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How do effective followers actually behave? An exploratory, video-observational, and survey study

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Acknowledgements

Seven years ago I started my student time in Enschede, and now the end is nearly there. Seven years of studying brought me two bachelors (Psychology and Business Administration) and one master (Innovation and Entrepreneurship) and a lot of life experience. Now it is time to start a new chapter in my life which will begin in Deventer. I will certainly try to bring all my experience from the last seven years in practise and try to develop myself. I am really looking forward to my next step.

The past year I worked together with Celeste Wilderom and Marcella Hoogeboom, not only for my master thesis, but also for my bachelorthesis Psychology and as a student assistant. I would like to thank them for their extensive help. I think every student would be pleased with this kind of supervising.

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Enjoy reading the paper!

Richard Bandstra

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Abstract

What actual follower behaviors are important for their effectiveness? Through a video-observation study of 42 followers in seven regular staff meetings we tested hypotheses on the behavior of followers. We used earlier developed, reliable scheme for the coding of the videos. Factual informing and task monitoring by the followers has a positive respectively negative significant relationship with follower effectiveness. Also, as hypothesized the relationship between informing and follower effectiveness was moderated through LMX. The results are important in order to have a better understanding of not only the follower itself, but also the leader. Implications of the results for followership and leadership are discussed.

How do effective followers actually behave? An exploratory, video-observational, and survey study

In the social sciences the role of followers has long been recognized (Baker, 2007). Since the 1990s followers also play an important part in the leadership literature (Kelly, 1988; Hollander, 1992). The leadership process is seen as a co-production where social interaction processes are co-constructed, resulting in a collective leader-follower phenomenon including both leader and his/her followers (Meindl, 1995; Ospina & Uhl-Bien, 2012; Shamir, 2007, Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012). The importance of the role of followers was recognized by Meindl (1995), he was the first to take a follower-centered approach to leadership; in his theory he focused on how followers perceive their leaders. Recent research took a leader-centered approach to followers (Sy, 2010) as well as a follower-centered approach to followers (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010). This recent research of Sy (2010) and Carsten et al. (2010) has searched for an answer on how leaders and followers perceive followers' behaviors and roles when engaging with the leader. Also, it addresses how followers think they can be successful and effective. However, the results thus far are perceptual only, and consider the behaviors and roles of followers from a more or less subjective (leader or follower) view. Actual followers' behaviors in the field are not yet identified, even though lots of typologies of followers have been made (see for review, Crossman & Crossman, 2010). As such these typologies mostly describe ineffective/effective followers or negative/positive followers and they are mostly based on assumptions and not based on actual field observations (Baker, 2007). For example, Kelley's typology of followers (1992) is based on data collected at a university (Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, & Bullock, 2009).

Bottom-up follower behavior that has been researched in relation to follower performance is Organizational Citizenship Behavior (e.g., Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser,

2007). Most of the OCB literature is studying the relationship with task performance (see for review Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007). The review of Hoffman et al. (2007) also found that most of the research about the OCB-task performance relation reflects common method bias. It seems that leadership styles are more and more reflecting the relationships with followers among their approaches. In these leadership styles the role of followers is more prominent in addition to the long-recognized leadership role. The most common used metrics to study leadership style are the MLQ (Bass, 1985) and the MPS (Yukl, Wall, Lepsinger, 1990). The MLQ measures transformational leadership, where the MPS measures 'Supporting', 'Recognizing', 'Empowering' and 'Developing' as relational aspects of leadership. Because the relationship between leader and follower is becoming more and more important, follower behavior should play a more meaningful role in the leadership literature. New leadership styles, like distributed leadership (Gronn, 2002), the upcoming humble leadership (Morris, Brotheridge, & Urbanski, 2005; Vera & Rodriguez-Lopez, 2004; Weick, 2001), and shared leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003) are more bottom-up approaches of leadership where leader and followers are treated as equals. In these newly developed theories the role of the follower is not seen to be merely passive but more as pro-active.

The first reason for this research question is the call to advance the field of leadership by integrating followers as a focal element (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). We further try to address the calls for an objective view of followers and their behaviors when engaging with the leader (Carsten et al. 2010; Tepper, Duffy, & Shaw, 2001; Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, & Sels, 2012). Also in the leadership literature critics recommend the use of observational data to supplement survey measures (Hunt, 1991). With the use of video observation and surveys we manage to create an objective approach to the study the leaders and followers.

The purpose of this study is to examine whether leader's behavior is significantly different as opposed to follower behavior and whether different (actual) leader and follower

behaviors are related to leader and follower effectiveness. First, we give a rationale why we expect that leader and follower behavior are fundamentally the same. Second we try to explain the leader behavior with the commonly assessed leadership styles. We tried to find relations between these styles and performance in order to make a comparison with the follower behavior-performance relation. Third, we give an overview of the follower behaviors that have been described and their relation with performance. At last, in three hypotheses we examine the relation between several follower behaviors and the follower effectiveness. These follower behaviors consist of one transformational behavior, one transactional behavior, and one neutral behavior. With this, we try to make a start with the comparison of leader behavior and follower behavior in the most used dimensions of leadership; relation related, task related, and informing (Wilderom & Hoogeboom, 2013). With the help of the video-observations of seven meetings (seven managers and 42 followers) we try to find differences between leader and follower behavior and test the hypotheses. Finally, future research directions and practical implications will be discussed.

Leader Behavior and Follower Behavior are the same?

LMX states that a leader develops different types of exchange relationships with his or her followers (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). LMX draws from the social exchange theory which suggests that there is a perceived obligation on the part of subordinates to reciprocate high-quality relationships (Blau, 1964). Higher quality LMX relationships result in citizenship behavior of the leader that benefits the leader and others in the work setting (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). LMX is often the mediator between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior of the follower (see e.g. Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Leaders exchange and reciprocate in ways that build follower self-worth and/or self-concept (Wang et al., 2005). This reciprocity is very important in a leader-member dyad (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004) and has implications for

employee performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997). One question of the follower-based perspective is what the proper mix of follower characteristics and follower behavior is in order to promote desired outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Although the review of Graen and Uhlbien (1995) states this question it does not get any deeper in the understanding of these behaviors and their relationship with performance.

Leader Behavior

More and more leadership researchers argue for a more integrative model of leadership (Avolio, 2007; Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001). As Yukl (1989) stated, "… most researchers deal only with a narrow aspect of leadership and ignore the other aspects" (p. 254). Few researchers have tried to fill this gap (see, e.g., DeRue, Nahrgang, Welmann, & Humphrey, 2011; Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas, & Halpin, 2006). This research will do so by researching follower behavior in staff meetings and relate this behavior to follower effectiveness. In order to get a complete image of how this follower behavior is of great influence for leader behavior we will first examine two of the most used leadership questionnaires in the scientific literature and their relationship to various sorts of performance.

