on the premises stated in Chapter 2, followers may perceive some level of instrumental value arising from the provision of voluntary upward feedback. The following analysis assess respondents assessments of instrumentality arising from providing voluntary upward feedback as well as their perceptions of leader openness to communication based on the treatment to which they were exposed. The scales utilized to capture these follower perceptions include the following: Instrumental Value Extrinsic, Instrumental Value Intrinsic, and Openness to Communication scales. Composite scores for each scale were examined in analysis.

Instrumental value extrinsic. As stated in Chapter 2 of this dissertation, followers may perceive extrinsic instrumental value from providing voluntary upward feedback to leaders in the form of bonuses, pay raises, promotions, etc. Also, as stated in chapter two this extrinsic instrumentality is likely to be more prominent when leaders display a high level of task orientation. The following analysis examines this premise.

Analysis of the Instrumental Value Extrinsic scales employed one-way ANOVA to test for significant mean difference between treatment groups. With an F-statistic of 60.95 (sig. .000) the analysis found significant differences among mean sores at the .05 level. Tukey post hoc analysis indicated that mean scores for the high task-low relationship treatment group (2.44) were significantly lower than those of the low task-high relationship group (3.39) and the "high-high" group (3.33) (see table 4 p.108). This was the only significant difference between groups indicated in the post hoc analysis.

Counter to prior beliefs, the high task-low relationship treatment group was found to have significantly lower extrinsic instrumental value mean scores than the other two groups. The remaining two groups (low task-high relationship and "high-high") showed no statistically significant differences, between each other, in extrinsic instrumental value scores. Therefore, according to this study, followers actually perceive more extrinsic instrumental value from leaders who display low task-high relationship behavior and "high-high" behavior as opposed to a high task orientation.

Instrumental value intrinsic. Also stated in Chapter 2, followers may perceive intrinsic instrumental value from providing voluntary upward feedback to leaders. This value may be realized in the form of actions such as friendliness, favors, advice, emotional support, among other things. As stated in chapter two this intrinsic instrumentality is likely to be more prominent when leaders display a high level of relationship orientation. The following analysis examines this premise.

The Instrumental Value Intrinsic scales were also analyzed using one-way ANOVA to test for significant mean difference between treatment groups. With an F-statistic of 96.36 (sig. .000) the analysis found significant differences among mean sores at the .05 level. Tukey post hoc analysis indicated that mean scores for the high task-low relationship treatment group (2.73) were significantly lower than those of the low task-high relationship group (3.87) and the "high-high" group (3.85) (see table 4 p.108). This was the only significant difference between groups indicated in the post hoc analysis.

In congruence with prior beliefs, the treatment groups which conveyed a leader who displayed a high level of relationship oriented behavior was found to have significantly higher mean intrinsic value scores than those who did not. The low task-high relationship and "high-high" treatment groups showed no statistically significant differences in intrinsic instrumental value score. However both did significantly differ from the high task-low relationship treatment group. Therefore, according to this study, followers actually perceived more intrinsic instrumental value from leaders who display low task-high relationship behavior and "high-high" behavior as opposed to a high task orientation.

Openness to communication. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982) and Kirmeyer and Lin (1987) relationship behavior provides the initial criteria for opening the door to communication. Therefore, leaders who display a high level of relationship orientation should score higher on openness scales than leaders who do not display high levels of relationship oriented behaviors. The following analysis examines this premise.

One-way ANOVA was used to test for significant mean difference between treatment groups responding to the Openness to Communication scales. With an F-statistic of 308.01 (sig. .000) the analysis found significant differences among mean sores at the .05 level. Tukey post hoc analysis indicated that mean scores for the high task-low relationship treatment group (2.16) were significantly lower than those of the low task-high relationship group (4.24) and the "high-high" group (4.24) (see table 4 p.108). This was the only significant difference between groups indicated in the post hoc analysis.

In congruence with prior beliefs, the treatment groups which conveyed a leader who displayed a high level of relationship oriented behavior was found to have significantly higher mean openness to communication scores than those who did not. The low task-high relationship and "high-high" treatment groups showed no statistically significant differences in openness to communication score. However both did significantly differ from the high task-low relationship treatment group. Therefore, according to this study, followers perceive leaders who display high levels of relationship orientation to be more open to communicating than leader who do not display high levels of relationship orientation.

Another finding to be taken away from these supplemental analyses is that for each instrumental value scale as well as the openness to communication scale no significant differences existed between the low task-high relationship and the "high-high" treatment groups. Therefore, the addition of high task oriented behavior to already high relationship oriented behavior will not significantly change followers perceptions of instrumental value to be gained from providing voluntary upward feedback or their perceptions of a leaders willingness to communicate.

TABLE 4
Anova Results for Supplemental Analysis: Theory

Treatment Group	Mean Score IVE	IVI	OCC
High Task-Low Relationship	2.44*	2.73*	2.16*
Low Task-High Relationship	3.39	3.87	4.24
High Task-High Relationship	3.33	3.85	4.24
F-Statistic	60.95	96.36	308.01
Sig.	.000	.000	.000

*Tukey post hoc identifies the High Task-Low Relationship group as significantly different from both other groups. This is the only significant difference identified in the post hoc analysis.

