An employeeship model and its relation to psychological climate

A study of congruence in the behavior of leaders and followers

Bertlett, Johan

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An Employeeship Model and its Relation to Psychological Climate
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Abstract

This doctoral dissertation was driven by an inspiration to study how employees behave toward each other from an interactive perspective where all members of an organization are considered active contributors. *Employeeship* holds this perspective and acknowledges the importance of productive relationships. The objective of this dissertation is to contribute to the conceptual and methodological development of employeeship. The aims are further to construct and present the *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR) that visualizes the leadership, peer employee, and leader-follower perspectives of employeeship, to present and test two questionnaires by which the ELR Model is operationalized, and to study the behavioral factors of the ELR Model (i.e., vertical *leadership behavior*, horizontal *peer employee behavior*, and reciprocal *congruent leader-follower behavior*) relative to *psychological climate*.

Three studies were conducted of which two were empirical and carried out at Stockholm-Arlanda airport in Sweden. The first empirical study included the apron and passenger services of a ground handling company, tower and ground control of air traffic service, and an airline's operation division. The second empirical study included the same divisions of the ground handling company and the ground control of air traffic service. The psychological climate was measured with the *Creative Climate Questionnaire* (CCQ; Ekvall, 1990), the leadership behavior with a modified version (Holmkvist, 2000) of the *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description* (LEAD; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), the peer employee behavior with the *Your Employeeship Questionnaire* (YEQ; Appendix B), and the congruent leader-follower behavior was computed based on the responses from corresponding items of the LEAD and YEQ.

In the first study (*Paper I*) employeeship was contextualized relative to other established organizational concepts. The study further contributed to the conceptualization of employeeship and defined it as *the behavior that constitutes the dynamic process of mutual work relationships between two or more employees based on task and social abilities*. The study also presented the ELR Model, suitable methods to collect data, and research questions to test the model followed by a discussion of possible strengths and shortcomings. The main concluding remark was that the ELR Model covers the hierarchical perspective of top-down driven leadership, the horizontal perspective of peer employee, and the reciprocal perspective of leader-follower behaviors to be included in the same analysis.

The purposes of the first empirical study (*Paper II*) were to test the ELR Model, the YEQ, and the combination of the LEAD and YEQ. To do so it was hypothesized that the three factors of the ELR Model correlated with selected psychological climate dimensions with which employeeship shares some conceptually central components. It was further hypothesized that congruent leader-follower behavior augmented the value of leadership behavior and its positive correlation with the climate dimensions. The results showed that: 1) there is a relation between the ELR Model's three factors and the psychological climate, 2) the YEQ measures behaviors relevant to the ELR Model, and 3) congruent leader-follower behavior partly augments the importance of leadership behavior in explaining psychological climate.

The second empirical study (*Paper III*) replicated the analyses of the first empirical study with an amended design that: 1) divided the factors of the ELR Model based on four situational dimensions: *individual-success*, *individual-hardship*, *group-success*, and *group-hardship* and 2) included follow-up data to determine if the results could be replicated. The aim was to perform a detailed investigation of the ELR Model in order to provide a more complete picture about its applicability. The question was whether the situational dimensions of leadership, peer employee, and congruent leader-follower behaviors were related to the psychological climate. The most important finding was that congruent leader-follower behavior is related to psychological climate with some variations between the situational dimensions. A hierarchical regression analyses also showed that congruent leader-follower behavior augments the importance of leadership behavior and its relationship to psychological climate. The results were partly supported in the follow-up study.

The main conclusions were that congruent leader-follower behavior expands leadership beyond the traditional conceptions of formal leadership and subordination in organizational hierarchies, that organizations should use this finding in their training programs and include followers in leadership development, and that the ELR Model can facilitate the understanding of how employeeship works in different work situations where leaders and follower can learn how to support each other to reach congruent behavior.