The MPS and the MLQ together come close to a "full-range" model of effective leadership (Michel, Lyons, & Cho, 2011). The MLQ and the MPS are used to measure leader behavior in relation with several outcomes (see Table 1).

Table 1
Leader behaviors and performance

Taxonomy	Dimension	Definition	Examples of studies linking follower behavior to leader effectiveness	Examples of studies linking follower behavior to employee performance	Examples of studies linking follower behavior to team performance
Transformational Leadership	Inspirational Leadership	The amount of respect and inspiration engendered by the leader (Bass, 1985)	Judge & Piccolo, (2004); Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, (1996); Avolio (1999); Douglas (2012)	Walumbwa & Hartnell (2011); Whittington, Goodwin, Murray (2004); Gang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert (2011)	Schaubroeck, Cha, & Lam (2007); Lim & Ployhart (2004)
	Intellectual Stimulation	The extent to which the leader questions methods used by the followers in order to improve them (Bass, 1985)	Judge & Piccolo, (2004); Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, (1996); Avolio (1999); Douglas (2012)	Walumbwa & Hartnell (2011) ; Whittington, Goodwin, Murray (2004); Gang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert (2011)	Schaubroeck, Cha, & Lam (2007); Lim & Ployhart (2004); Lee, Cheng, Yeung, & Lai (2011)
	Individualized Consideration	The degree of attention and support given to followers (Bass, 1985)	Judge & Piccolo, (2004); Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, (1996); Avolio (1999); Douglas (2012)	Walumbwa & Hartnell (2011) ; Whittington, Goodwin, Murray (2004); Gang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert (2011)	Schaubroeck, Cha, & Lam (2007); Lim & Ployhart (2004)
Transactional Leadership	Contingent Reward	The degree to which the leader provides reinforcement in return for appropriate follower behavior (Bass, 1985)	Hater (1988)	Howell & Hall-Merenda, (1999); Waldman, Ramirez, House, & Puranam (2001)	
	Manangement -by-Exception	The extent to which followers hear from their leader only when only when failures or problems occur (Bass,1985)	Hater (1988)	Waldman, Ramirez, House, & Puranam (2001)	
MPS (Relations-oriented)	Supporting	Acting considerate, showing sympathy and support	Druskat & Wheeler (2003)	Fisher & Edwards (1988); Kim & Yukl, 1995; Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger (1990)	Hiller, Vay, & Vance (2006)

	Recognizing	Providing praise and recognition for effective performance	Atwater, Dionne, Avolio, Camobreco, & Lau (1996)	Kim & Yukl (1995); Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam (1996)	
	Developing	Providing coaching and advice	Edmondson (2003)	Javidan (1992); Kim & Yukl (1995); Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, (1990)	Hiller et al. (2006)
	Empowering	Checking with people before making decisions that affect them	Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer (2004); Druskat & Wheeler (2003)	Yukl et al., 1990)	
MPS (Task-related)	Planning	Organizing work, making decisions about objectives and priorities, assigning responsibilities	Shipper & Dillard (2000)		Hiller et al. (2006)
	Clarifying	Understand what to do, how to do it, and the expected results	Zalatan (2005)		
	Monitoring	Assess whether people are carrying out their assigned tasks and if the work is progressed as planned	Wang, Tsiu, & Xin (2011); Amabile et al. (2004)		
	Problem solving	Identify the cause of the problem and provide firm and convident direction to cope with the problem	Morgeson (2005); Kim & Yukl (1995)		

Follower behavior

In the followership literature Chaleff (2008) uses two behaviors as the key for effective followership: 'the courage to support' and 'the courage to challenge the leader's behavior or policies'. The most of these followers' identities could be identified as passive, active, and pro-active. Carsten et al (2010) identifies three kinds of followers. First, passive followers are just taking orders and do things the "leader's way". Active followers give their opinion but remain loyal to the leader. Pro-active followers, however, take initiative and constructively challenge their leaders' assumptions before they were asked to do this. Problem with these typologies or constructions of followers is that they do not give actual observable behaviors and it is not yet studied if they are related to performance.

Later, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) started with 'prosocial organizational behavior'. This is the behavior which is performed by an organizational member, directed toward an individual, group, or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his/her organizational role. This behavior is performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the party to which it is directed. Prosocial organizational behavior consists of 13 behaviors that are in-role as well as extra-role. A part of these prosocial organizational behaviors is brought together as Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) which consists of two dimensions: Altruism and Generalized Compliance (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Research of LePine, Amir, and Johnson (2002) found a lot more dimensions that fit the definition of OCB, like voice behavior. The dimensions found by LePine et al (2002) and the original dimensions from Smith, Organ, and Neat (1983) are described in Table 2. Also their relation with follower effectiveness is described.

Table 2

OCB dimensions and follower performance

Dimensions	**Definition**	**Relation with effectiveness**
Altruism/Helping	Behaviors of helping a specific other person with an organizationally relevant task or problem (Organ, 1988)	Hoffman et al. (2007); MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1991); Podsakoff, Whitling, Podsakoff, & Blume, (2009)
Courtesy	Behaviors to prevent work-related problems with others from occurring (Organ, 1988)	Hoffman et al. (2007); MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1991); Podsakoff, Whitling, Podsakoff, & Blume, (2009)
Civic Virtue	Behavior that indicates that he/she responsibly participates about the life of the company (Organ, 1988)	Hoffman et al. (2007); MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1991); Podsakoff, Whitling, Podsakoff, & Blume, (2009)
Conscientiousness	Behaviors that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization, in the areas of attendance, obeying rules etc. (Organ, 1988)	Hoffman et al. (2007); MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1991); Podsakoff, Whitling, Podsakoff, & Blume, (2009)
Sportsmanship	Willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining (Organ, 1988)	Hoffman et al. (2007); MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter (1991); Podsakoff, Whitling, Podsakoff, & Blume, (2009)
Voice Behavior	"Discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning" (Morrisson, 2011, p.375)	Positive related to performance (see Whitling, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2011; Detert & Burris, 2007; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001)
Personal Initiative	An individual's taking an active and self-starting approach to work and going beyond what is formally required in a given job (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996)	Positive related to work performance (Frese, Teng, & Wijnen, 1999)

Visioning and follower effectiveness

In leadership settings a vision is a general transcendent ideal that represents shared values (House, 1977). It can be seen as a technique that effective leaders use to inspire their followers so they perform well (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987). This is visioning on part of the leader; the follower also could have a vision. When a follower expresses opinions, he or she "makes known his/her opinions and feelings to the leader and the group. He or she constructively challenges leader's ideas, decisions, initiatives, etc."(Carsten et al, 2010, p.549). However, a few constructs that are defined in the literature could be related with this visioning behavior and will therefore be discussed. In van Dyne et al.'s (1995) identification of Organizational Citizenship Behavior dimensions, they describe advocacy participation. This later changed in the construct of voice, which is the communication of ideas and opinions about work-related issues with the purpose to improve organizational or unit functioning (Morrisson, 2011). This employee voice construct is related to several favorable outcomes for employees, including employee performance (Burris, Detert, & Romney, 2013). This could be an indication that giving an opinion is related to follower effectiveness.

