Gordon Institute
of Business Science
University of Pretoria

Follower orientations and behaviours
in the leadership process

Avesh Inderjeet
17390282

An article submitted, as part of a research project, to the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration.

07 November 2018

Declaration

I declare that this journal article and attached supplement is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

Avesh Inderjeet	**Date**

Contents

Motivation of Journal Choice

The journal of choice for this article publication is The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science (JABS). The journal contains articles focused on group dynamics, organisational development and social change. The readers of the journal include behavioural scientists who are studying the process of social change and professionals who base their practice on relevant knowledge. The objective of the journal is to provide frameworks and theoretical evidence that explain, predict and highlight the implications of actions. Its scope offers a variety of disciplines that include race and ethnicity, leadership and followership, management, gender, sociology and organisational development.

For the reasons listed above, the author sees relevance in the content of the article, the outcome of the study and its alignment with the aims and objectives of The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science especially around predicting and highlighting the implications of actions. The journal itself is perceived to be more open to developing work on followership behaviours, which has tremendous value for practitioners. The outcome of the research also includes discussions and information across the variety of disciplines that the journal scopes.

The journal is rated two on the AJG 2018 ranking list and is Scopus and ISI indexed. The researcher confirms that the journal has been constructed using the journal’s author guidelines.

The author sequence is as follows: Avesh Inderjeet, Dr. Caren Scheepers.

Theory and Literature Review

The focus of the literature review is to analyse and assimilate the research that has been concluded around leadership and followership throughout the last few years. The bi-directional relationship of leadership and followership is used to argue the importance of followership behaviours in the leadership process, adding to the current definition presented within LMX Theory. It is argued the behaviours of voice and, or upward delegation has an association with co-production and passive orientation in the leadership process itself, with both being exhibited by the follower themselves.

Leadership Research

Literature published in journals, articles and publications covers a wide range of definitions, theories, styles and philosophies around leadership and its effect on followership. Early textbooks refer to types of leadership styles that include transformational, transactional and laissez-faire (Bass, 1974). Winston and Patterson's (2006) research across 160 articles and books that defined leadership, a scale for leadership or a construct for leadership, is presented in their paper titled *"An Integrative Definition of Leadership"*. In their article, reference is also made to searches in the Expanded Academic Database, in 2003, yielding over 26 000 articles (Winston & Patterson, 2006) that were based on leadership and leadership constructs. In their journal titled "*Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives*", Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden and Hu (2014) explicitly state that the topic of leadership has seen the development of diverse theories as an outcome of the increase in scholarly research over the last decade.

In more recent times, Grabo, Spisak, and Van Vugt (2017) present a signal of charisma as a leadership behaviour that increases credibility – a leadership trait that is based on the ability to influence followers – again, a contribution to the field of study around leadership. Strand (2014), in his research, makes reference to the creation of dedicated positions or "*Chief Sustainability Officers*" (p. 2) within organisations and how the recognition of these dedicated positions serve as a successful indicator that attention is being given to driving corporate sustainability through dedicated leadership. Even in the negative, Oc and Bashshur (2013) posit that, based on the performance of an organisation, leaders can either be credited for its success or blamed for its failure. Leaders are therefore seen as either "*heros*" or even "*villains*" (Oc & Bashshur, 2013, p. 1). This poses some fascinating insights as, assigning and referring to dedicated positions for leadership also points to the fact that leadership research has received an abundance of attention. The question that arises from these arguments is therefore: Why are there no referrals to dedicated positions within followership structures? Even when researching followership for this study, using digital tools such as Google Scholar, searches return a figure of approximately 23 500 results whereas the field of leadership returns 3 950 000 results. The above arguments point to an abundance of research and theory around leadership however, information and research on followers and the traits that make them effective or in-effective in the leader-follower process seems to be limited. This notion is supported by Junker and Van Dick (2014) who state that leadership has always been studied from a leader's perspective and followers have rarely been considered.

Followership Research

Although leaders have a significant role to play in the outcomes of formal and informal organisations, the role that followers play and their associated behaviours is an area that has not been sufficiently explored (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010). The systematic study of leadership and the extensive contribution to the field is important and ongoing however, the concepts around followership and their importance in the leadership process is also limited. The preceding information may paint the picture that research on followership is lacking however, mostly aspects relating to the behaviours of followers are. Recent studies have shown that it is however, gaining momentum (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, & Huang, 2017; Oc & Bashshur, 2013; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014).

Many authors have defined the role of followers as being passive to that of the leadership process (Carsten et al., 2010; Oc & Bashshur, 2013; Sronce & Arendt, 2009). Such concepts minimise the impact followers have on goal attainment and outcomes of a collective unit. They are therefore acknowledged as necessary but not as necessary as leaders in the accomplishment of goals (Oc & Bashshur, 2013). Ford and Harding (2018), in comparison to this argument, believe that followers are helpless conformists that are only driven once persuaded by their leader. Although discussions around how leadership influences goal achievement are ongoing, if followers believe in certain goals or desired outcomes, it is believed that there is a drive to want to achieve this goal as well, with the assistance and aid of the leader. This is referred to as co-production (co-producing leadership outcomes) orientation (Carsten et al., 2017).

The theory of reasoned action, tested against followers with high co-production beliefs, revealed that unethical directives from a leader result in a follower disobeying the request by the leader (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2013). The same theory, applied to individuals with weak co-production beliefs, revealed that unethical directives from a leader will result in stronger intent by a follower to obey the request (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2013). This influence of leaders on followers, subordinate the follower to moderators or recipients of the leadership influence (Oc & Bashshur, 2013). This also shows the extent of the orientation of the follower and his or her influence on the leadership process – this being a symbiotic or bi-directional relationship. It stands to reason then, based on this information, that the concept of leadership holds no merit if there are no inherent followers and followership. In other words, one cannot exist without the other thus, followers in the leadership process should not be minimised to being referred to as necessary but not as necessary as leaders as they have just as much influence.