Keywords: employeeship, ELR Model, leadership, leader-follower behavior, employee behavior, work relationships, psychological climate

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Johan Bertlett
Helsingborg, November 2010

List of papers

The list of papers includes the authors' contributions and the appended papers can be found at the end of the dissertation. The doctoral dissertation is based on the following three papers which will be referred to by their Roman numerals:

I Bertlett, J., Johansson, C. R., & Arvidsson, M. (2010a)

Employeeship concept: A holistic model of work relationships focused on leader and follower behaviors

Manuscript submitted for publication

Bertlett and Johansson formulated the objectives and discussed the outline of the paper. Bertlett wrote the paper. All authors reflected and commented on the drafts of the article.

II Bertlett, J., Johansson, C. R., & Arvidsson, M. (2010b)

A two-way approach of congruent behavior between leaders and staff in the employeeship concept: Test of model, questionnaires, and influence on climate

Manuscript submitted for publication

Bertlett and Johansson formulated the objectives and design of the study. Bertlett planned and performed the questionnaire survey, carried out the data analysis, and wrote the paper. All authors reflected on the results presented in drafts of the article.

III Bertlett, J., Bäckström, M., Jern, S., & Arvidsson, M. (2010c)

A baseline and follow-up study of the Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model: Do the four facets contribute?

Manuscript submitted for publication

Bertlett and Jern formulated the objectives and Bertlett and Bäckström, the design of the study. Bertlett planned and performed the questionnaire survey, carried out the data analysis, and wrote the paper. All authors reflected on the results presented in drafts of the article.

Other papers by Bertlett (born Jönsson) published in proceedings and presented at international conferences

Jönsson, J., Johansson, C. R., & Arvidsson, M. (2009). Bet on both sides of the coin to improve the organizational climate: The impact of congruent task and role clarity between leaders and staff. *Paper presented at the Eighth USA/ Europe Air Traffic Management Research and Development Seminar (ATM 2009)*. Napa, CA, USA, June 29-July 2. Retrieved August 27, 2010, from http://atm2003.eurocontrol.fr/8th-seminar-united-states-june2009/papers/paper_126

Heimdal, J., Arvidsson, M., Ek, Å., & Jönsson, J. (2008). Participative processes for sustainable changes in European ATM and enabling methods within the SESAR context. *Proceedings of the 28th Conference of the European Association for Aviation Psychology: The Future of Aviation Psychology Enabling Operational Improvements and Meeting Business Requirements in Aviation* (pp. 264-269). Valencia, Spain, October 27-31. Retrieved August 27, 2010, from http://www.eaap.net/fileadmin/Eaap/downloads/28EAAPValencia2008/PROCEEDINGS_28th_EAAP_-_standard.pdf

Jönsson, J., Johansson, C. R., Arvidsson, M., & Akselsson, R. (2007). Introducing "medarbetarskap" as a concept facilitating work-related relationships: Theoretical considerations in an airport change process. In D. de Waard, G.R.J. Hockey, P. Nickel, and K.A. Brookhuis (Eds.), *Human Factors Issues in Complex System Performance* (pp. 497 - 509). Maastricht, the Netherlands: Shaker Publishing.

Jönsson, J., Johansson, C. R., & Akselsson, R. (2006). Collaborative Decision Making (CDM) – A pilot study exploring participation and empowerment before implementing new technology and work procedures. In D. de Waard, K.A. Brookhuis, and A. Toffetti (Eds.), *Developments in Human Factors in Transportation, Design, and Evaluation* (pp. 237-248). Maastricht, the Netherlands: Shaker Publishing.