Giving advice to another team member is a part of 'visioning, giving an opinion' because it concerns giving a direction (van der Weide, 2006). Van Dyne and Lepine (1998) identified 'Helping', cooperative behavior that is noncontroversial. Giving advice could be a form of cooperative behavior and therefore 'helping' could be a form of 'visioning, giving an opinion'. Whitling et al. (2008) found that helping behavior contribute significantly to performance appraisal decisions. This could be an indicator that helping provides enhancing of the follower effectiveness.

Not only "voice" is an example of followers that give their opinion or vision in an organization. The submitting of ideas is the same as giving a vision (for example in a meeting) for the organization of the unit. In order to submit ideas for work improvement,

employees first have to make these ideas. This is called personal initiative, which states that an employee is self-starting (Fay & Frese, 2000) and has to make his/her own goals to anticipate on future demands and develop plans to actively prevent problems from occurring (Fay & Frese, 2001). Having ideas for work improvement is related to submitting ideas and getting a reward for these ideas (Frese, Teng, & Wijnen, 1999). This more transformational, pro-active approach influences the performance of employees positively because employees have and share their vision for work improvement.

A study of Carsten et al (2010) assessed interviews with followers about how they see effective followers. They found that a large part of the followers found it important to express opinions.

Thus, various constructs of visioning or giving an opinion of the follower have been stated in the literature. Drawing on the above we hypothesize that 'visioning, giving an opinion' behavior of the follower towards the leader is enhancing the follower effectiveness.

Hypothesis 1: 'Visioning, giving opinion' behavior of the follower towards the leader is positively related to follower effectiveness.

Task monitoring and follower-effectiveness

In the leadership task monitoring is defined as monitoring operations (Yukl et al, 1990). It involves the gathering of information about the tasks of the manager's organizational unit (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). Leaders use monitoring to check if followers carry out their tasks; the progression on their tasks is as planned, and the performance on tasks is adequate (Yukl, 2012). There are positive forms of monitoring as well as negative. Negative forms are types of monitoring that are intrusive, excessive, superficial, or irrelevant. Task monitoring has produced mixed results on various aspects of performance. In a group context, the use of monitoring is often seen as negative and followers dislike negative task-directed controlling behavior (van der Weide & Wilderom, 2004). This leader behavior may

demotivate followers and may result in negative performance and innovation (see e.g. Deci & Ryan, 2000). During staff meetings, task monitoring has been shown to lead to lower effectiveness (Wilderom & Hoogeboom, 2013).

For followers, upward controlling behavior (e.g., ingratiation and impression management) may lead, under moderation of LMX, to higher organizational outcomes (Schriesheim, Castro, & Yammarino, 2000). So in a leader-follower dyad, controlling behavior is about influencing the leader. In this study, task monitoring is about the behavior where a team-member monitors the tasks of another team-member. When a team-member is further asking for more information about projects or situations this is seen as 'task monitoring'. It is mostly the case that team members ask questions in order to implicitly monitor, control, check, or evaluates proceedings of team-members (van der Weide, 2006).

Because a follower is not monitoring the leader task monitoring could say that he or she wants to know more about projects or situations that occur in the organization. The follower is motivating a team-member to tell more about what they have done. A part of task monitoring could be 'clarifying', which means ensuring that contributions are to the point (Lehmann-Willenbrock, Meyers, Kauffeld, Neininger, & Henschel, 2011). When a follower is clarifying a lot during the meeting, this could mean that he or she does not know what to do and needs a more precise task description.

Behavior that could come close at task monitoring is behavior of the courageous follower. Chaleff (2009) states that the leader sometimes feels threatened when he faces direct confrontation. The problem is often that the leader is fixated on one idea, solution, or viewpoint. A courageous follower chooses the right tool to question the leader's ideas. "It begins a questioning process that can reveal flaws in the plan, unearth ways of proofing it against failure, enhance its potential, or lead to better alternatives" (Chaleff, 2009, p. 94). Because we study a public organization, where hierarchy is important, we propose that the

task monitoring of a follower is negatively related to follower effectiveness. This task monitoring in meetings through followers is a way of clarifying or questioning the leader or other team members. Because hierarchy is important and followers dislike being publicly controlled on tasks we expect a negative effect on follower performance.

H2: Task monitoring of the follower towards the leader is negatively related to follower effectiveness.

Informing and follower effectiveness

The definitions of information sharing and information exchange refer to both subjective and objective information. Objective informing is defined as "disseminating relevant information about decisions, plans, and activities to people who need the information to do their work" (Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, 1990, p. 225). However, in the new MPS, informing no longer exists (Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002). Also in later years, informing has not been reincorporated in the MPS (see also Yukl, 2013). Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, and Drasgow (2000) categorized leader informing as one of the eight categories of leader behaviors in their Empowering Leadership Questionnaire. Arnold et al. (2000, p. 255) define informing as the "leader's dissemination of company wide information such as mission and philosophy as well as other important information. This category included behaviors such as explaining company decisions to the team and informing the team about new developments in organizational policy." These leader informing behaviors assume objective/factual and subjective information. Borgatta (1962) distinguished between this objective and subjective information and included only objective information. This idea is shared by Greenhalgh and Chapman (1998) who stated that information sharing within teams is just "stating the facts" (p. 474). Our definition of informing behavior is in line with Yukl et al. (1990) giving factual of objective information to other team members.

Providing information is not only necessary for highly effective leaders (Gupta, Wilderom, & van Hillegersberg, 2009), informing also has impact on various team aspects, such as team learning (Bounderson & Baumgarden, 2010), team decision-making (Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002) and group performance (Moye & Langfred, 2004). Also, information sharing has shown to enhance team performance (see, for a review, Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009). A common assumption in the accounting sector is that followers know more about their operational areas than their leaders, because they have so-called private orlocalinformation (Parker & Kyj, 2006). When this information is communicated with the leader, problem-solving and budgeting or measurement processes are enhanced. Individual performance tends to be also positively related to information sharing (Parker & Kyj, 2006).

From this we propose that informing behavior of the follower could lead to a higher job performance.

H3: Informing behavior of the follower is positively related to follower effectiveness.