Supplemental Analysis: Demographic

Work Experience. Supplemental analysis also examined mean attitude scores based on work experience differences among respondents for each treatment group. Two-way ANOVA was used to analyze differences in mean attitude scores of respondents indicating less than 5 years of total work experience (n = 219) and respondents indicating 5 or more years of total work experience (n = 221) within and between each treatment group. This allows for the examination of the interaction effect of work experience and leader behavior treatments. The null hypothesis was rejected when the f-statistic exceeded 2.74 (Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs, 1998).

In order to conduct this analysis an additional Work Experience variable was created. Dummy Variables were created for the Work Experience factor. This was done based on the self-reports of respondents indicating years of work experience. The average work experience for respondents was 5-8 years, thus providing a mid-point break range of 5 years working experience. Work experience was then divided into two categories: less than 5 years (N = 219) and 5 years or greater (N = 221). Splitting the data at this point (5 years of experience) allows for each of the two groups to obtain similar size with N's of 219 and 221 respectively. Responses indicating less than 5 years experience was coded as a 1 and those indicating 5 years or greater were coded as a 2.

Two-way ANOVA results indicated that significant differences in mean attitude scores were present for the work experience * treatment interaction (F = 4.041; sig. .018) but that work experience alone did not produce any significant differences (F = .051; sig. .822) in mean scores. These results (see table 5 p.110) indicate differences in attitudes among treatment groups based on attitudes. Therefore based on this analysis leaders might address differences in work experience when attempting to promote more voluntary upward feedback.

TABLE 5
Anova Results for Work Experience

Treatment Group	Mean Attitude Score	
	> 5 yr.	< 5 yr.
High Task-Low Relationship	3.18	3.12
Low Task-High Relationship	4.21	3.90
High Task-High Relationship	3.91	4.21

Work Experience F = .051 sig. .822
Treatment*Work Experience Interaction F = 4.041 sig. .018
Significant differences exist based on the treatment*work experience interaction

Education level. An examination of mean attitude scores of respondent education level for each treatment group was also included in analysis. Two-way ANOVA was used to analyze differences in mean attitude scores of college graduate respondents (n = 176) and undergraduate respondents (n = 264) within and between each treatment group. This allows for the examination of the interaction effect of education level and leader behavior treatments. The null hypothesis was rejected when the f-statistic exceeded 2.74 (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1998).

An additional Education variable was created for this analysis. Dummy Variables were created for the additional Education factor were assigned to two groups: undergraduate (1) and college graduate (2). Two-way ANOVA results indicated that significant differences in mean scores were not present for the education level * treatment interaction (F = 1.63; sig. .198).

However, education level alone did produce significant differences (F = 5.26; sig. .022) in mean scores (see table 6 p.111). Therefore, these results suggest that education level may influence the propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback and that these differences produced by education level are relatively stable per treatment group.

TABLE 6
Anova Results for Education

Treatment Group	Mean Attitude Score	
	Under Graduates	Graduates
High Task-Low Relationship	3.29	2.94
Low Task-High Relationship	4.17	3.88
High Task-High Relationship	4.06	4.08

Education F = 5.258 sig. .022
Treatment*Education Interaction F = 1.628 sig. .198
Significant differences exist based on education main effect.

Supplemental Analysis: Attitudes/Intentions

The following analysis examines the strength of the relationship between attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback on a per group basis. This analysis is conducted to examine possible differences in the attitudes/intentions relationship based on treatment group.

This analysis employs linear regression for the attitudes/intensions relationship for each treatment to examine differences in the strength of the relationship based on leader behavior. Results of the analysis found little difference in the strength of this

relationship between treatment groups. Table 7 provides the results of this statistical analysis.

TABLE 7
Regression Results Attitudes/Intentions
Per Treatment Group

Treatment Group	Attitudes/Intentions	
	R Sq.	Beta
High Task-Low Relationship	.615	.784
Low Task-High Relationship	.758	.871
High Task-High Relationship	.673	.821

Each regression analysis shows a strong relationship between attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback with little change between groups.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Overall, the results of this research find support for the general premise that leader behavior can influence follower propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback. These findings provide the first empirical linkage between specific leader behaviors and the potentially valuable feedback provided voluntarily by followers to leaders. The following discussion will address the specific findings of this research and provide implications to practice. Following this discussion, the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research will be addressed followed by the conclusion of this dissertation.

Discussion and Implications

Beginning with hypothesis H1, results in this study are congruent with past findings (Ajzen, 1991) which indicate that attitudes lead to intentions. As hypothesized, positive follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback were found to lead to positive intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback (R-square .715; Beta .846). Based on the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), these intentions to provide voluntary feedback are strongly linked to the actual provision of voluntary upward feedback. Therefore, it may be assumed that higher intention scores would likely result in the actual provision of voluntary upward feedback.