Contents

Abstract ..... **iii**

Acknowledgments ..... **v**

List of papers ..... **vi**

1 Introduction **1**

Surrounding conditions and basic needs of research 1

Collaborative decision making (CDM) 1

The Stockholm-Arlanda and Lund University collaboration 2

2 Research objectives **3**

General research aims 3

3 Research setting **4**

Stockholm-Arlanda airport 4

Ground handling 4

Air traffic service (ATS) 5

An airline's operations division 6

The connection between the research setting and the research project's objectives 6

4 Theoretical framework **7**

Reflections at the outset of a journey 7

Leadership 10

Employeeship 12

From organizational to psychological climate 16

Organizational climate for innovations 18

5 Purposes and research questions **20**

6 Methodology **23**

Instruments 23

Leadership assessment 23

Employeeship assessment 25

Psychological climate assessment 28

Participants 29

Procedure 30

Statistical analyses 31

7 Summary of papers 33

Paper I. Employeeship concept: A holistic model of work relationships focused on leader and follower behaviors 33
Paper II. A two-way approach of congruent behavior between leaders and staff in the employeeship concept: Test of model, questionnaires, and influence on climate 35
Paper III. A baseline and follow-up study of the Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model: Do the four facets contribute? 36

8 Discussion 39

Methodological concerns 44
Conclusions and practical implications 46
Limitations and future research 47
Reflections at the end of a journey 47

9 Svensk sammanfattning Summary in Swedish 49

10 References 53

Appendix 61

I Employeeship concept: A holistic model of work relationships focused on leader and follower behaviors 65
II A two-way approach of congruent behavior between leaders and staff in the employeeship concept: Test of model, questionnaires, and influence on climate 89
III A baseline and follow-up study of the Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model: Do the four facets contribute? 113
A Your employeeship questionnaire manual: A survey of the relationships at your workplace 139
B Your employeeship questionnaire: A survey of the relationships at your workplace 161

1 Introduction

Surrounding conditions and basic needs of research

It is widely recognized that airports are one of the major bottlenecks in the future of aviation (SESAR-consortium, 2006). Many airports are already working at maximum capacity and hence are investing in new runways and bigger terminals. Other ways to improve capacity are to better the procedures regarding arrival, turn-round, and departure. The turn-round concerns the activities that take place while the aircraft is standing at the gate. Examples of activities are: passenger boarding, baggage handling, fuelling, catering, cleaning, and de-icing. It is an extensive list of activities which requires intra- and inter-organizational co-operation as teams and organizations have the same overarching goal of preparing the aircraft in time for the next flight. To improve this there is a need to change the way the organizations share information, as well as improvements and harmonization in technology. One such attempt is called collaborative decision making (CDM), which is initiated on a European level and either implemented or in the process of being implemented at several major European airports. One of these is Stockholm-Arlanda airport in Sweden.

Collaborative decision making (CDM)

CDM is an operational concept (e.g., new technology, work procedures, and assignments) aimed at facilitating airport turn-round processes both on a local airport level and on an integrated European level. Successful CDM demands cooperation and information sharing between all participating stakeholders. CDM is expected to be implemented at Stockholm-Arlanda airport in two steps. The first step concerns the arrival phase. By implementing new technology the airport aims at enhancing the predictability concerning the target in-block time, that is, the time the aircraft takes to reach the gate. The second step concerns the departure phase including the turn-round process to improve the target off-block time, that is, the time the aircraft takes to leave the gate and being prepared for takeoff.

The Stockholm-Arlanda and Lund University collaboration

There has been an ongoing collaboration between LFV (the air navigation service provider), Swedavia Swedish airports, and Lund University since 1998, which has resulted in numerous master theses and two doctoral dissertations concerning psychological, organizational, and human factors aspects in Swedish air traffic control. A need for further research was identified following the introduction of CDM at Stockholm-Arlanda airport. New technology and work procedures affecting tasks, methods, and inter-organizational collaboration were soon to be implemented.

In 2005 representatives from Stockholm-Arlanda airport and Lund University agreed to launch a new project. The aim was to study *leadership*, *employeeship*, and *psychological climate* all through the change and implementation process as it was of utmost importance that the changes did not have a negative impact on the work of the affected employees. It was also decided to use a climate questionnaire that focused on innovation and change. Innovation and willingness to change were assumed to be difficult to create in the regulated business that governs airports, but nevertheless important in order to manage the forthcoming changes. The representatives of Stockholm-Arlanda airport were interested in gaining information about the relation between the studied factors and the key performance indicators (e.g., on-time demand and predictability) in order to facilitate the implementation and to transfer knowledge between different groupings.