The Relationship Between Leadership and Followership

Fairhurst and Uhl-Bien (2012) refer to the interaction between leader and follower as a *"relational view"* (p. 1). They posit that leadership itself is created through social interactions and a relationship between leader and followers. This relational view or relational dynamics is further defined by Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) wherein their seminal work posits that there is a mutual influence process in which followers engage with leaders. Oc and Bashshur (2013) argue that in the pursuit of understanding this relational influence, it is important to recognise the way in which followers engage with the leader themselves. Earlier theories such as the leader–member exchange (LMX) theory emphasises the engagement model between leaders and followers and how these relationships culminate into leadership outcomes that are indeed effective (Graen, 1995; Liden & Graen, 1980). LMX theory even refers to the relationship as being dyadic, or two-way, in which one influences the other and vice versa. This view is corroborated by Lührmann and Eberl (2007) who use identity theory to infer that leadership is relational and a social phenomenon that is resultant of the leader-follower interactions. The point that these authors are making is that it is evidently clear that the interaction between the leader and follower is a process in which outcomes are generated – this is the leadership process itself.

Based on this, the development of theories across the decade has therefore culminated into an understanding that the leader-member exchange is more relational as opposed to one-sided and this relationship is key to driving the outcomes or consequences of the work unit (Oc & Bashshur, 2013). Oc (2018), in more recent research, posits that follower traits are important predictors of leadership creation. Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) suggest that in the process of leadership, without followers and follower's behaviour, there is no leadership. In their study, followership is defined as a behaviour that helps co-construct leadership. Furthermore, the authors state that the reason for the limited study around followers and followership is due to the confusion and misunderstanding of what followership constructs are and how they relate to leadership.

From the arguments, we can infer that the study of followers is key in assisting to understand just how the leadership process is affected by follower orientations and behaviour, as, without the influence of followers, leadership is thought to be non-existent.

Follower Role Orientations

Bligh and Kohles (2012) argue that followership roles, being either active or passive, and the research behind it, are important concepts that aid in understanding the impact on the leadership process. Crossman and Crossman (2017) state that interest in followership, as an active role followers play in the leader-member interactions, also referred to as follower behaviour, has gained increased attention. Follower role orientations also define the way in which followers act in relation to leaders within social settings (Lapierre & Carsten, 2014). It details the way in which an individual believes his or her role should be executed (Carsten et al., 2017). It has been proven that the personal characteristics, qualities and actions of followers influence leadership and the process of leadership itself (Carsten et al., 2010). Some of these orientation characteristics and traits include attitude, obedience, decisions, behaviours, taking initiative and voicing opinions (Carsten et al., 2010; Oc & Bashshur, 2013). Crossman and Crossman (2017) however, refer to the way in which a follower is oriented as descriptive. The descriptive behaviour orientation affirms that a followers behaviour can be supportive, active, disregarding, passive or even opposing to that of the leader (with intent to undermine the leader).

These arguments provide a pattern of similarity that encourages the claim that the interaction and orientation of a follower does in fact influence the relationship with a leader and may be used to define the character trait of the follower. Based on this inference, there therefore exists an opportunity to understand these characteristics and traits and how physical actions are linked to the type of characteristics that are exhibited by followers in relation to leaders.

As defined earlier, there are multiple follower role orientations or descriptors defined in empirical research around followership however, within this study, only two types of followership role orientation beliefs are tested.

1. Followers are influential and active co-producers in the leadership process.
2. Followers are passive contributors to the leadership process.

These initial concepts were theorised by Shamir, Pillai, Bligh, and Uhl-Bien (2007) and were further built on in subsequent studies by Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) and Carsten et al. (2017). These two types of role orientation are important as they contrast one another. One orientation points to the active contribution of a follower to the leadership process and the second points to a more docile or submissive act. Both orientations are defined in more detail later within this document.

As discussed previously though, the relationship between a follower and a leader must be considered as bi-directional thus, the understanding of a follower's role orientation may give rise to the leader adopting different styles in managing a follower who displays either characteristic. This therefore has implications for business particularly around leader-member (or manager-subordinate) relationships within organisations.

LMX Theory – "In-group" and "Out-group"

LMX theory references two groups or types of followers. The "out-group" describes followers that tend to do what they are supposed to, offering little to no motivation to take on more work or to see the relationship with the leader as being mutually beneficial. The "in-group" describes followers who are competent, skilled and intrinsically motivated to take on more responsibility, whilst engaging in co-operative behaviours and communicating more (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Liden & Graen, 1980; Van Breukelen, Schyns, & Le Blanc, 2006). Implicit followership theories (IFTs) also describes another two groups of followers. This being followership "*prototype*" and followership "*antiprototype*" (Sy, 2010, p. 2). Behaviours of prototype followers are typically hardworking, productive, excited, happy and loyal whilst behaviours exhibited by antiprototype followers include arrogant, soft-spoken, rude, bad tempered and slow.

So why are only two types of followership role orientation beliefs tested within this study? Based on the previous argument around active and docile contributors and contrasting the definitions with LMX theory and IFTs, we posit that prototype followers are reminiscent of those in the in-group whilst antiprototype followers are described by those in the out-group.

Further building on the work theorised by (Shamir et al., 2007), Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) and Carsten et al. (2017), the constructs that are also pertinent in understanding how a follower enacts his or her co-production and passive orientation is upward delegation and voice behaviour.

Co-production Orientation

Co-production orientation refers to the enhancement of work-unit effectiveness when followers engage and work with the leader in order to drive outcomes (Carsten et al., 2017; Shamir et al., 2007). These followers display qualities such as independence, commitment, self-motivation, courageousness, honesty and credibility (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). A theme that emerges is that a follower with a strong co-production orientation is understood to be a key component of support for leaders in driving effective outcomes to invoke constructive change within the organisation, through active involvement. One could argue that these followers belong to the in-group or follower prototype as defined earlier within LMX theory and IFT respectively.