Based on this assumption, findings indicate that followers exposed to "high-high" behaviors and low task-high relationship leader behaviors are more likely to provide voluntary upward feedback to leaders than followers exposed to high task-low relationship behaviors (respective mean attitude scores were 4.07, 4.06, and 3.15; respective mean intentions scores were 4.03, 4.00, and 3.14; the significance of these differences will be discussed later in this section). Implications of this finding suggest that leaders who are able to promote a greater positive attitude toward providing voluntary upward feedback among followers will also promote greater intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. Ultimately, through increased positive follower attitudes and intentions toward providing voluntary upward feedback, leaders may promote an increased volume of voluntary upward feedback, thus exposing the leader to greater knowledge and understanding of the leadership situation from the follower's perspective.

The next set of hypotheses H2a-c examine the significant differences in followers attitude scores between treatment groups. As hypothesized, significant differences were found between treatment group attitude score responses. However, all groups were not found to be significantly different. The high task-low relationship treatment group attitude scores were found to be significantly different from the other two treatment groups (low task-high relationship, "high-high" groups) whereas, these remaining groups were not found to be significantly different from each other.

Since hypothesis H2a is found to be fully supported, with significantly lower attitude scores among the high task-low relationship treatment group (mean 3.15), this shows support for the theoretical assumption that leaders exhibiting this type of behavior are potentially closing down lines to communication. Whereas leaders with a high-relationship orientation would appear to be open to communicating with followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987), leaders exhibiting only a high-task orientation would not. Supplemental analysis provides evidence of this through examining a set of questions pertaining to followers' perceptions of leaders openness to communication. Findings from this analysis show that the high task-low relationship leader received significantly lower openness to communication scores (mean 2.16) than leaders exhibiting either low task-high relationship (mean 4.24) or "high-high" (mean 4.24) which were not significantly different from each other.

While hypothesis H2a was found to be fully supported, the remaining hypotheses H2b&c were only partially supported due to the fact that significant differences were not found between the low task-high relationship treatment group and the "high-high" treatment group. Where the theoretical premise of this research postulated that the "high-high" leader would promote higher attitude scores among followers than the low task-high relationship leader, results showed no significant difference. This finding contradicts the previously stated theoretical postulation that the addition of high task concern to existing high relationship concern would promote more positive follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback due to added extrinsic instrumental value.

Findings from supplemental analysis of instrumental value scales indicate that followers perceive the task oriented leader to provide the lowest possibility of instrumental gain (both intrinsic and extrinsic) of all three leaders. These finding indicate that the task treatment group scores on instrumental value items (both intrinsic and extrinsic) are significantly lower than the other treatment groups, with still no significant differences between relationship and "High-High" treatment groups.

Similar to the results of this study, a number of other research efforts have found a lack of evidence for the "High-High" leader and the one best way approach (Andrews &d Farris, 1967; Lundquist, 1957; MacKinney, Kavanagh, Wolins, & Rapparlie, 1970; Weitz & Nuckols, 1953). Reasoning for the conflicting results, in this study, may be found in the supplemental analysis of measures. Based on the findings resulting from hypothesis testing, supplemental analysis was conducted to examine score differences based on demographic variation in respondents between treatment groups. Supplemental analysis examined both educational differences and differences in work experience of respondents. Findings from these analyses resulted in no significant differences in attitude scores for education level, however, the analysis of the work experience variable did in fact show significant differences in responses between treatment groups.

In this analysis, respondents were divided into two groups. Group one consisted of respondents with less than 5 years total work experience (n = 219) while the group two was comprised of respondents with total work experience equaling 5 years or greater (n = 221). Mean attitude scores of these two groups were found to be significantly higher among followers with greater than 5 years total work experience when exposed to the "High-High" treatment.

This suggests that level of work experience may influence followers' propensity to provide feedback to leaders exhibiting specific behaviors. Thus, as a follower becomes more experienced he or she would be more likely to provide voluntary upward feedback to leaders exhibiting "high-high" behaviors than leaders exhibiting high task-low relationship behavior or low task-high relationship behavior.

Implications from the findings of hypotheses H2a-c would encourage leaders who seek voluntary upward feedback from followers to display a high degree of relationship orientation. Also, based on the current study, when dealing with followers who have been working for 5 years or greater, leaders should emphasize specific task behaviors along with a high degree of relationship orientation in order to promote the maximum voluntary feedback from this group. By addressing issues such as these and altering behaviors in a manner that is conducive to the facilitation of voluntary upward feedback from followers, leaders may link themselves to valuable information that may be critical to the overall success of the leader as well as the organization.

Hypotheses H3a-c postulated that significant differences in attitude scores would exist between genders for each of the three treatment groups. These hypotheses were based on the premise that men are more task-oriented and women are more relationship-oriented (Bass, 1990; Vinacke, 1969). Results from this set of hypotheses, however, indicated that significant differences, between attitude scores, did not exist for any of the treatments based on gender. This finding would be expected for hypothesis H3c since respondents were exposed to both high levels of task and relationship behavior therefore both males (n = 240) and females (n = 200) should be comfortable with the "High-High" leader behavior. However, these findings are contradictory to hypotheses H3a and H3b.