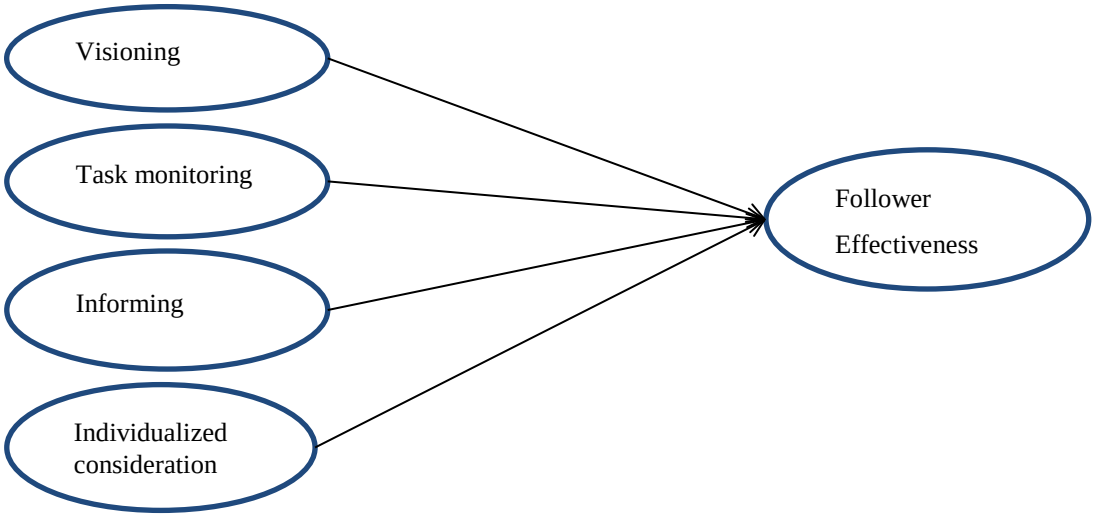
Individualized consideration and follower effectiveness

In the literature individualized consideration is an important leader behavior in an organization (Sarros, Gray, & Densten, 2002). It deals with the concern for each follower as an individual and with the follower's development (Bass, 1999). Leaders pay attention to each individual's need for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor (Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007). The individualized consideration of a leader is shown to be significantly related to follower performance (Wang et al. 2005). The question whether individualized consideration of the follower enhances performance (of ourselves, peers, and the leader) has not been answered. To our knowledge there is no scientific research that studies the relationship between individualized consideration of the follower and their own performance. However there are similar studies that research the relationship between liking and effectiveness. Thereby, liking is likely to be a component of the performance appraisal

(Cardy & Dobbins, 1986). Also, positive emotions are related to a better performance appraisal (Pugh, 2001). This means that liking each other and showing this is an important component of performance and therefore it related to follower effectiveness. In the follower behavior literature we could compare individualized consideration and the OCB behavior "helping" with each other. Helping is promoted behavior that emphasizes small acts of consideration (van Dyne & LePine, 1998). This helping behavior has significant influence on task performance (e.g., LePine & van Dyne, 2001; Whitling et al. 2011; van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

H4: Individual consideration of the follower is positively related to follower effectiveness.

In sum, after four hypotheses the model looks like this:



LMX as moderator for visioning, task monitoring, informing, and individualized consideration

To hypothesize LMX as moderator between visioning, task monitoring, and informing on the one hand and follower effectiveness on the other hand a better understanding of LMX is needed. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) state that high-LMX (in-group) members share mutual trust, reciprocal influence, loyalty, and a sense of obligation with their leaders. These

employees with high LMX relationships have more opportunities to speak up against the leader, exchange information or ideas with their supervisor, and use more communication channels compared to those in low LMX relationships (Fairhurst, 1993; Krone, 1991; Krone, 1992). Also these followers with high LMX relationships have been shown to predict higher levels of affiliative OCB (Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Voice behavior is another form of OCB and related to LMX (Botero & van Dyne, 2009; Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; van Dyne, Kamdar, & Joireman, 2008). We propose LMX as a moderator because there several differences between members of a team who have high LMX relationships and members of a team that have low LMX relationships (see e.g. Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995). As stated before, the relationship between visioning and effectiveness could be moderated by LMX because high LMX relationships have shown to be correlated with voice behavior and speaking up (Fairhurst, 1993). For the relationship between task monitoring and effectiveness we also propose that LMX is a moderator because task monitoring of the follower is the same as clarifying or monitoring. These are positively related to LMX (Yukl & Fu, 1999).

LMX is also related to information exchange (see, for a review, Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). We propose that LMX is a moderator because high LMX relationships are sharing more information compared with low LMX relationships (Davis & Gardner, 2004).

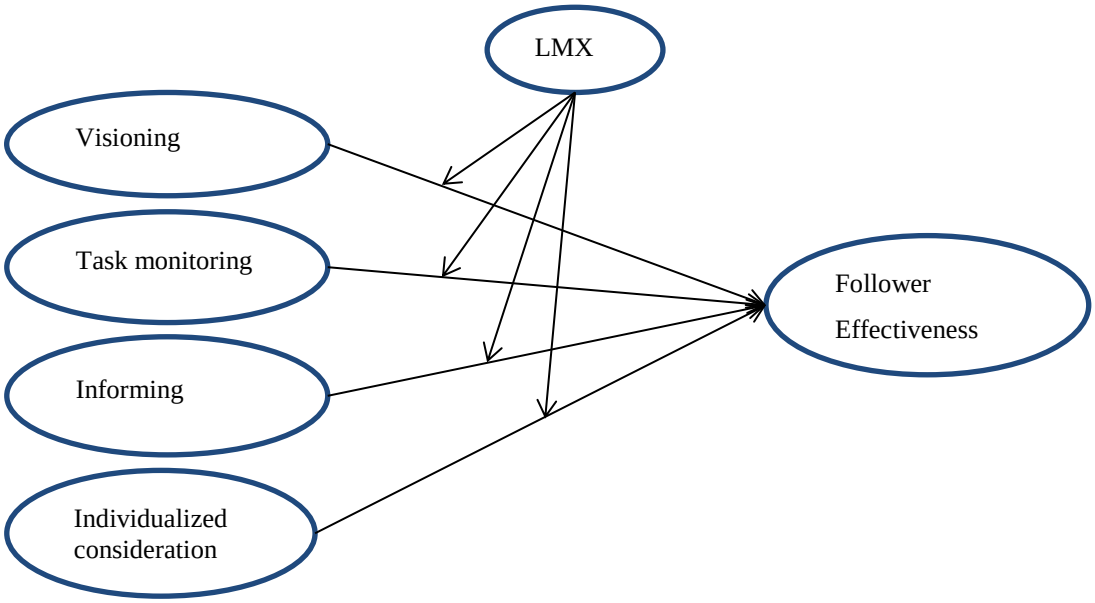
For the relationship between individualized consideration and follower effectiveness we also propose a moderation effect of LMX because liking and emotional support is one of the aspects of LMX (Davis & Gardner, 2004).

Hypothesis 5a: LMX moderates the relationship between visioning and follower effectiveness.

Hypothesis 5b: LMX moderates the relationship between task monitoring and follower effectiveness.