Passive Orientation

Followers with a passive orientation are found to be deferent to the leader’s knowledge and experience, accepting and supportive of the leader’s initiative, whilst remaining loyal in the process (Carsten et al., 2010). These followers tend not to say anything, stay clear from decision making or problem solving and allow for the work unit’s responsibility to remain with the leader rather (Carsten et al., 2017). In comparison, Gebert, Heinitz, and Buengeler (2016) argues that these followers essentially allow the leader to influence. Lapierre, Bremner, and McMullan (2012) argue that these behaviours are congruent with the traditional view of followers being unquestioning, loyal and less gifted. From this, it could be inferred that these followers belong in the out-group or follower anti-prototype as defined earlier within LMX theory and IFT respectively. Using the extended definition of passive orientation, that includes loyalty, one could possibly improve on the LMX theory definition by including loyalty to the leader as another follower trait and orientation.

Voice

A behaviour in which followers propose suggestions and ideas for improvement and change is termed voice (Carsten et al., 2017). This is congruent with the definition provided by Kumar and Mishra (2016) in which the authors state that upwards communication (speaking to a leader) is termed *"employee voice"* (p. 2). If creativity is understood to be a mediator for proposals and suggested ideas for improvement then this is consistent with Shin, Chen, and Hou's (2016) view which states that creativity is positively related to voice behaviour. Followers that are committed to assisting the organisation through engaging in voice behaviour are seen to be citizens that encourage constructive change. Lapierre et al., (2012) refers to this as pro-active followership and argue that these followers constructively challenge a leader's decisions and ideas through voicing their own ideas and concerns especially if there is an idea that is contrasting with the intended goals of the unit. Carsten and Uhl-Bien (2012) refer to voice as being a positive form of expression that aids in the advancement of an organisation. This means that followers with a strong co-production orientation will speak up. Morrison (2014) encourages this argument by stating that employees that do engage in upward voice, may offer information about problems whilst employees that withhold information may deprive the organisation of useful information. If the above arguments are indeed true, then it stands to reason that followers who would rather defer responsibility to the leader and remain silent do not engage in voice behaviour. Stated differently, followers with a passive orientation will not speak up whilst those that do speak up exhibit co-production orientation. Based on these arguments, the following hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 1. Co-production orientation is positively associated with voice behaviour
Hypothesis 2. Passive orientation is negatively associated with voice behaviour

Upward Delegation

Yukl and Fu (1999) refer to a follower's influence of important decisions as being a consultation with the leader. They refer to this consultation as a form of empowerment for the follower. In delegation, the authority for the decision is owned by the follower whereas, in consultation, the authority for the decision stays with the leader (Yukl & Fu, 1999). Although consultation is inclusive, it stands to reason that some followers will not take responsibility for the decision and will rather transfer the onus on to the leader. This is referred to as upward delegation (Carsten et al., 2017). This transfer of responsibility is usually due to the employee feeling that he or she does not have the necessary skills to fix a problem or they may believe that it is not their responsibility to do so (Carsten et al., 2017). Contrary to this however, is the existence of followers who would rather take responsibility for problems and remedying of issues, by not engaging in upward delegation. Followers that are therefore described as co-production orientated would rather not engage in upward delegation. Followers however, that exhibit passive orientation, possibly will engage in upward delegation. This is congruent with Carsten et al., (2010) who state that passive followership traits could possibly resist engaging in opportunities that encourage the leadership process. In comparison, Lapierre et al., (2012) state that followers with passive orientation offers high deference to a leader with refrainment from questioning a leader's suggested direction or idea. Using these arguments, the following hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 3. Co-production orientation is negatively associated with upward delegation
Hypothesis 4. Passive orientation is positively associated with upward delegation

Applicability to South Africa

Carsten et al. (2017) have been successful in testing the hypothesis and drawing results in a Chinese company across 475 samples. As described in the research application of this document, followers with a stronger co-production orientation (co-producing leadership outcomes) are less likely to approach their leaders with problems and are more likely to speak up to them with ideas, viewpoints or suggestions. Followers with a stronger passive orientation, who defer to leadership influence, are more likely to pass on problems to their leaders and are less likely to speak up regarding suggestions and ideas (Carsten et al., 2017).

In order to justify the context of the study, Carsten et al., (2017) presented a finding that, within Chinese culture, a leader understands that there is a harmonious relationship between him or her and the follower and that authority is granted by the follower (McElhatton & Jackson, 2012). The authors refer to this culture as being partnership and deference driven. Based on this, the authors claimed that the results of the study can be used to generalise across the world. However, evidence of differences in power-distance between China and South Africa challenges this claim. Power-distance refers to the expectation that there is an equal distribution of power (Hofstede, 2011) and is applicable to the leader-follower relationship within the context of this study. Stated differently, there is an expectation that within the leader-follower relationship, power is distributed equally.

Using the findings from The Hofstede Model (Hofstede, 2011), presented on “Hofstede Insights,” (n.d.), power distance in South Africa (49) is far lower than that of China (80), as shown in Figure 1. The results of this insight is corroborated by The Globe Study (“Globe Study,” 2004) in which the power distance for Chinese culture was considered very low (Chinese sample = 3.1). In South Africa however, there were varying power distances for each ethnic group (Black sample = 3.65 and White sample = 2.64). This suggests that the results across the different countries may be different as LMX relationships have been proven to be affected by differences in power distance (Anand, Vidyarthi, & Rolnicki, 2017) across different cultures or ethnic groups.

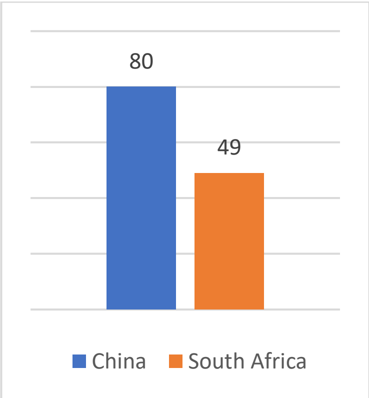

Figure 1. China vs South Africa Power Distance (“Hofstede Insights,” n.d.)