While these hypotheses are based on past research that focuses on differences between gender, these findings suggest that followers do not necessarily assimilate themselves with like leaders. When pondering the idea of providing voluntary upward feedback followers may consider other factors that are more important than similarity between follower-orientation and leader-orientation (task vs. relationship). Research focusing on communication between leaders and followers has focused on leader characteristics such as being trustworthy, consistent, responsible, and interested that lead to follower perceptions of a credible leader (Klauss & Bass, 1982; St. John, 1983). Findings of the present research suggest that leader-follower likeness is not a key factor driving follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback.

Based on the findings from the testing of hypothesis H3a-c, leaders should not be concerned with adjusting behavior to address gender differences between followers. Rather, leaders should focus on other possible characteristics that promote leader credibility such as being consistent, trustworthy, responsible, and interested. Understanding these factors may lead to a greater amount of voluntary upward feedback for leaders.

The final hypothesis (H4) postulated in this research addresses the moderating effect of follower type on the attitudes/intentions relationship. Follower type was based on two groups: effective followers (n = 236) and other followers (n = 204). The basic premise of this hypothesis suggests that differences in followers will significantly alter the relationship between follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback.

Results of statistical analysis of hypothesis H4 did not support this premise finding no significant change in the attitude/intentions relationship when introducing a follower type interaction variable. Implications from these findings suggest that the relationship between attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback and intentions to provide the feedback will not change based on follower type therefore leaders should not be concerned with changing the strength of this relationship based on follower differences in level of independent thinking and activity.

Limitations

While this study has taken a significant step toward understanding the impacts of leader behavior on followers' propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback, it is not without limitations. Beginning with the sample population from which respondents were selected, limitations arise pertaining to external validity. While, as mentioned earlier, using a student sample might add to the generalilzability of the findings by examining a broad range of companies, industries, and leader follower situations, in some instances this type of sample may lower external validity. The student sample consisted primarily of all business students which limits the study to the only the exposure of this student population. The use of students also poses a limitation due to a lack of work experience and a low average age (25 years), which may represent only the lower end of the greater population of the global workforce. The absence of an actual work setting may also pose a limitation to the study by relaxing respondents' reactions to an actual work environment.

The treatment requested the respondents to mentally place themselves in a former work setting; however, this relies only upon memory and may be subjected to certain bias or omission of facts than may arise when testing in an actual work environment. Another limitation of the study pertaining to the sample is the absence of random selection of participants. While the instrument was randomly distributed to the population, limits on the total number of respondents available did not permit for random selection among the population. The survey was only administered to classes in permission was granted therefore every student in each class was asked to participate in order to attain a large enough sample for statistical conclusion validity.

Another limitation of this study regards internal validity. One aspect of this study that was not addressed by this study was the possibility of additional factors which might cause variance in attitude scores. Causal variables such as organizational culture, job satisfaction, or other individual/organizational characteristics were not included in this study. Omitting factors such as these may inhibit greater understanding of the phenomenon of study.

The exclusive use self-report measures provide another limitation to this study. Self-report measures were used in this study to describe follower attitudes and followership style, which pose limitations to this study. Self-reports can provide highly valuable information to researchers however, sometimes may be subject to bias by the respondent. If used in conjunction with assessment by others (superiors, subordinates, coworkers) a more accurate assessment may be obtained.

Next, the independent thinking dimension of follower type had a reliability of .69 which is below Nunnally's suggested .70 standard. However, the maximum reliability was achieved through retention of these four items and could not be increased with the inclusion or deletion of other items.

A final limitation to this study arises from the application of the Theory of Planned Behavior which assumes that intentions will lead to behaviors as opposed to actually studying follower behaviors. Due to temporal, physical, and financial constraints this study applies the Theory of Planned Behavior in lieu of actually observing the provision of voluntary upward feedback. This theory is applied here based on numerous management studies, which show that intentions to perform a behavior will actually lead to that behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Fishbein & Stasson, 1990; Gentry & Calantone, 2002; Rei, Lang, & Welker, 2002; Van Der Zee, Bakker, & Bakker, 2002). In the event that these temporal, physical, and financial constraints were not present, study of the actual provision of voluntary upward feedback would provide greater knowledge of this phenomeon.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future research into the effects of leader behavior on followers' propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback might begin by examining factor pertaining to the hypotheses that were either unsupported or partially supported in this study. Attempting to further understand areas that might determine differences or similarities between the low task-high relationship leader behavior and the "high-high" behavior.

Further exploration of the work experience demographics with an increased range sample might allow further exploration into these possible differences. Also and exploration of the factors other than gender for explaining variance in attitude responses, would provide an important area for future research. Understanding how leader trustworthiness, consistency, responsibility, and interest, among other factors, may promote more positive attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback may prove to be highly valuable to research concerning this phenomenon.

The limitations to the existing research also provide areas for future research based on this study. Conducting this study in an organizational setting would allow potential for increasing the average age and work experience of respondents thus adding to the generalizability of the research. This also would provide a venue for potentially assessing the actual provision of voluntary upward feedback to leaders in lieu of studying only intentions to do so. Actual follower attitude change as a result of leader behavior alterations might also be studied in such a setting.