Hypothesis 5c: LMX moderates the relationship between informing and follower effectiveness.

Hypothesis 5d: LMX moderates the relationship between individualized consideration and follower effectiveness.



Method

Participants and Procedures

The sample consisted of 42 followers, employed by a private organization located in the Netherlands. These 42 followers were attending one of seven videotaped staff meetings. We decided to videotape regular staff meetings since meetings are prevalent in modern organizational life (Romano & Nunamaker, 2001). Effective team meetings have a strong relationship with job attitudes and well-being of followers (Rogelberg, Warr, Leach, & Burnfield, 2006) and these meetings represent important elements associated with performance (Perkins, 2009; Scott, Rogelberg, & Allen, 2010). These regular staff meetings had 4 to 8 participants. From the 42 followers, 30 were males, and 12 were females. These

followers were all teamleaders of a department; the leader in the filmed meetings was assistant manager for a region in the Netherlands.

Measures

Follower effectiveness. About a month after the meetings, we sent a questionnaire to the leader, containing questions about follower effectiveness and LMX. From Gibson et al. (2009) four items were used for capturing team performance (rescaled): in order to capture the overall sense of the effectiveness of the follower. Each follower was rated by their leader on a 1 to 10 scale. This leader was the same leader who chaired the staff meeting. The follower effectiveness was rated with the following four items: (1) "This employee is consistently a high performing employee", (2) "This employee is effective", (3) "This employee makes a few mistakes", and (4) "This employee does high quality work".

LMX. The LMX-7 (see, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) was used to measure the LMX between leader and follower. Sample items included "Do you know where you stand with your leader…do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?" and "I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so."

Video-observation Method

Before the meetings, two video-cameras were installed in the meeting room where the regularly staff meetings always were held). Several microphones were installed on the table in order to have a good quality of sound. All the meetings attendants were assured that all recordings would stay anonymous and confidential. When a part of the meeting was confidential the camera was turned off, but this only occurred two times for a few minutes in the seven recorded meetings in total. In our experience, after a few moments in the meeting room the video-camera blended into the background (Erickson, 1992; Mead, 1995). In addition to this video-observation process, a question was added to the surveys of all

participants in order to ask them about the degree to which the behavior during the video-taped meeting was representative in comparison with other regularly held staff meetings. Participant's answers to these two questions were scored on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (not representative) to 7 (highly representative). The both questions were representative (M = 5.9, SD = .77; M = 5.6, SD = .95)

The seven meetings had a total video time of 738 minutes. The mean meeting duration was 105 minutes. In order to analyze the video-tapes, a standard and internationally used behavioral transcription software program 'The Observer XT 11.5' (Noldus, Trienes, Hendriksen, Jansen, & Jansen, 2000; Zimmerman, Bolhuis, Willemsen, Meyer, & Noldus, 2009) was utilized. This software program is specifically designed for the collection, analysis, presentation and management of observational data (Noldus et al., 2000; Visser, 1993). Two raters independently coded the 7 video-tapes. The two coders had on average five years of educational background in the Social Sciences, with Bachelor degrees in Business Administration or Psychology. Each coder received the 15-page behavioral coding scheme (van der Weide, 2007) and received a training with example-videos. This behavioral observation scheme was designed and developed by previous studies (e.g., van der Weide 2007; Gupta, Wilderom, & van Hillegersberg, 2009; Nijhuis, Hulsman, Wilderom, van den Berg, 2009). For an overview of the behaviors that are coded, see Appendix A.

With help of The Observer the fequency and duration of each behavior was measured. After coding each meeting, the two coders discussed their results with help of the so-called inter-rater reliability and confusion error matrix, which are generated by The Observer. When significant differences occurred, the video-fragment was reviewed, resulting in argued and reasoned re-coding based on the codingscheme. This resulted in a 'Golden File' which was used for further research. The obtained inter-rater reliability was therefore 100%. Appendix A contains a number of illustrative examples of each of the categorized behaviors. Appendix B

contains the percentage of each coded behavior. In total, 13346 behaviors were coded in a total of 738 minutes of meetingtime. Because the meetings varied in duration we standardized each meeting to the shortest, which had a duration of 79 minutes. The three behaviors that were used for the hypotheses were defined as follows. The four behaviors that are hypothesized were coded following the coding scheme of van der Weide (2006). He states that 'visioning, giving an opinion' is the behavior where a team-member states his/her goals. A team member gives his own opinion about important cases and non-important cases. Visioning is the case when a team member states how his unit has to be structured in the future in order to enhance productivity or to reach other goals. This 'visioning, giving an opinion' behavior has not been researched in relation with follower effectiveness.

Informing is the behavior where a team member is giving (business) information to another team member. It is not necessary that the information is from a team member itself, but it could be from an external source. Facts that are given are also informing behavior (Van der Weide, 2006).

Task monitoring is the behavior where one team member checks the status of a task of other team members. When a team member asks about more information about a project or tasks this is task monitoring behavior (Van der Weide, 2006).

Individualized consideration is coded as the behavior where a team-member shows personal interest in another team-member. For example asking about personal things is a form of individualized consideration (Van der Weide, 2006).

Control Variables

Gender was used as control variable in the analysis. These variables have been shown to be related to employee performance. Research has als found higher turnover amongst women (Cotton, Tuttle, 1986; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007), so a control variable for gender was used. The second control variable was group size. This variable is often used as a

control variable (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; De Dreu & West, 2001) because larger teams have the potential for more heterogeneity (e.g., Jackson et al., 1991). Because the questionnaire was send one month after data collection a control question was made: 'Has the image of the effectiveness of this particular follower been changed compared to the moment that the meeting was filmed?'. This question could be answered by 'negatively changed', 'stayed neutral', and 'positively changed'. The average score on this question was 2.3 (SD = .55).

Analytical Procedures

Because of the small sample size we used Partial Least Squares (PLS) analysis (Chin, 1998; Wold, 1982). PLS is a structural equation modeling (SEM) technique which is more appropriate for testing predictive research models during the early stages of theory building (Barclay, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995; Fornell & Bockstein, 1982). Compared with SEM PLS does not assume multivariate normality inadequacies such as missing values, model misspecification, multicollinearity among observed and latent variables, and violation of the usual statistical assumptions such as multivariate normality (Cassel, Hackl, & Westland, 1999; Chin & Newstad, 1999; Faulk & Miller, 1992). PLS generates more robust estimates when the sample size is relatively small (Chin, 1998; Qureshi & Compeau, 2009). Due to these advantages PLS has been used by a number of studies in leadership (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003; Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Sosik, Avolio, & Jung, 2002).