It was planned to conduct three measurement rounds at one ground handling company, one airline's operations division, and the ground and tower controls of air traffic service. Due to several delays in implementing technology and procedures related to CDM, the research design was amended. The final design relevant for this dissertation consisted of two measurements in order to develop and test an employeeship model.

2 Research objectives

This doctoral dissertation is driven by the inspiration to study how employees behave toward each other, not from a single perspective of either leadership or followership, but from an interactive perspective where all members of an organization are considered as active contributors. *Employeeship* is an organizational concept that encompasses this perspective and acknowledges the importance of productive relationships and collaboration between co-workers and between leaders and followers. Therefore, the objective of this dissertation is to contribute to the theoretical development of employeeship from a psycho-organizational perspective as well as the development of methods of assessment that can support the study, learning, and practical improvements of work behaviors.

General research aims

This dissertation aims at describing and conceptualizing employeeship; constructing and presenting the *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR) developed by Bertlett, Johansson, and Arvidsson (2010) that visualizes the leadership, employee, and leader-follower perspectives of employeeship; presenting and testing two questionnaires through which the ELR Model is operationalized; and studying the different behavioral factors of the ELR Model relative to the psychological climate.

3 Research setting

In this dissertation it is not assumed that the ELR Model applies more or less to a specific business, organization, position, or in times of change as contrasted with normal operations. Thus, it is not assumed that the results presented here regarding the airport sector will deviate compared to future collected data of other businesses. The model is in an early stage and there is still not sufficient empirical data to answer such research questions. Still, information about the research setting provides valuable input about the participants to whom the results apply.

Outside the scope of this study, it is, however, believed that different factors such as power distance, participation, and organizational structure and culture influence the possibility to instill employeeship and use the ELR Model. Therefore, this is taken up in chapter 8 as it is suggested that future research should address these questions.

Stockholm-Arlanda airport

Stockholm-Arlanda airport is Sweden's largest, with air connections to 176 destinations. There are about 250 organizations at Stockholm-Arlanda and some 15,000 employees. During 2009 Stockholm-Arlanda had 192,500 aircraft movements and 16.1 million inbound and outbound travelers. As with most large international airports, it is possible to host conferences, trade fairs, and events at Stockholm-Arlanda. Swedavia, the owner of Stockholm-Arlanda, is a State-owned airport company that is responsible for the operation and improvements. Their main task is to operate and develop a cost-effective, safe, and smoothly functioning airport. Swedavia's revenue comes from the customers.

Ground handling

Ground handling manages the service requirements of an aircraft between the time it arrives at a terminal gate and the time it departs. Accuracy is important in ground handling services in order to optimize the turn-round time (the time during which the aircraft must remain parked at the gate). Participants of the ground handling company work either with apron or passenger service.

Apron service

The apron service is a team-based division that provides services on the apron including work tasks such as:

- Guiding the aircraft into and out of the parking position
- Towing the aircraft
- Handling luggage
- Handling air cargo
- Refueling
- De-icing the aircraft

Passenger service

Passenger service operates inside the airport terminal with tasks such as:

- Providing check-in counter services for the passengers
- Providing gate arrival and departure services (they are required to meet a flight on arrival as well as provide departure services including boarding passengers and closing the flight)
- Staffing the transfer counters and airline lounges

Air traffic service (ATS)