Examining additional causal variables of attitudes such as organizational culture, job satisfaction, or other individual/organizational characteristics in conjunction with what we already know could greatly improve our overall knowledge of this phenomenon and increase our understanding of what affects a followers' decision to provide voluntary upward feedback. Similarly gaining additional insight beyond self-report measure may allow for a more accurate assessment of follower style and follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback.

Areas outside the scope of this study which might add to our understanding of this phenomenon will now be discussed as possibilities for future research. Understanding how leader behavior influences followers' propensity to provide voluntary feedback is a complex task. Additional research in this area may be conducted using this study as a basis. Future research may examine the following areas to provide greater insight into this phenomenon: (1) Further exploration of follower characteristics, (2) Further exploration of gender influence, (3) Type of feedback provided, (4) Situational variables, and (5) Other leader behaviors. To expand on these areas of future research, each will be discussed in more detail.

Further insight into the role follower characteristics will provide more thorough understanding of the factors that lead to the development of positive attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback. Specific insight into constructs such as follower propensity for risk taking, self efficacy, trust in the leader as well as observable variables such as tenure will allow both researchers and practitioners to ascertain information that leads to the provision of more voluntary feedback from followers.

As well as studying the influence of follower characteristics, future research may further investigate to influence of gender as a moderator. Research may examine the effects of gender likeness between followers and leaders on follower attitudes toward providing voluntary upward feedback based on specific leader behaviors. Similarity of gender may have an impact on the amount of voluntary upward feedback provided by followers.

Understanding how the nature of feedback, whether positive or negative, influences followers' attitudes toward providing voluntary feedback may provide great insight into the phenomenon as a whole. Research suggests that individuals are reluctant to provide negative feedback (Fisher, 1979). This reluctance may be inflated for followers due to the superior nature of the leader follower relationship. Thus, as the information to be provided to leaders is seen as negative, followers may form negative attitudes and intentions toward providing voluntary upward feedback.

Specific situational variables may be introduced into this research to better assess when or during what situations voluntary upward feedback will most likely occur or not occur. For instance, some organizational structures or cultures may foster greater amounts of voluntary upward feedback due to reduced structural barriers to leader follower interaction. Also, voluntary upward feedback may occur more readily as the urgency of the situation increases. When follower find their own interests in jeopardy they may become more likely to volunteer upward feedback.

Finally, research may look into the effects of other leader behaviors on follower attitudes and intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. Research may examine the effects of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors, among other things, in efforts to determine what styles may be the most susceptible to facilitating this type of feedback within organizations. Future research in this area would allow researchers to gain insight into an area highly important to leaders, which may ultimately determine their failure or success within organizations.

Conclusion

The phenomenon of particular interest here is the volunteering of feedback to leaders to make them aware of potential damaging situations so that they may be avoided. The valuable information gained from feedback may allow leaders to assess their own situation so that proper adjustments may be made to keep things on track. The goal of this study was to identify particular behaviors of leaders that might promote greater amounts of voluntary upward feedback so that leaders may "stay awake at the wheel".

Findings of this study indicate that leaders that emphasize and promote relationships between themselves and followers will increase followers' propensity to provide voluntary upward feedback. Also, as hypothesized leaders who are focused entirely on task accomplishment are the least likely to receive voluntary upward feedback. Along with these findings, this study also addresses differences between followers as a potential moderator of intentions to provide voluntary upward feedback. According to the findings of this study the effective followers are more likely to provide voluntary upward feedback. Leaders who are able to recognize the followers who obtain the characteristics of effective followers may place efforts toward encouraging these followers to provide voluntary upward feedback.

Recognizing that leaders possess the ability to change their own behaviors, this research has identified behaviors that potentially lead to positive perceptions among followers. Through monitoring their behavior, leaders may create positive perceptions that promote greater amounts of voluntary feedback from followers. This type of feedback should increase the overall effectiveness of the leader as well as the work group that he or she leads.

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APPENDICES

Measures used in this study are included in the following appendices. The items included are the actual items that were presented to respondents. Descriptive headings pertaining to items and behavior categories, along with reported reliabilities are included in the appendices for ease of reference by the reader. This information was not included on the administered survey. Only response instructions and items were included in the survey administration.

Appendix A: Informed consent and general instructions provided to respondents

Informed Consent

Your responses to the following questions will be used in research. Your responses will be anonymous. Therefore, any responses you provide will be held confidentially. You must be over the age of 18 to complete this survey. The survey will take approximately 15-30 minutes to complete. Participation is voluntary; refusal to participate will involve no penalty. You may also discontinue participation at any time without penalty. Any questions you may have regarding this instrument may be directed to Brandon Kilburn. Any questions regarding the research subjects' rights, the Chair of the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects should be contacted at 678-2533.

Survey

You will now be provided with a brief description followed by a two-part questionnaire. Upon your review of the description provided, you will then be asked to complete the survey.

Appendix B: Treatments

Treatment A1: Task Oriented Leader

Instructions: The following description depicts a leader who displays a specific set of leader behaviors. Imagine this leader as being one, in your most recent work setting, who you routinely work in close proximity with. This description identifies the behaviors consistently displayed by a leader during a typical workday and is a common perception of all respective followers. Please read the following description of the leader and answer the questions that follow.