Based on this information and challenging its generalisability, conducting the research with a sample from South Africa may provide different results or even far different correlations strengths between the constructs. Power-distance itself, may affect the communication and information sharing between leader and follower (Anand et al., 2017) which, in turn, could lead to differences in the strength of the correlations.

In terms of the co-production orientation construct, the lower power distance in South Africa could mean it has different correlation strengths with voice behaviour and upward delegation respectively (as co-production behaviour may be more prevalent in lower power distance societies (Anand et al., 2017). The original study performed by Carsten et al., (2017) revealed a correlation co-efficient of 0.33 and -0.44 respectively.

For the passive orientation construct (where subordinates believe that responsibility for certain actions lies with the leader and not with the follower), the lower power distance in South Africa could mean it has different correlation strengths with voice behaviour upward delegation respectively, as opposed to the original study, performed by Carsten et al., (2017), which revealed a correlation co-efficient of -0.25 and 0.20 respectively.

As stated earlier as well, the differences in power distances even amongst the different ethnic groups within South Africa will also reveal different correlation strengths.

Research Measures

The original study that was performed by Carsten et al. (2017) included a questionnaire that was developed to measure the constructs. The researcher requested the original questionnaire from the authors themselves. The questionnaire used a Likert Scale with questions relating to co-production orientation tested using 5 items, passive role orientation tested using 4 items, voice behaviour tested using 6 items and upward delegation tested using 4 items. This questionnaire was tested for validity using both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. The questionnaire itself was also tested for reliability and validity as part of a pilot test run by the original authors and was adapted slightly, in terms of format and flow, for subsequent use in this research.

Research Methodology

The literature review has provided a theoretical base for the researcher to develop the research hypothesis. Through the literary findings, it is believed that followers with a greater co-production orientation may upward communicate (voice) and delegate towards their leaders whilst followers with a greater passive orientation may not necessarily upward communicate (voice) and delegate towards their leaders.

Hypothesis 1. Co-production orientation is positively associated with voice behaviour
Hypothesis 2. Passive orientation is negatively associated with voice behaviour
Hypothesis 3. Co-production orientation is negatively associated with upward delegation
Hypothesis 4. Passive orientation is positively associated with upward delegation

The research philosophy assumptions define the employed research strategy and resultant data collection method and procedures. The following sections detail the sample, population, methodology, data collection process, data analysis and limitations.

Sample and Unit of Analysis

Earlier definitions of leadership, stated as evolutionary outcomes and adaptation through psychology literature, involves maintaining group cohesion and taking initiative whereas followership requires a decision on which leader to follow, when to follow them and where to follow (Vugt, 2006). In a more recent study, Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) defines followership itself through two lenses. The first lens defines followership as a rank, role or position and is termed a role theory approach. These could be manager-subordinate relationships or leader-follower relationships. The second defines followership as an interaction that creates leadership by combined acts of leading and following and is termed a constructionist approach (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Biddle (1986) uses role theory to explain roles by theorising that people are members of social positions and hold expectations for their own behaviours and those of other persons. Role theory encompasses a broad definition that includes many types however, in the context of business, the more pertinent one focuses on the social systems that are task oriented and hierarchical (manager-subordinate relationships or leader-follower relationships) and is referred to as organisational role theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Wickham & Parker, 2007).

Based on the purpose statement of the research and organisational role theory, the population and unit of analysis is defined as subordinates (followers) whose relationships are hierarchical within businesses and formal organisations within South Africa. These subordinates are listed as permanent employees of an organisation, working under a contract that is administered by the company wherein the employee receives or is entitled to receive any remuneration ("Amended Labour Relations Act — Department of Labour," n.d.). This unit defines the individuals from which the data was collected from for statistical analysis and computation.

Methodology

The philosophy behind the methodology is positivism as the research used statistical and scientific methods to prove or disprove relationships that are observed within a naturalistic setting or social reality. The study is also defined as explanatory as the link or relationships between variables were investigated and measured objectively. Holden and Lynch (2004) confirm that there is also less research bias when the research philosophy and the researcher's philosophy are intertwined.

The methodological approach used is deductive as the research used an existing theoretical foundation to explain relationships using hypothesis testing (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Verifying, falsifying or contributing to the theoretical underpinnings and information that was presented in the literature review was possible through the deductive derivation of the empirical findings (Johansson, 2003).

The research design used correlation, as its purpose was to determine the relationship between variables (measured outcomes) and to determine the extent of the relationship (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2013) using statistical analysis. In other words, the research outcome was to seek to create congruence between the research intent and the research design by assessing the relationships amongst variables at a given point in time (Bernard, 2017).

The time horizon was cross-sectional, to limit the effect of time constraints on the study. The cross-sectional nature of the study allowed for information to be collected from a sample drawn from a population. The survey strategy also seeks to describe the relationship between variables and not the effect of a phenomenon before and after an incident or intervention. The latter is usually carried out using a longitudinal study (Saunders et al., 2009). The study itself was non-experimental (Bordens & Abbott, 2011) and, as stated above, assessed the relationship between variables at a given point in time.

Quantitative as well as qualitative studies are used as it is a tool to test literature informed theories using variables and constructs, in line with positivist philosophy. These constructs are then assessed using computational and statistical tools to explain the relationship based on the outcome of the literature findings and theory. The outcome of a quantitative study will reveal a confirmation or disconfirmation of the hypothesis that is being tested (Yilmaz, 2013).

Data Gathering

The research instrument, survey technique and analysis was a mono-method, self-completed, structured questionnaire (Zikmund et al., 2013). The questionnaire was an adaptation of the original survey that was created in the study performed by Carsten et al. (2017) whose scales were confirmed using exploratory factor analysis. This type of research design enabled the researcher to ask questions of a similar nature, to many respondents, thereby ensuring diversity in the replies across the sample itself. The survey strategy also ensured confidentiality of the participants as personal information that could be used to identify the respondent was not requested (Saunders et al., 2009) however, various demographic questions were included in order to better understand the sample.