Air traffic service is a generic term which includes air traffic control, flight information, flight weather, and flight rescue services. Air traffic control can in turn be divided into different subgroups such as tower control and ground control. The air traffic control officers of tower control are responsible for the active runway surfaces. Tower control clears aircraft for takeoff and landing, ensuring that prescribed runway separation will exist at all times. In order to guarantee smooth and safe operations at an airport, it is an absolute necessity that there is a highly disciplined communication process between involved actors (e.g., tower control, pilots, and vehicle drivers). In a generic manner, air traffic controllers work individually, responsible for an assigned specific sector. The work is conducted in a coordinated way with close cooperation with other air and ground sectors. To be able to handle surface movements in a safe and orderly manner, specified sectors are manned with controllers responsible for ground control. Ground control generally includes management of taxiways, inactive runways, holding areas, and some transitional aprons or intersections where aircraft arrive,

having vacated the runway or departure gate. All aircraft, vehicles, or people being in these areas are required to have clearance from ground control. Ground control is vital to the operation of the airport, since the way this is carried out can have an impact on the sequencing of departure aircraft as well as influencing safety, efficiency, and airport capacity. This is the situation at Stockholm-Arlanda airport, as in most other airports of the same size. Normal working hours are applied with planned breaks depending on volume and density of traffic. The controllers work in shifts and provide around-the-clock services. Air traffic service is under the control of the Swedish air navigation service provider LFV and is supervised by the Swedish Aviation Authority.

An airline's operations division

Operations control is an important area in an airline company. Normally the main tasks are to manage short-term scheduling, crew management, flight planning, and weight and balance. Operations control can be divided into two phases, strategic and tactical. Strategic operations control is concerned with scheduling and planning. This phase generates the schedule of aircraft rotations and crew trips and is generally updated on a monthly or seasonal basis. The tactical phase manages the execution of the airline schedules on a daily basis. This involves pre-planned schedules, flight dispatch, schedule tracking, and updating and re-scheduling due to deviations and irregular operations.

The connection between the research setting and the research project’s objectives

Inter- and intra-organizational collaborations are necessary in order to develop a functional collaborative decision making (CDM). Some central issues of intra-organizational collaboration are the relationships between all employees, that is, between leaders and followers of different organizational levels and between co-workers of the same hierarchical level. The central issue in this dissertation will be intra-organizational relationships.

4 Theoretical framework

The dissertation focuses on the *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR) which illustrates the conceptualization of leadership, followership, and peer relationships as components of employeeship. Employeeship incorporates both an employee perspective and a leadership perspective. These different perspectives can separately and interactively have an impact on the interpretation of organizational function and organizational outcomes. In employeeship it is argued that effective relationships are determined by both the employees' and the leaders' ability to adapt and match their behaviors relative to personal and situational factors (e.g., task and social abilities). This means that the ELR Model includes three factors relevant for the study of employeeship: the top-down perspective of *leadership behavior*, the horizontal perspective of *peer employee behavior*, and by including both leader and employee behavior in the same analysis it also covers the reciprocal perspective of *congruent leader-follower behavior*. It may be noted that the model is in accordance with the tradition in social cognitive theory where behavior is explained in terms of personality, situation, and their interaction.

This chapter provides a brief introduction to the factors included in terms of *leadership, employeeship, and psychological climate*. The presentation is rather compact since *Paper I* provides a detailed presentation of how employeeship is conceptualized including the leadership perspective, and how employeeship relates to psychological climate. Before coming to that, a presentation about the historical background of employeeship is provided, what employeeship means to the author, and how it became the research topic of this work.

Reflections at the outset of a journey

This doctoral dissertation has its origin in an ideologically loaded principle of an organizational concept called *employeeship* from the Swedish word *medarbetarskap*. Generally it is about equal treatment, participation, and the possibility to influence decisions. Employeeship has been for decades, and still is, a generally accepted code of conduct in the Swedish and Scandinavian work cultures. Since the 1930s the Swedish government, leading unions, and employee organizations

have strived together to democratize the working life. They focused on joint understanding and collaboration, which was considered advantageous for all parties. This ideologically loaded strive towards social equality did not only impact the working life of its time, it also impacted working life research as well as the society at large with extended effects through the present day. The basic concepts of leadership, followership, organizational citizenship behavior, empowerment, organizational structure, and communication taken from this ideology are applied here to contribute to the conceptualization and definition of employeeship.