This leader has a strong concern to achieve goals, of which are often the topic of discussion initiated by the leader. This person constantly talks about and emphasizes goal setting on an individual as well as group basis. As well as emphasizing goal setting, this leader focuses heavily on goal achievement and how well the work unit is doing. There is constant monitoring of followers achievement as well as work group achievement. The typical response to this monitoring would emphasize the need for achievement by followers and the work group.

In efforts to achieve goals, this leader focuses highly on production. When this leader is not emphasizing goals, there is high emphasis on production. The leader shows a high level of concern for production and facilitating work to promote high levels of production.

In facilitating work, the leader focuses on structuring work and defining roles of workers. These work-fostering activities are coupled with very tight and controlling supervision in efforts to maintain operations.

With such a strong concern for goal achievement, this leader does not spend time focusing on pursing or maintaining relationships with followers. The leader shows little emphasis on employees or need for affiliation with employees. Typically interaction with followers only occurs when an issue arises concerning production. Overall, this leader has a work focus rather than a people focus.

Treatment A2: Relationship Oriented Leader

Instructions: The following description depicts a leader who displays a specific set of leader behaviors. Imagine this leader as being one, in your most recent work setting, who you routinely work in close proximity with. This description identifies the behaviors consistently displayed by a leader during a typical workday and is a common perception of all respective followers. Please read the following description of the leader and answer the questions that follow.

This leader has a strong concern to pursue relationships and expresses a need for affiliation with followers. Relationship building activities are frequently initiated by this person. This person constantly talks about relationship maintenance on an individual as well as group basis. As well as emphasizing relationship maintenance, this leader focuses heavily on facilitating interaction with followers.

The leader shows interest in followers and appears to enjoy interacting with followers regularly. This leader has been described as interaction oriented and tends to work on establishing both social and emotional bonds with followers.

In efforts to maintain or build relationships, this leader shows a high concern for people and emphasis on followers. This leader is well known for providing support to followers when needed. Visible effort is also exerted by the leader in building trust with followers to strengthen relationships. These relationship-nurturing activities are coupled with very loose supervision in efforts to promote leader-follower bonds.

With such a strong concern for relationships, this leader spends little time focusing on production or goals. The leader places little emphasis on task accomplishment or need for personal achievement. Typically accomplishment issues only arise when they concern promoting followers. Overall, this leader is people driven rather than production driven.

Treatment A3: "High-High" Leader

Instructions: The following description depicts a leader who displays a specific set of leader behaviors. Imagine this leader as being one, in your most recent work setting, who you routinely work in close proximity with. This description identifies the behaviors consistently displayed by a leader during a typical workday and is a common perception of all respective followers. Please read the following description of the leader and answer the questions that follow.

This leader has a strong concern to achieve goals as well as pursue relationships. Relationship building activities are frequently initiated by this person along with a heavy emphasis on goal setting. This individual is constantly monitoring achievement of followers in conjunction with monitoring relationships. This leader is equally concerned with the pursuit of goals and the pursuit of relationships.

The leader welcomes interaction with followers in efforts to achieve goal effectiveness and to strengthen relationships. Recognizing that followers are the means to achievement this leader strives for interaction with followers to provide support as well as structure to the work setting. This individual equally initiates social and emotional bonds with followers as well as to facilitate work.

In efforts to maintain a balance between relationship maintenance and production, this leader focuses on people and production simultaneously. In doing so, there is a balance between attention focused on goals and focus on people. It is the desire of this leader to accomplish goals without sacrificing relationships. This leader has equal concern for the organization and the people in it.

This leader, through a moderate level of supervision, trying not to be too controlling on followers but not to be too lax on production, commonly shows mutual concern for followers and goals. Overall, this leader consistently shows a high concern for the task while simultaneously showing high concern for relationships.

Appendix C: Manipulation Checks

Instructions: Please indicate your answer by marking the appropriate number

Question: To what extent does this leader exhibit the following behaviors?

	Very Much				Very Little
1. Need for belonging to social groups	1	2	3	4	5
2. Strong concern to achieve production goals	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sense of trust and loose supervision	1	2	3	4	5
4. Need for organizational goal achievement	1	2	3	4	5
5. Focuses on employees	1	2	3	4	5
6. Facilitates and promotes work	1	2	3	4	5
7. Tendency to establish social and emotional ties	1	2	3	4	5
8. Concern for people	1	2	3	4	5
9. Production oriented	1	2	3	4	5

Task Items: 2, 4, 6, 9
(Items developed for this study, $\alpha = .92$)

Relationship Items: 1, 3, 5, 7, 8
(Items developed for this study, $\alpha = .93$)

Appendix D: Feedback Items

Instructions: Please indicate your answer by marking the appropriate number

The following questions address feedback to leaders. Feedback may occur both in a structured or voluntary form. Structured feedback is done through a formalized rating system in which the follower does not address the leader personally. Voluntary feedback is a voluntary communication process in which a follower conveys information to a leader, concerning that leader's action. Voluntary feedback occurs informally without solicitation from the leader and sharing of information is provided exclusively at the follower's discretion.