We implemented the Marcoulides and Saunders (2006) guidelines in order to avoid the possible pitfall of blindly applying PLS to inadequate data. The most important guideline is that PLS should not be used when the study has an insufficient sample size. Chin (1998) recommends that the sample size should be greater than ten times the largest number of indicators for a latent factor or the largest number of predictors for a latent outcome. In our model, the largest number of indicators was 2, and the largest number of predictors 1. This made that the minimum sample size required is 20, which makes the present sample of 42

satisfactory. We ensured that our theoretical model is built upon the most recent developments and knowledge in the relevant literature. We had no missing values in the data and checked the normality of the observed variables and found that all estimates of skewness and kurtosis were in acceptable range.

To test the hypothesis where LMX acted as moderator we performed the same method as Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999). The model where visioning, task monitoring, informing, and individualized consideration were related to follower effectiveness was tested twice under high LMX and low LMX conditions. To partition the data, we first measured the mean of the sum of the LMX questions in order to get a mean LMX score. Then, we split the data of the mean LMX scores through the median. This gave us a high LMX group and a low LMX group. PLS tests the model separately for both groups of cases. For both groups we generate path coefficients and standard errors from PLS analysis. With an unpaired *t* test the significance of the differences between the path coefficients of high LMX and low LMX was tested (Howell, & Avolio, 1993). A *p* value of .05 was used to test significance.

Results

Descriptive statistics. The test of the models includes three primary parts: 1) individual item reliability, 2) internal consistency, and 3) discriminant validity. The individual item reliability is measured through the examining of factor loadings. In practice, the generally accepted cutoff is .7 or higher (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) although this standard is often relaxed, especially when using well-established scales (Barclays, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995). Besides item 1 of LMX all factor loadings were above .7. We also measured the variance between groups to control for nested data. With an ANOVA test we can conclude that the data is not nested ($F = 1.658$, n.s.)

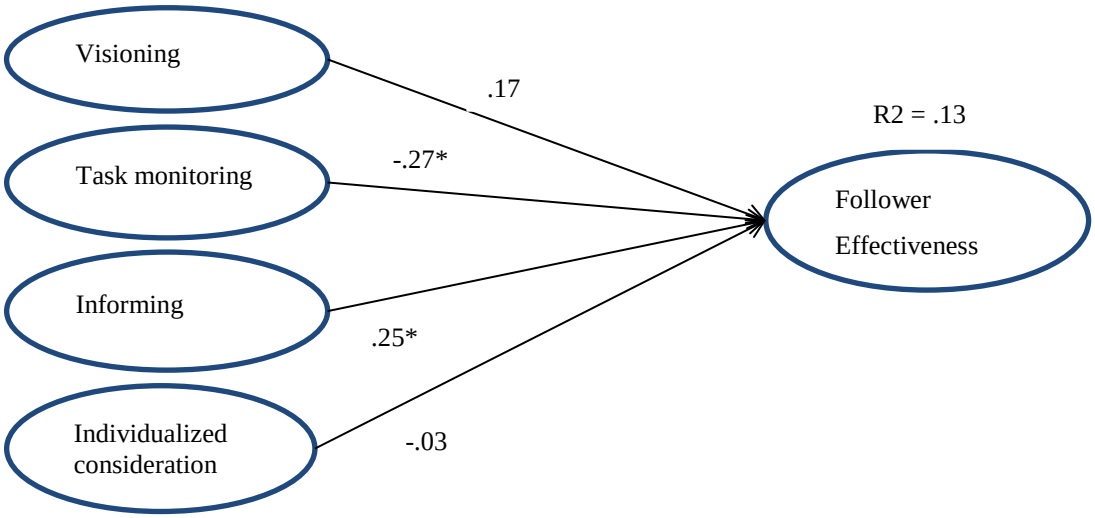
[Insert Table 3 here]

The statistical procedure of PLS provides the internal composite reliability (ICR) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of the measures in the model (Chin, 1998). In PLS, internal consistency is established by this AVE and ICR. In this data the AVE was .82 for follower effectiveness and .53 for LMX. This is greater than the minimum of 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The ICR for follower effectiveness was .90 and .88 for LMX. The discriminant validity is not measured in this model, because the behaviors have no factors and LMX is only used as a moderator.

Hypotheses were tested with the bootstrapping method in smartPLS 2.0, PLS path modeling program (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005). In order to get the model tested we conducted 200 bootstrap iterations. First, we tested the model with the first four hypotheses. Hypothesis 1, where the relationship between visioning of the follower and the effectiveness of the follower is measured, was not significant (β = .17, t = 1.363, n.s.). The relationship between task monitoring and effectiveness was significant (β = -.27, t = 2.488, p<.05). The third hypothesis, which contained the relationship between informing and effectiveness was also significant (β = .25, t = 2.480, p<.05). The fourth hypothesis, between individualized consideration and effectiveness, was not significant (β = -.03, t = 0.295, n.s.).

[Insert Table 4 here]

An overview of the model:



The second model that we tested involved LMX as a moderator. In hypothesis 5a, we posited that visioning would produce higher follower effectiveness when LMX was high rather than low. This hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis 5b was also not supported, high and low LMX made no significant difference in the relationship between task monitoring and follower effectiveness. As shown in Table 4 there was a significant result for hypothesis 5c, where high and low LMX had a significant different effect on the relationship between informing and follower effectiveness. The last hypothesis 5d was not supported. High and low LMX had no significant different impact on the relationship between individualized consideration and follower effectiveness.

Discussion

Support for this study's hypotheses 2, 3, and 5c add to the emerging leader-follower behavior literature as follows: informing and verifying of the follower have a positive relationship with follower effectiveness. Also LMX is a moderator in the relationship between informing and follower effectiveness.

Several variables like followers' attitudes, followers' values, and followers' personality are linked to follower effectiveness (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; Gardner et al., 2005; Hanges, Offerman, & Day, 2001). The objective measure which was used, measured the frequency of the behavior a follower exposed in the staff meeting. So, the more a follower shows a particular behavior the higher his or her effectiveness should be.

This study offers insight in the behavior of followers in a regular staff meeting. Hypothesis 1 posits that expressing an opinion or visioning is related to follower effectiveness. The relation was not significant hence follower effectiveness does not seem determined by the frequency with which followers utter opinions, in their staff meetings. Comparing these results with the existing literature is rather difficult because, as we know of, this direct relationship has not been researched in the past. Only voice behavior research has

tried to find a relationship with follower effectiveness (Whitling et al, 2011). However, the definition of employee voice is a little bit different from the definition that is given to expressing opinions (LePine & van Dyne, 1998; van der Weide, 2006). Also these results are not in line with research from Carsten et al. (2010) which states that pro-active followers find it important to express their ideas and to take initiative. However, they also state that passive and active followers do not find expressing opinions or taking initiative important for a follower. A reason why this hypothesis is not accepted could be that the data is obtained from a public organization that recently went private. In these organizations, hierarchy is very important and could lead to followers who do not dare to speak up and give their opinion.