Employeeship can be discussed on different levels, such as the legal, societal, collective, and individual. The individual and group levels are of interest here and can be referred to as a "psychological agreement" between co-workers and between leaders and followers that concerns the operative behavioral level. Independent of the level concerned, they are all influenced by an egalitarian ethos. To me, this does not necessarily mean that an employer needs consensus to make a decision, but it does say something about what is expected of the process leading to a decision. This, of course, depends on the issue at hand, but successful implementations and evaluations take time, need planning, and require acceptance. In my opinion, acceptance needs participation or at least involvement, and decisions ought to be based on the best available information, which is not always possessed by management or the team leader.

My personal interest in employeeship revolves around the operative behavioral level that concerns the collaborative work behavior between co-workers and between leaders and followers. Therefore, this dissertation has adopted a general focus on joint understanding and collaboration which correspond to the continuing democratization of working life going on now for over eighty years. In the beginning of my doctoral studies my advisor and I discussed different questions of interest to me. Often the aspect of employeeship came up: what it meant in principle, how it could be expressed in working life, and maybe the most difficult of all – how I can conceptually describe what I wanted to study and how I can measure it. Quite soon I decided to focus on the behavioral level, from which I raised several questions that guided my search in the employeeship literature:

- How do co-workers and leaders and followers behave toward each other in working life?
- How can work behavior be studied and explained from an employeeship perspective?

- Is there any research or "common knowledge" describing how positive and/or negative behavior is expressed according to an employeeship model?
- What does the literature say about the followers and their contributions?
- What does the literature say about the relationship perspective?

A common theme across most questions is that these matters concern all staff members and that there is an interaction between co-workers and between leaders and followers. It is neither suggested, nor assumed, that all employees can, will, or should be invited to participate in all kinds of situations. But, when they want to and have the ability to do so – are they allowed? There is also the opposite when employees are allowed to participate but do not want to. In essence, it concerns the difference between what Immanuel Kant calls authority of meaning and action (in Visholm, 2005). Being free, autonomous, and enlightened as an employee does not include the right to make decisions, but it does include the right and the responsibility to negotiate and express personal opinions. This led me to two types of questions. The first set concerns the *reason* and the second concerns possible *behavior* and *effects*:

1.1. How do leaders *reason* when they do or do not invite certain employees?

1.2. How do employees *reason* when they do not want to participate even though invited?

1.3. How do employees *reason* when they discover something that does not correspond with the organizational goal but still do not intervene?

2.1. How do co-workers as well as leaders and followers *behave* when collaborating successfully vs. unsuccessfully, that is, what are the characteristics of well adapted and congruent behavior as opposed to those of poorly adapted and discrepant behavior?

2.2. What are the *effects* when co-workers as well as leaders and followers collaborate successfully vs. unsuccessfully, that is, when they adapt their behavior to the conditions of the situation and act congruent relative to each other as opposed to showing no indications of adaptation or congruence?

After raising these questions I took a pragmatic stand and decided that in this study I was going to focus on the latter questions that concerned the *behavior* and the *effects*. By doing so, it was my aim to examine whether these "employeeship questions" had a combined theoretical and practical value. Before I leave the first

set of questions concerning the *reason*, I would like to view them from the perspective of loyalty. Even though not part of this work, they cannot be neglected when discussing the results later on. Møller (1994) raised the question who owed loyalty to whom. He clearly argued, and I concur, that all employees must be loyal to the overriding goal of the organization. As soon as personal loyalty becomes stronger, the motivation or reason behind the behavior can be questioned. In a way this corresponds to the way I deliberate about the authority of meaning and action. In order to contribute to the development, the followers have to accept the authority of action, but in return have the possibility to use their intellect responsibly by critically expressing their opinions.