Items for Attitudes

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
Providing voluntary feedback to this leader would be a good idea	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteering feedback to this leader would be a wise idea.	1	2	3	4	5
I like the idea of providing voluntary feedback to this leader	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteering feedback to this leader would be a good thing.	1	2	3	4	5

(Adapted from: Taylor & Todd, 1995, $\alpha = .85$)
(Current study, $\alpha = .90$)

Items for Intentions

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
I would provide voluntary feedback to this leader.	1	2	3	4	5
This leader would receive voluntary feedback from me.	1	2	3	4	5
It is highly likely that I would volunteer feedback to this leader.	1	2	3	4	5
I would try to share voluntary feedback with this leader.	1	2	3	4	5

(Adapted from: Bock et.al. 2005, $\alpha = .93$)
(Current study, $\alpha = .95$)

Items used to desensitize respondents to voluntary feedback questions

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
I would discuss aspects of this leader's performance with co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
It is highly likely that I would approach co-workers with comments about this leaders performance.	1	2	3	4	5
I like the idea of a structured rating system for providing feedback about this leader.	1	2	3	4	5
I would provide feedback to this leader through a formal ratings system.	1	2	3	4	5

Additional Comments:

Appendix E: Followership Scale

Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (Kelley, 1992, α = not previously reported)

Instructions: For each statement, please use the scale below to indicate the extent to which the statement describes you. Think of a specific but typical followership situation and how you acted.

Rarely			Occasionally			Almost Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

___1. Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?

___2. Are your personal work goals aligned with the organization's priority goals?

___3. Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?

___4. Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your co-workers?

___5. Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most critical for achieving the organizations priority goals?

___6. Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?

___7. When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the leader?

___8. Can the leader give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your deadline with highest-quality work and that you will "fill in the cracks" if need be?

___9. Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?

___10. When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?

___11. Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader's or the organization's goals?

___12. Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the leader to do it for you?

___13. Do you help out other co-workers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?

___14. Do you help the leader or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?

___15. Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?

___16. Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation?

___17. Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the leader's decision rather than just doing what you are told?

___18. When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?

___19. Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or group's standards?

___20. Do you assert your views on important issues, even, though it might mean conflict with your group reprisals from the leader?

Scoring Key:

Independent thinking items- 1, 5, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20
(Items 1, 5, 11, 12, 14, and 16 were omitted from analysis due factor loading issues. Current study for items 17, 18, 19, and 20, $\alpha = .69$)

Active Engagement items- 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 15
(Current study, $\alpha = .87$)

Ranking of dimensions are based on the following average scores:

Low 0-2, Medium 2.1-4, High 4.1-6

Note: Effective followers average 4.1 or greater on both dimensions

Appendix F: Demographics

Instructions: The following questions refer to your basic individual demographic characteristics. Please indicate your answer by filling in the space provided

1. Have you ever been employed? ___ yes ____ no

2. If yes, for what period of time have you been employed? _____
   1--less than one year
   2-- 1-2 years
   3-- 2-3 years
   4-- 3-5 years
   5-- 5-8 years
   6-- 8-10 years
   7-- 10-12 years
   8-- 12-15 years
   9-- 15-20 years
   10-- 20 years or greater

3. What is your current work status?_____
   1--Not Employed
   2--Part Time (less than 40 hours per week)
   3--Full Time (40+ hours per week)

4. If currently working, for what period of time have you been employed by the organization for which you currently work?
   1--less than one year
   2-- 1-2 years
   3-- 2-3 years
   4-- 3-5 years
   5-- 5-8 years
   6-- 8-10 years
   7-- 10-12 years
   8-- 12-15 years
   9-- 15-20 years
   10-- 20 years or greater

5. Please indicate the industry in which you work/worked upon which you based your answers. _____

   1-- Manufacturing
   2-- Service Provider
   3-- Distribution/Transport
   4-- Retailer
   5-- Agriculture/Forestry
   6-- Government
   7-- Non-Profit
   8—Other (list) _____

6. What is your age? _____(years)

7. What is your racial or ethnic membership?_____

   1—African American
   2—Caucasian (white)
   3—Hispanic
   4—Asian or Pacific Islander
   5—American Indian or Alaskan Native
   6—Middle Eastern
   7—other

8. Indicate your sex:_____

   1—Female
   2—Male

9. What is your marital status? _____

   1—Single (never married)
   2—Married
   3—Separated
   4—Divorced
   5—Widowed

10. Please indicate your gross annual earnings:_____

1—Less than $5000	2--$5001-$10000
3--$10001 -$20000	4--$20001- $30000
5--$30001- $60000	6--$60001 - $90000
7—Greater than $90000	

11. How much formal education have you completed? _____

1—11 years or less
2—High School Graduate
3—3 years or less of college
4—College graduate
5—Some graduate education
6—Masters Degree
7—Ph.D. Degree

Appendix G: Supplemental Scales

All supplemental scales were created for this study.