An internet-mediated questionnaire tool (Saunders et al., 2009), Survey Monkey ("Survey Monkey," 2018), was used to create, publish and gather responses for the survey. This allowed for ease of access by respondents and real-time updates on the progress of sampling, for the researcher. Other advantages of using the internet-mediated questionnaire tool included the following: the ability to create a landing page that outlines the purpose of the study and important contact information of the researcher; enabling accessibility to a large sample using the internet thereby encouraging geographic flexibility; allowing for the high speed collection of data as well as cost effectiveness in using a digital form as opposed to print copies; offering the participant little to no access to the researcher which limits subject and participant bias; enablement of the questionnaire to be distributed to participants via mobile devices;

allowing for the participant to complete the survey at their convenience and in their own time, resulting in a potentially higher response rate; ensuring the confidentiality of participants (Saunders et al., 2009). The associated costs for the use of the tool was paid for by the researcher over the duration of the study period.

The format and flow of the survey is described below.

The first section of the survey informed the participant of the purpose of the study and asked for his or her permission to partake in the survey. The details of this was presented as a home-page to the questionnaire itself.

The second section of the survey tested the co-production and passive role constructs. For questions relating to co-production and passive role orientation, a 6-point Likert Scale was used.

The third section of the survey tested the voice behaviour construct. For questions relating to voice behaviour, a 5-point Likert Scale was used.

The fourth section of the survey tested the upward delegation construct. For questions relating to upward delegation, a 5-point Likert Scale was used.

The final section of the survey related to demographic information. The questions in this section was not used as control questions but as qualitative, categorical questions. A sample of the questionnaire is provided at the end of this document.

Although the tool does allow for a large and dispersed sample to be reached, it is not without limitations. Response rates can be affected as the researcher is not physically there to enforce completion. Additionally, the researcher could not verify the response rate based on the snowball sampling technique adopted. Incompleteness was therefore handled accordingly during the data analysis using imputing and the removal of incomplete responses (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). This was under the premise that missing values are attributed to missing at random (MAR) inferences (Little, 2018; Schafer & Graham, 2002). Imputation was only administered on responses with a completion rate greater than 50% and less than 100%.

Although Perneger, Courvoisier, Hudelson, & Gayet-Ageron (2015) suggest a pre-test sample size of 30 respondents, the pilot study was conducted with a sample of 17 respondents, using convenience sampling. This was to allow for the researcher to understand the suitability and representativeness of the questions (Saunders et al., 2009). This number of respondents was deemed suitable due to the power effect expected, being in the range of 0.2 to 0.5 (Cohen, 1992). Pilot studies are useful in initially highlighting problems that could cause the main study to fail as well as identify where research methods may be too complicated or inappropriate. The pilot questionnaire tested and corrected the language and grammar quality of the constructed survey using feedback from the respondents. The pilot test was also used to test for face and content validity, ensuring that scale items were clear and understandable (Zikmund et al., 2013) and facilitated in the identification and correction of possibly vague and ambiguous questions including respondent understanding. Whilst most feedback from participants stated that there were no problems with the survey, feedback from some responses to the pilot study revealed errors that included incorrect scale item labelling in certain questions, semantics, grammar and spelling. These were subsequently corrected prior to the final survey being distributed. The expectation from the pilot survey was that it would take a respondent approximately 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. It must be noted that responses from the pilot study were removed from the final analysis.

Although it would have been advantageous to increase the external validity of the experimental results (allowing the results to be generalised beyond the sample), through a census surveying of the population (Zikmund et al., 2013), it is not practical. This is due to the time confinements of the research completion and the possible high financial requirements needed to sample a population of followers and subordinates across South Africa. Obtaining a complete list or sampling frame for the population is also not possible. It was therefore necessary to sample a large number of units that are easily accessible, to decrease the margin of error in generalising to the population (Saunders et al., 2009). This is reaffirmed by Zikmund et al. (2013) who posit that sampling errors can be reduced by an increase in sample size due to their inverse relationship.

For the final questionnaire distribution, the researcher made use of snowball sampling techniques. Purposive, non-probability sampling allowed for the selection of respondents that matched the unit of analysis (Zikmund et al., 2013) in order to meet the required objectives of the study. It also encouraged consistency in expected responses which makes the primary data more reliable and comparable. The survey link created was shared using a direct web address via email and social media (LinkedIn). The questionnaire was distributed over a single time-period over 11 days without the use of alternative form reliability (Saunders et al., 2009), with a cross-sectional time horizon. The survey was distributed to a target population which comprised of professionals working across multiple industries in South Africa. Initial survey distribution was only to respondents that were believed to be followers or subordinates within the researcher's network however, the snowball method ensured that the survey was distributed beyond this, to potential respondents that matched the unit of analysis, outside of the network of the researcher.

The survey itself consisted of questions related to the constructs that took approximately six minutes to complete. After briefly explaining the purpose of the study, the respondent was informed of their voluntary participation and the ability to exit the survey at any time. Nineteen questions relating to the constructs were asked. The final section of the survey requested demographic information such as age, size of organisation, length of tenure, industry and race from the respondent. Any information relating to dates of birth, identity numbers, contact details or other personal information was not requested. A total of 310 responses were received (N=310) with a response rate of 94%. This number of respondents was deemed suitable due to the power effect expected, being in the range of between 0.2 to 0.5 (Cohen, 1992).

After the response period lapsed, the data was exported into an XLS file. Scores or weights in the form of numeric data (1 to 6 for the co-production and passive orientation construct and 1 to 5 for the voice behaviour and upward delegation construct) were assigned to each response in order to assess the data using IBM SPSS Statistics Version 24 (IBM, 2016). The questionnaire used a reflective measurement model as the changes are from the construct towards the measurement items (Saunders et al., 2009). Hair et al. (2010) state that reflective studies are most common in academia when utilising quantitative survey strategies. In the case of this research, the latent variables inform the measured variables (Field, 2013). This is congruent with the previous research that was conducted by Carsten et al. (2017).