I then turned to the literature looking for theories, models, and results based on empirical data. To my surprise there was little to find. I knew that employeeship was practically limited to the Scandinavian countries, but with its history I expected more. It became clear that employeeship was something that has been much more part of popular speech and rhetoric than the focus of any working life research. Some valuable work I found was that of Møller (1994) and Hällstén and Tengblad (2006b). The former is a conceptual paper about employeeship and the latter is a book covering a number of studies in which different researchers have studied how employeeship is expressed in different organizations and have tested some models. Some positive findings were that the researchers share a similar understanding of employeeship, the principles behind it, and important dimensions of it. Their theoretical work and how they contributed to the study of employeeship were helpful to me. Some negative findings were that there was no agreement on the definition and the literature I found did not really correspond to the questions I asked and thus could not fully support the conceptual and methodological work I was aiming for. In order for me to further contribute to the conceptualization and study of employeeship, I chose a new approach beginning with the development of a conceptual framework, a model that could illustrate how I understand employeeship and how I want to study it, and an instrument by which the model could be operationalized. This was the beginning of how I became academically introduced to employeeship.

Leadership

There are researcher studying leadership and followership who argue in favor of shared leadership (Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002) and of the synchronization of leadership and followership (Hollander, 1992b), and who state that leadership occurs when leaders and followers develop effective relationships (Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Leadership has further been identified as influential regarding organizational climate (Ekvall, 1996, 1999; Ekvall, Frankenhaeuser, & Parr, 1995), and organizational success (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Fransson Sellgren, Ekvall, & Tomson, 2008; Silverthorne, 2001; Weil, Bogue, & Morton, 2001). Hence, leadership has to be recognized as an important organizational function even though an expanded leader-follower perspective is advocated in employeeship, which will be described in the next section. It is also important to include formal leadership in order to describe any possible added value from the leader-follower perspective.

Generally, leadership scholars have attempted to study whether successful leadership is a result of specific characteristics of the leader, features in the situation, or a combination of both (Haslam, 2001). Trait theories suggest that leaders are separated from followers by intellectual and social characteristics such as intelligence, emotional stability, interpersonal stability, and cognitive skills (Bray, Campbell, & Grant, 1974). Charismatic leadership is just such a theory, in which it is the leader's ability to set an example that provides a model for others and encourages them to contribute to the realization of the vision (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). A variant of this perspective is the attempt to identify leaders based on their behavior instead of on the basis of their character. Following this approach, leadership behavior has been described in terms of *task-oriented behavior* and *relationship-oriented behavior* (Katz & Kahn, 1952). Task-oriented behavior is when leaders concentrate on work tasks such as coordination, planning, and scheduling, while relationship-oriented is when leaders focus on supportive behavior with followers, for example, being considerate and showing trust and confidence.

In situational leadership theories it is argued that effective leadership is mostly determined by the interplay of personal and situational factors. This distinguishes situational leadership from approaches that explain leadership based on traits, behavior, or the leader's charisma. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) argue that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the followers, and other situational variables. Hence the desire to define a single ideal type of leadership behavior seems unrealistic. Hersey and Blanchard developed a contingency theory they call the *situational leadership theory* (SLT). The SLT is based on task- and relationship-oriented leadership behavior. The level of readiness among the followers determines the proper combination of task- and relationship-oriented behavior for the leader. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) separate four levels of readiness even though they are elements of a continuum. According to their

theory, leaders should use task-oriented behavior, referred to as the leadership style *telling*, when a follower is unready (i.e., lacks the ability and confidence) in relation to the task (readiness level 1). Telling is when a leader is direct in defining roles, clarifying procedures, and monitoring progress of work objectives. As the followers' readiness increases to a moderate level (readiness level 2 and 3), the leader can reduce the degree of task-oriented behavior. At these levels the leader should act more relationship oriented and provide support, consultation, and praise. The corresponding leadership styles to these two readiness levels are called *selling* and *participating*. At the highest level of readiness, the leader should provide a low amount of both task- and relationship-oriented behaviors, called *delegating*. Followers at this level have the required abilities and confidence to perform the work without much direction or support.