Items for Openness to Communication *(α = .96)*	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
This leader seems open to communicating with me.	1	2	3	4	5
This leader would likely welcome communication from me.	1	2	3	4	5
This leader is willing to communicate with me.	1	2	3	4	5
This leader likes communicating with followers.	1	2	3	4	5
This leader is receptive to communication with followers.	1	2	3	4	5

Items for Extrinsic Instrumental Value *(α = .88)*	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in financial benefits for me.	1	2	3	4	5
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in a promotion for me.	1	2	3	4	5
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in better physical working conditions for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in praise for my effort.	1	2	3	4	5
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in improved job security.	1	2	3	4	5

Items for Intrinsic Instrumental Value *(α = .90)*

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in increased emotional support from this leader.	1	2	3	4	5
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in a better relationship with this leader.	1	2	3	4	5
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in a better work atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in a better feeling about my work situation.	1	2	3	4	5
Providing voluntary upward feedback to this leader could result in a greater level of trust between me and this leader.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix H: Reliability and Factor Loading Report

Reliability / Factor Loading							
Scale	Item Factor Loading	% of Variance of Scale	Reliability (Alpha)	Standardized Alpha	Number of Items	Number of Factors	Removed Items
Manipulation - Relationship		77.64	.93	.93	5	1	
MR1	.843						
MR2	.795						
MR3	.905						
MR4	.924						
MR5	.930						
Manipulation - Task		81.08	.92	.92	4	1	
MT1	.936						
MT2	.915						
MT3	.818						
MT4	.928						
Attitude		77.94	.90	.91	4	1	
ATT1	.896						
ATT2	.901						
ATT3	.849						
ATT4	.884						
Intentions		86.57	.95	.95	4	1	
INT1	.906						
INT2	.929						
INT3	.947						
INT4	.939						
Openness to Communication		86.99	.96	.96	5	1	
OC1	.932						
OC2	.942						
OC3	.941						
OC4	.94						
OC5	.908						
Instrumental Value Extrinsic		68.40	.88	.88	5	1	
IVE1	.814						
IVE2	.855						
IVE3	.758						
IVE4	.845						
IVE5	.858						
Instrumental Value Intrinsic		71.78	.90	.90	5	1	
IVI1	.836						
IVI2	.872						
IVI3	.829						
IVI4	.806						
IVI5	.890						

Reliability / Factor Loading Report							
Scale	Item Factor Loading	% of Variance of Scale	Reliability (Alpha)	Standardized Alpha	Number of Items	Number of Factors	Removed Items
Followership Ind. Thinking		36.91	.69	.69	4	1	Items 1-6 Due To: Cross Loadings
FSIT7	.667						
FSIT8	.666						
FSIT9	.609						
FSIT10	.467						
Follwership Activity Level		46.87	.87	.87	10	1	
FSA1	.604						
FSA2	.770						
FSA3	.676						
FSA4	.741						
FSA5	.608						
FSA6	.717						
FSA7	.739						
FSA8	.683						
FSA9	.532						
FSA10	.738						

Appendix I: Demographic Report

The following demographic report is based on the final data set used in analysis. Responses omitted from analysis are not included in the following statistics.

Work Experience
All respondents included in data analysis had prior work experience. (Responses indicating no prior work experience were omitted from final analysis)

Average Work Experience: 5-8 years
1. 38 - Less than 1yr
2. 54 - 1-2 yr
3. 45 - 2-3 yr
4. 89 - 3-5 yr
5. 119 - 5-8 yr
6. 35 - 8-10 yr
7. 20 - 10-12 yr
8. 19 - 12-15 yr
9. 10 - 15-20 yr
10. 18 - Greater than 20yr

Employment Status
214-Employed Part Time
136-Employed Full Time
90-Not Currently Employed

Tenure in current job
Average Tenure 1-2 years

Industry
1. 41 - mfg
2. 236 - service
3. 29 - distribution
4. 66 - retail
5. 10 - Ag/forestry
6. 29 - Govt
7. 19 - Non-profit
8. 10 – other

Age
Average Age 25 years

Ethnic Background
310 - Caucasian
76 - African American
54 – other

Gender
240 – male
200 - female

Marital Status
326 - single
100 - married
14 - other

Income Level
Average Annual Income
$10,000-$20,000 per year

Educational Background
(All classes surveyed were Junior and Senior level undergraduate or Masters level classes)
264-Undergraduates
176-College Graduates

Appendix J: IRB Approval

THE UNIVERSITY OF MEMPHIS

Institutional Review Board

To: Brandon Kilburn
Management

From: Chair, Institutional Review Board
for the Protection of Human Subjects
Administration 315

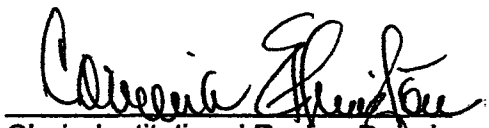
Subject: The Effects of Leader Behavior on Follower Attitudes and Intentions Toward the Provision of Voluntary Upward Feedback (E07-33)

Approval Date: August 31, 2006

This is to notify you that the Institutional Review Board has designated the above referenced protocol as exempt from the full federal regulations. This project was reviewed in accordance with all applicable statutes and regulations as well as ethical principles.

When the project is finished or terminated, please complete the attached Notice of Completion and send to the Board in Administration 315.

Approval for this protocol does not expire. However, any change to the protocol must be reviewed and approved by the board prior to implementing the change.



Chair, Institutional Review Board
The University of Memphis

Dr. C. Jones