The completion of the survey resulted in the creation of primary data that was used to assess the construct relationships. The relationships itself were assessed through both descriptive and inferential statistics. Only one survey was used as a data collection tool with no other forms being used.

Statistical Tests

To understand the sample, initial information was presented as descriptive statistics. The demographic characteristics of the dataset was reported as frequencies as no inferential statistics can be informed by categorical data. The results of the questionnaire was tested for consistency, validity, reliability and inter-item correlation using Cronbach's alpha test (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Zikmund et al., (2013) refers to this as a Multivariate Statistical Analysis (MSA). The researcher found correlation tests as the most suitable form of statistical tests for this research. Correlation tests are termed as first order MSA techniques and can be used to test the research hypothesis developed for this study as the study requires the assessment of relationships between continuous variables (Hair et al., 2010). Priori tests were also required to be performed to validate the hypothesised model.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to confirm convergent validity by assessing the factor loadings that were found in the model items of the initial study performed by Carsten et al. (2017). The factor loading is commonly known as the indicator reliability in academia (Hair et al., 2010). Indicator loadings below 0.4 should be removed from hypothesised models as recommended by Roldan and Sanchez-Franco (2012).

Comparative fit index (CFI) and was also used to measure the variables and its relation to the construct. The Chi-square was disregarded as the data was not normally distributed. To complete an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the sample and constructs, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was used to test for sampling adequacy. This test was also conducted to verify if a reduction in the items would still lead to inferential statistics. This test highlighted the proportion of variance in one variable that might be caused by another variable. The Bartlett test of sphericity was used to test the suitability of data reduction. The EFA was adopted due to the poor model fit results from the CFA analysis. Parametric tests was then run on the data to confirm the data distribution type (Winter, Gosling, & Potter, 2016).

Due to the questionnaire using a Likert Scale for measurement, the data is understood to be ordinal but is treated as continuous (Field, 2013). In the event that any parametric tests are violated, non-parametric tests were conducted (Field, 2013). To test for correlation, knowing that the data is continuous, the Karl Pearson Coefficient of Correlation test was used (Winter et al., 2016). This correlation test makes use of

Cohen's effect size whereby an effect size between 0 – 0.2 is termed a small effect, 0.2 – 0.5 is termed a medium effect and greater than 0.5 is termed a large effect (Cohen, 1992).

All assumptions were verified for the correlation test and is listed below.

1. The data only contains continuous variables
2. The data set contains no outliers
3. The data is linear
4. The data has equal variances (homoscedascity)
5. The data displays normality
6. There are paired observations (Zikmund et al., 2013)

Limitations

Response bias may have been prevalent when data is collected from hierarchical structures as questions are typically answered to avoid victimisation and to protect the relationship between the manager and subordinate (Furnham, 1986; Zikmund et al., 2013). Internet mediated survey tools also pose a potential risk in the misrepresentation of the questions, by participants, as access to the researcher when the survey is being completed may not be possible.

Pilot studies also pose a concern as respondents may respond differently to a survey if they had previously experienced it which could result from social desirability bias (Furnham, 1986). The author also acknowledges the possibility of respondent carelessness (responding to questionnaires with insufficient effort, not paying attention or responding randomly) (Huang, Curran, Keeney, Poposki, & DeShon, 2012). To reduce the effect of response bias and respondent carelessness, the survey remained anonymous and the data was presented and used in the final analysis aggregately.

Snowball sampling was chosen for its ease of execution however, it offers limitations that may affect the randomness of the responses received through selection bias (Zikmund et al., 2013). One of the main problems is finding initial respondents for the survey as well as low response rates. This was mitigated through the access to personal, professional and organisational networks that the researcher has. Care was initially taken in selecting samples that were non-homogenous as well (Saunders et al., 2009). To alleviate this concern, initial samples that were chosen were across a variety of industries and demographics.

Factor analysis presents challenges as it can become difficult to decide how many factors to keep. Interpretation of the variables represented in the outcome is also subjective and can be understood differently depending on the researcher. It is also noted that correlation tests cannot be used as a proxy for causality. Each statistical test that was run on the data also has limitations and is addressed, noted and, where possible, mitigated, to ensure the integrity of the outputs of the tests.

References

Amended Labour Relations Act — Department of Labour. (n.d.). Retrieved February 11, 2018, from http://www.labour.gov.za/DOL/legislation/acts/labour-relations/read-online/document.2008-05-29.5838754450

Anand, S., Vidyarthi, P., & Rolnicki, S. (2017). Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: Contextual effects of leader power distance and group task interdependence. *The Leadership Quarterly*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.11.002

Bass, B. (1974). *The Bass Handbook of Leadership - Theory, Research & Managerial Applications*. Free Press.

Bernard, H. R. (2017). *Research Methods in Anthropology: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (4th ed.). Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Biddle, B. J. (1986). Developments in Role Theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *12*, 67–92. Retrieved from http://www2.ece.ohio-state.edu/~passino/RoleTheory-Biddle-1986.pdf

Bligh, M. C., & Kohles, J. C. (2012). Approaching leadership with a follower focus. *Journal of Psychology*, *220*(4), 201–204. https://doi.org/10.1027/2151-2604/a000114

Bordens, K. S., & Abbott, B. B. (2011). *Research Design and Methods* (8th ed.). McGraw Hill.

Carsten, M. K., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2012). Follower beliefs in the co-production of leadership: Examining upward communication and the moderating role of context. *Journal of Psychology*, *220*(4), 210–220. https://doi.org/10.1027/2151-2604/a000115

Carsten, M. K., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2013). Ethical Followership: An Examination of Followership Beliefs and Crimes of Obedience. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *20*(1), 49–61. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051812465890

Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., & Huang, L. (2017). Leader perceptions and motivation as outcomes of followership role orientation and behavior. *Leadership*, *0*(0), 1–26. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715017720306

Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & McGregor, R. (2010).