The second hypothesis guided the testing of the link between task monitoring and follower effectiveness. We found a significant relation between both variables: a negative relationship between task monitoring and follower effectiveness. To the best of our knowledge, there is no literature that suggests and tests this relationship. Only Wilderom and Hoogeboom (2013) tested task monitoring in relation to *leader* effectiveness. We assumed that task monitoring is the same as clarifying or checking/controlling tasks of the other employees. When a leader is less effective it was found that he or she would engage in more clarifying and controlling from the followers. When a follower has a relatively lower performance it could be that he/she needs more clarifying of what is needed in order to fulfill a task. When a follower has problems in understanding tasks or goals of the team, he or she will ask others which in turn may lower follower performance.

The third hypothesis is about informing. The informing of the follower to other members of the staff meeting was significantly related to their effectiveness. In previous research the link between information exchange and group effectiveness and leader effectiveness has been shown to be significant (Mesmer-Magnus & DeChurch, 2009; Moye & Langfred, 2004; Yukl & Becker, 2006). Information sharing tends to be linked to employee

satisfaction (Bontis, Richards, & Serenko, 2011), where employee satisfaction is linked to follower performance (Brass, 1985; Netemeyer, Maxham III, & Lichtenstein, 2010). Information sharing is also linked to employee creativity (Gong, Cheung, Wang, & Huang, 2012), which in turn may be related to performance (Madjar & Ortiz-Walters, 2009). The results of this research follow the path of results of other research and gain more understanding in informing behavior of followers. Most of the research that has been conducted in the past has made use of surveys to measure the concept of informing. This paper adds a new dimension to these results in the form of minutely coding of (factual!) informing behavior in staff meetings.

The fourth hypothesis is about followers that show individualized consideration towards other team members. The result was not significant. This is possibly so because of a small sample size. Moreover, individualized consideration is not a behavior with high frequency during meetings (see Table 4). More research on individualized consideration during staff meetings is needed in order to add knowledge to this result.

The last hypothesis is about the moderation effect of LMX on the relationship between visioning, task monitoring, informing, and individualized consideration on the one hand and effectiveness, on the other. The results only show a significant difference between the high LMX and the low LMX group for informing. This adds to our knowledge that high LMX relationships have a higher information exchange and therefore their effectiveness could be also higher. These results are in line with previous research that have indicated a relationship between information exchange and LMX, where some have even used an information exchange scale in order to measure LMX (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989).

Some researchers say that the follower should be pro-active in order to have a high effectiveness (Crant, 1995; Thompson, 2005). Other scholars say that having an opinion or be pro-active is not what an effective follower is (Carsten et al, 2010; Sy, 2010). In our results it

could be the case that proactivity of the follower is already integrated in the culture of the organization and therefore it is something that determines the effectiveness.

Researchers have shown that a proactive personality predicts several individual and organizational outcomes (e.g. Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999; van Dyne & LePine, 1998; also see a meta-analysis by Fuller & Marler, 2009). On the other hand, the key for success of a leader is extraversion. "Extraversion is the most consistent correlate of leadership across study settings and leadership criteria" (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002, p:765). In relation to proactive employees, however, a leader with low extraversion creates higher profits when the employee is proactive (Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011). In the light of this, the reason why there were no significant results could be because there was a highly extraverted leader.

The results of this research are useful to those who are interested in effective leadership. For example shared leadership states that leadership is not in the hand of one person, but rather in the group's arms as they move together toward common objectives (Pearce, Hoch, Jeppesen, & Wegge, 2010). For shared leadership it would be important to know what roles a leader has to fulfill but also what roles a follower has to fulfill. Because we showed, for example, that follower informing is related to follower performance it is important in teams that followers get engaged in shared leadership with an atmosphere that enhances or enables information sharing between group members.

Strengths, Weaknesses, and Future Research Directions

The first strength of this research is the use of video-observing in combination with the questionnaires. Adding the video observation to surveys reduces common method bias because two persons code the followers minutely through an extant observation scheme, containing mutually exclusive behavioral categories. The observation scheme was developed based on various academic sources and was used in order to reliably code by outside

observers. This more or less objective measurement is an addition to the subjective measurement, through the questionnaires that were completed by the leaders of the meeting. In order to add objective results to the subjective measures that are mostly used, this combining of methods is recommended in future studies of follower behavior.

A second strength of the study is the behavioral approach to followers. To acknowledge a deeper understanding of how a follower behaves (and should behave in order to be effective) it is necessary to study how this follower actually behaves. To integrate the follower in leadership it is necessary to gain information about how the follower is actually behaving in an organization, for example in a staff meeting. To the best our knowledge, no research has taken an objective behavioral approach to followers for purposes of extending the followership literature.

Although the mix of subjective and objective measures strengthens this paper, there are a few limitations. The first limitation is the small sample size. Although one video contains several thousands of behaviors, a sample of 40 followers is not enough to generalize beyond the confines of this study. More similar research is needed with much larger samples to add strength to these results, but most of all, add an objective measure to the subjective measures that are commonly used in the field of effective leadership and followership.

Another recommendation is with regards to the organization where the research took place. The data came from an organization that was recently privatized. Therefore the public sector culture still exists. When looking at leadership in public sector organizations, a relation based leadership style like transformational leadership is thought to be less effective (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Shamir & Howell, 1999). Also the hierarchical structure and weak upward communication are negatively associated with relations based leadership (Wright & Pandey, 2010).

Further research is needed in order to add more knowledge about the relationship between visioning, task monitoring, informing, on the one side, and follower effectiveness, on the other side. Also the relationship between pro-activity and follower effectiveness needs to be researched more in order to create a deeper understanding. This research is an exploratory-type first step in order to create this deeper understanding because it contains a well-defined and academical-based coding scheme, is hypotheses-based, and has addressed several of the earlier noted pitfalls in this fairly new line of study. However, to advance the followership literature, and to understand the role of the leader, longitudinal research is needed to gain insight in the role of the leader who is enabling follower pro-activity and presumably thereby potentially enhancing follower effectiveness.

Practical Implications

From the start of the followership literature, pro-activity of followers is an issue (Chaleff, 2007). Do leaders really want their followers to have their own opinion and constructively challenge the leader? This research meant to find behaviors of followers that are related to their effectiveness. We found significant relationships between task monitoring, and informing, on the one hand, and follower effectiveness, on the other. This research could be the start of revealing the construct of pro-activity in an objective way. Subjective measures of employee pro-activity are either supervisor reports or self-reports. Using both subjective and objective measures will give us a greater understanding on the degree and use of pro-activity of the followers. Employees' pro-activity has several outcomes that are of benefit to organizations, like job performance and several other desirable work outcomes (Crant, 1995; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). This research can add substantial knowledge in facilitating this research into employees pro-activity and can give understanding in how the construct of pro-activity has to develop and how it works in practice. This could lead to a deeper and greater understanding and enhances effectiveness.