Exploring social constructions of followership: A qualitative study. *Leadership Quarterly*, *21*(3), 543–562. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.015

Cohen, J. (1992). *Quantitative Methods in Psychology*. *Psychological Bulletin* (Vol. 112). Retrieved from http://www2.psych.ubc.ca/~schaller/528Readings/Cohen1992.pdf

Crossman, B., & Crossman, J. (2017). Conceptualising followership – a review of the literature. *Leadership*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715011416891

Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium : Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*, 36–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.005

Dulebohn, J. H., Bommer, W. H., Liden, R. C., Brouer, R. L., & Ferris, G. R. (2012). A Meta-Analysis of Antecedents and Consequences of Leader-Member Exchange. *Journal of Management*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311415280

Fairhurst, G. T., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2012). Organizational discourse analysis (ODA): Examining leadership as a relational process. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *23*, 1043–1062. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.10.005

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering Statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications Ltd. Retrieved from http://www.fb4all.com/download/ebooks/statistics/%23Discovering Statistics Using SPSS 2013.pdf

Ford, J., & Harding, N. (2018). Followers in leadership theory: Fiction, fantasy and illusion. *Leadership*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715015621372

Furnham, A. (1986). *Response bias, social desirability and dissimulation*. *Pergamon Press Ltd* (Vol. 7). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(86)90014-0

Gebert, D., Heinitz, K., & Buengeler, C. (2016). Leaders' charismatic leadership and followers' commitment - The moderating dynamics of value erosion at the societal level. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *27*, 98–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.08.006

Globe Study. (2004). Retrieved August 1, 2018, from https://globeproject.com/results/countries/CHN?menu=list

Grabo, A., Spisak, B. R., & Van Vugt, M. (2017). Charisma as signal: An evolutionary perspective on charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.05.001

Graen, G. B. (1995). Relationship-Based Approach to Leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*. Retrieved from https://doi-org.uplib.idm.oclc.org/10.1016/1048-9843(95)90036-5

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Hair et al 2010.pdf* (7th ed.). Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing Cultures: The Hofstede Model in Context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, *2*(1), 1–26. https://doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1014

Hofstede Insights. (n.d.). Retrieved April 28, 2018, from https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/china,south-africa/

Holden, M. T., & Lynch, P. (2004). Choosing the Appropriate Methodology: Understanding Research Philosophy. *The Marketing Review*, *4*(4), 397–409. https://doi.org/10.1362/1469347042772428

Huang, J. L., Curran, P. G., Keeney, J., Poposki, E. M., & DeShon, R. P. (2012). Detecting and Deterring Insufficient Effort Responding to Surveys. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *27*(1), 99–114. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-011-9231-8

IBM. (2016). IBM SPSS Statistics 24 Core System User’s Guide. Retrieved from ftp://public.dhe.ibm.com/software/analytics/spss/documentation/statistics/24.0/en/client/Manuals/IBM_SPSS_Statistics_Core_System_User_Guide.pdf

Johansson, R. (2003). Case Study Methodology. Retrieved from http://www.psyking.net/htmlobj-3839/case_study_methodology-_rolf_johansson_ver_2.pdf

Junker, N. M., & Van Dick, R. (2014). Implicit theories in organizational settings: A systematic review and research agenda of implicit leadership and followership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*, 1154–1173. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2014.09.002

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. . (1978). *The Social Psychology of Organizations*. Wiley.

Kumar, K. K., & Mishra, S. K. (2016). Subordinate-Superior Upward Communication: Power, Politics and Political Skill. *Human Resource Management*. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21814

Lapierre, L. M., Bremner, N. L., & McMullan, A. D. (2012). Strength in numbers: How employees' acts of followership can influence their manager's charismatic leadership behavior. *Journal of Psychology*, *220*(4), 251–261. https://doi.org/10.1027/2151-2604/a000119

Lapierre, L. M., & Carsten, M. K. (2014). *Followership. What is it and why do people follow?* (L. M. Lapierre & M. K. Carsten, Eds.) (1st ed.). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/262876734

Liden, R. C., & Graen, G. (1980). Generalizability of the Vertical Dyad Linkage Model of Leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, *23*(3), 451–465. Retrieved from http://search.ebscohost.com.uplib.idm.oclc.org/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bth&AN=4395833&site=ehost-live&scope=site

Little, R. J. A. (2018). A Test of Missing Completely at Random for Multivariate Data with Missing Values, *83*(404), 1198–1202. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/2290157

Lührmann, T., & Eberl, P. (2007). Leadership and Identity Construction: Reframing the Leader–Follower Interaction from an Identity Theory Perspective. *Leadership*, *3*(1), 115–127. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715007073070

McElhatton, E., & Jackson, B. (2012). Paradox in Harmony: Formulating a Chinese model of leadership. *Leadership*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715012444054

Morrison, E. W. (2014). Employee Voice and Silence. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *1*(1), 173–197. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091328

Oc, B. (2018). Contextual leadership: A systematic review of how contextual factors shape leadership and its outcomes. *Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(1), 218–235. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.12.004

Oc, B., & Bashshur, M. R. (2013). Followership, leadership and social influence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *24*, 919–934. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.10.006

Perneger, T. V., Courvoisier, D. S., Hudelson, P. M., & Gayet-Ageron, A. (2015). Sample size for pre-tests of questionnaires. *Quality of Life Research*, *24*(1), 147–151. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11136-014-0752-2

Roldan, J. L., & Sanchez-Franco, M. J. (2012). *Variance-Based Structural Equation*

Modeling: Guidelines for Using Partial Least Squares in Information Systems Research. *Research Methodologies, Innovations and Philosophies in Software Systems Engineering and Information Systems*. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-0179-6.ch010

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Doing Research in Business and Management. An Essential Guide to Planning your Project*. Pearson.

Schafer, J. L., & Graham, J. W. (2002). Missing data: Our view of the state of the art. *Psychological Methods*, *7*(2), 147–177. https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.7.2.147

Shamir, B., Pillai, R., Bligh, M. C., & Uhl-Bien, M. (2007). *Follower-Centered Perspectives on Leadership*. *Information Age*. IAP. https://doi.org/10.1026/1617-6391.6.4.179

Shin, A., Chen, -Yih, & Hou, Y.-H. (2016). The effects of ethical leadership, voice behavior and climates for innovation on creativity. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *27*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.10.007

Sronce, R., & Arendt, L. A. (2009). Demonstrating the Interplay of Leaders and Followers. *Journal of Management Education*, *33*(6), 699–724. https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562908330726

Strand, R. (2014). Strategic Leadership of Corporate Sustainability. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *123*(4), 687–706. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-2017-3

Survey Monkey. (2018). Retrieved August 5, 2018, from https://www.surveymonkey.com/user/sign-in/?ut_source=megamenu

Sy, T. (2010). What do you think of followers? Examining the content, structure, and consequences of implicit followership theories. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *113*(2), 73–84. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.06.001

Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 53–55. https://doi.org/10.5116/ijme.4dfb.8dfd

Uhl-Bien, M., Riggio, R. E., Lowe, K. B., & Carsten, M. K. (2014). Followership theory: A review and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *25*, 83–104. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.007

Van Breukelen, W., Schyns, B., & Le Blanc, P. (2006). Leader–Member Exchange Theory and Research: Accomplishments and Future Challenges. *Leadership*, *2*(3), 295–316. https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715006066023

Vugt, M. Van. (2006). Evolutionary Origins of Leadership and Followership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*. Retrieved from http://www.professormarkvanvugt.com/images/files/EvolutionaryOriginsofLeadershipandFollowership-PersonalityandSocialPsychologyReview-2006.pdf

Wickham, M., & Parker, M. (2007). Reconceptualising organisational role theory for contemporary organisational contexts. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *22*(5), 440–464. https://doi.org/10.1108/02683940710757182

Winston, B. E., & Patterson, K. (2006). An Integrative Definition of Leadership. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, *1*(2), 6–66. Retrieved from https://file.scirp.org/Html/49099.html

Winter, J. C. F., Gosling, S. D., & Potter, J. (2016). Comparing the Pearson and Spearman correlation coefficients across distributions and sample sizes: A tutorial using simulations and empirical data. *Psychological Methods*, *21*(3), 273–290. https://doi.org/10.1037/met0000079.supp

Yilmaz, K. (2013). Comparison of Quantitative and Qualitative Research Traditions. *European Journal of Education*, *48*(2), 311–325. https://doi.org/doi:10.1111/ejed.12014

Yukl, G., & Fu, P. P. (1999). Determinant of delegation and consultation by managers. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, *20*(2), 219–232.

Zikmund, W., Babin, B., Carr, J., & Griffin, M. (2013). Business Research Methods, 674.

Questionnaire

Dear Respondent

I am conducting research on the behaviours of followers within organisations and would appreciate your assistance. The following survey should take no more than 8 minutes of your time and does not cost you anything. Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time and without penalty. Your participation is anonymous and only aggregated data will be reported. By completing the survey, you indicate your voluntary participation in this research. If you have any concerns, please contact my supervisor or myself using the details provided below.

Researcher Name : Avesh Inderjeet

email : 17390282@mygibs.co.za

Research Supervisor : Dr. Caren Scheepers

email : scheepersc@gibs.co.za

Please try to answer all questions.

In the questions below, I would like to know your beliefs about followers' roles in relation to leaders in an organisational setting. A follower can be identified as an employee who is working with leaders to achieve outcomes. In answering the questions below, please think generally about the role of followers and their interactions with leaders or "higher-ups" in organisations. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements according to the scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. Followers should be on the lookout for suggestions they can offer to superiors.
2. Followers should communicate their opinions, even when they know leaders may disagree.

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

For the next set of questions, I would like you to think about how you interact with your manager in your organisation. Please respond by indicating the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly

10. I communicate my opinions about work issues to my manager even if my opinion is different and others disagree with me.
11. I develop and make recommendations to my manager concerning issues that affect my work.
12. I speak up to my manager with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.
13. I speak up to my manager and encourage others to get involved in issues that affect the work environment.
14. I keep well-informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to my manager.
15. I get involved with my manager in issues that affect the quality of work life.

For the next set of questions, please indicate the frequency with which you engage in the following behaviours while interacting with managers or higher-ups in your organisation.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always

16. How often do you pass problems along to your manager rather than taking care of them yourself?
17. How often do you pass responsibility for problems along to your manager?
18. How often do you bring your manager problems along with solutions? (R)
19. How often do you expect your manager to take care of your problems?

Demographic Questions

1. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

2. What is your age?

- Less than 20 years
- 20 – 30 years
- 31 – 40 years
- 41 – 50 years
- 51 – 60 years
- More than 60 years

3. How long have you worked for your current employer?

- 0 – 2 years
- 3 – 5 years
- 6 – 10 years
- 11 – 15 years
- More than 15 years

4. Counting all locations where your employer operates, what is the total number of persons who work there?

- 1
- 2-9
- 10-24
- 25-99
- 100-499
- 500-999
- 1000-4999
- 5,000+

5. How long have you been working with your current manager?

- 0 – 2 years
- 3 – 5 years
- 6 – 10 years
- 11 – 15 years
- More than 15 years

6. Approximately how many hours per week do you spend interacting with your manager?

- 0 hours
- 1-10 hours
- 11-20 hours
- 21-30 hours
- 31-40 hours
- More than 40 hours.

7. In which industry are you working in?

- Agriculture
- Construction
- Education
- Finance
- Fishing
- Forestry
- Manufacturing

- Mining
- Telecommunications
- Transportation
- Utilities (Electricity or Water)
- Other

8. To which race group do you belong?
    - Black
    - Coloured
    - White
    - Indian
    - Asian
    - Other