The last practical implication which is given by the video-observation method is the opportunity to give specific training to leaders in order to gain more pro-activity from his or her followers. Staff meetings are a great opportunity for leaders to create a shared understanding of the current and future priorities (van Ginkel & van Knippenberg, 2012). Training, for instance, could give the leader tools to be less talkative and give the team members the opportunity to speak up. This enhances pro-activity and group performance (Grant, Gino, & Hofmann, 2011). Also, it could train leaders in asking the right questions to enhance voice climate, which also increases identification and satisfaction of team members (Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamdar, 2011).

Conclusion

With the use of not only subjective but also objective measures, this study tries to add knowledge to the leadership and followership literature. The objective measure was a video-observation method where the behaviors of 42 followers in 7 regular staff meetings were coded with the help of a coding scheme. The subjective measure consisted of a questionnaire that measured the effectiveness and LMX of the followers: through the eyes of the leader. Two transformational behaviors (Visioning and Individualized consideration) and two transactional behaviors (Informing and Task monitoring) were coded and related to follower effectiveness. As expected, informing positively- and task monitoring negatively related to effectiveness. LMX moderated the relation between informing and follower effectiveness. These results could take the process of seeing leadership as a co-production of leaders and followers to the next phase. It contributes to the understanding of the follower, how he or she behaves, and how this is related to his or her effectiveness. This could have important implications for how leaders should behave in order to create pro-activity and therefore higher leader and follower effectiveness.

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Table 2.
Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations of the variables in the study

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1 Group size	6.24	1.19					
2 Gender	1.29	0.46	-.04				
3 Follower effectiveness [1]	6.48	1.15	.40*	-.06			
4 Visioning[2]	19.08	12.09	-.31*	.02	.17		
5 Informing[2]	26.70	14.38	-.26*	.16	.25*		
6 Task Monitoring[2]	24.80	23.39	.11	.02	-.27*		
7 Individualized Consideration	1.03	1.36	-.06	.56*	-.03		

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of gender, follower effectiveness, giving an opinion, informing, and task monitoring (n=42)
*p < ,05, one-tailed.
[1] Variables measured through surveys filled in by the leader
[2] Variables measured through systematic and minute video-based coding of MSc. Students

Table 3
Partial Least Squares Analysis of Unmoderated and Moderated Models

	Unmoderated model		Moderated model			
			Low LMX		High LMX	
Hypothesis and proposed path	Standardized path coefficient	*t* (42)	Standardized path coefficient	*t* (20)	Standardized path coefficient	*t* (22)
Hypothesis 5a. Visioning	.17	1.363	.59	1.20	-.02	.23
Hypothesis 5b. Task monitoring	-.27	2.488*	-.84	1.45	.03	.25
Hypothesis 5c. Informing	.25	2.480*	-.18	1.18	.61	8.46***
Hypothesis 5d. Individualized Consideration	-.03	0.295	-.09	.64	-.08	.82

Note. The unmoderated model includes all cases across both high and low LMX, whereas the moderated model tests the model under two different conditions: low LMX (n = 20) and high LMX (n = 22). The variance explained in follower effectiveness by all measures was 13.8% for the unmoderated model, 38.2% for the high LMX moderated model, and 36.8% for the low LMX moderated model.

* $p < .05$. *** $p < .0005$

Appendix A
Examples of all behaviors

	Example
Delegating	“Could you do this [task] for me?” “Could you two find out how this works?”
Agreeing	“Yes” “Yes, I agree” “That is true”
Defending own position	“I could not have known that” “I have nothing to do with it”
Structuring the conversation	“Ok, lets go to the next point” “Lets begin this meeting”
Using humor	“He is looking like he does not know anything! [laughing]”
Informing	“We score significant lower on accountability”
Interrupting	“Can I say something?” “
Listening	“And then...?” “oke....”
Negative feedback	“I think that is a bad idea”
Null behavior	“We are being filmed”
Disagreeing	“I do not agree with you” “That is not true”
Showing disinterest	[Talking with other team members about other things]
Directing	“You two have to do that [task]”
Individualized consideration	“How are things with your son?”
Positive feedback	“That is a good plan”
Intellectual stimulation	“Do you have any plans regarding this” “How could we heighten this grade”
Visioning	“That system is really tough to understand” “Keep in mind that this system will require more attention”
Task monitoring	“How did you do that?” “Where did you get that from?”

Appendix B
Percentage of behaviors in the seven meetings

	Meeting 1	**Meeting 2**	**Meeting 3**	**Meeting 4**	**Meeting 5**	**Meeting 6**	**Meeting 7**	**Gemiddelde**
Delegating	1,43%	1,00%	1,69%	0,00%	1,57%	0,39%	0,15%	**0,89%**
Agreeing	5,87%	4,65%	4,43%	7,08%	4,98%	7,24%	2,63%	**5,27%**
Defending own position	0,14%	0,00%	1,43%	0,24%	0,79%	1,17%	0,46%	**0,61%**
Structuring the conversation	5,44%	10,63%	5,48%	8,96%	5,24%	2,94%	6,49%	**6,45%**
Using humor	0,57%	0,33%	0,65%	0,00%	0,26%	1,76%	1,08%	**0,67%**
Informing	8,87%	13,29%	10,30%	11,32%	11,66%	11,94%	8,96%	**10,91%**
Interrupting	7,01%	1,33%	9,00%	2,59%	6,81%	6,85%	5,10%	**5,53%**
Listening	41,34%	42,19%	37,29%	46,23%	45,32%	39,14%	43,28%	**42,11%**
Negative feedback	0,14%	0,00%	1,43%	0,00%	0,00%	0,59%	0,31%	**0,35%**
Null behavior	0,14%	0,66%	0,39%	0,71%	0,13%	0,39%	0,62%	**0,44%**
Disagreeing	0,00%	0,00%	1,43%	0,00%	0,39%	0,78%	0,62%	**0,46%**
Showing disinterest	0,14%	0,66%	0,65%	0,00%	0,39%	0,00%	0,00%	**0,26%**
Directing	0,00%	0,00%	0,13%	0,00%	0,52%	0,98%	0,15%	**0,26%**
Individualized consideration	0,43%	0,66%	0,91%	0,47%	1,05%	2,74%	6,96%	**1,89%**
Positive feedback	1,72%	4,32%	1,83%	1,18%	3,01%	1,96%	4,79%	**2,69%**
Intellectual stimulation	4,58%	5,32%	0,91%	3,77%	1,83%	1,37%	1,55%	**2,76%**
Visioning	10,30%	6,64%	13,30%	11,32%	5,63%	11,35%	10,20%	**9,82%**
Task monitoring	11,87%	8,31%	8,21%	6,13%	10,35%	8,41%	6,65%	**8,56%**