Employeeship

There is a trend among researchers looking for new angles to study the leader, the follower, the fellow worker, the situation, and their interaction (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). One problem seems to be the lack of models that is based on this multiple perspective. Employeeship and the ELR Model in Figure 1 provide a new approach to the study of mutual relationships in working life, and thus, attempt to bridge the gap which up until now takes the perspective only of the leader or of the follower.

Several researchers in the field of employeeship have contributed to the conceptualization (Hällstén & Tengblad, 2006b). They have provided a theoretical background of how they understand employeeship, developed models, and tested the dimensions included in order to describe what employeeship is. They have also discussed possibilities and difficulties in how to develop employeeship and how it is expressed in relation to organizational structure, cultural background, the public and private sectors, and management support (e.g., Hällstén & Tengblad, 2006b; Rasmusson & Gröhn, 1998). Most researchers agree that relationship and cooperation are central to the definition and that employeeship is about how employees manage their relationships with the employer and their own work. There is also a rather well established consensus that employeeship concerns the balance between responsibilities and authority, loyalty, trust, commitment, participation, social and technical competence, communication, self- and shared leadership, the autonomous employee, and the demarcation of work and private life (see Hällstén & Tengblad, 2006b; Møller, 1994; Simonsson, 2002). Most of the factors mentioned are difficult to study without including

leadership. Møller (1994) suggests that leadership is an aspect of employeeship, and the studies presented in Hällstén and Tengblad (2006b) recognize that leadership and employeeship have to be studied in relation to each other. Still, no model this far has included leadership as an aspect of employeeship.

The conceptual contributions in this dissertation are based on the literature previously mentioned. But since the research questions differ from most other research in the field, the conceptualization takes a new path and the approach of how to study employeeship is different from earlier studies. Here, the study of employeeship is on an individual level with the focus on how employees behave. This differs from the organizational perspective focusing on what employeeship is and how it is expressed as described in the previous paragraph. Another difference concerns how leadership is regarded in relation to employeeship. In this dissertation leadership is part of the employeeship definition and thus included in the ELR Model (see Figure 1).

Here the conceptual focus concerns work relationships directed towards describing how all co-workers support, build trust, and relate to each other whether it is about technical, social, or personal issues. Employeeship is based on two pillars: psycho-relational competence and technical competence. These are referred to as *social* and *task abilities*. The suggested definition of employeeship is *the behavior that constitutes the dynamic process of mutual work relationships between two or more employees based on task and social abilities*. The definition is influenced by and thus finds support in the psycho-organizational literature that treats psychosocial and organizational structures and processes that impact work relationships, for example, roles, responsibilities, authority, trust, commitment, communication, participation, leadership, and learning (e.g., Argyris, 1999; Argyris, Putnam, & McLain Smith, 1985; Argyris & Schön, 1996; Baird & Kram, 1983; Likert, 1967; Metcalf & Urwick, 1941; Møller, 1994; Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002; Schulz, 2005).

Participation is an important factor in understanding employeeship in the relationship-building process between all employees. Participative activities are praised as effective means for enhancing the flow and use of important information (Miller & Monge, 1986), and to increase organizational competitiveness (Godard & Delaney, 2000; Ichniowski, Shaw, & Prennushi, 1997). Miller and Monge (1986) concluded in a meta-analysis that participation positively affects both work satisfaction and productivity independent of hierarchical level and organizational belonging. One advantage of participation is that it utilizes all the

participants' specific knowledge about their own work processes (Cooke, 1994), which is important in making what Argyris and colleagues (Argyris, 1982, 1993, 1999; Argyris & Schön, 1996) call *informed decisions*. Other advantages are that the ability to influence enhances perceptions of procedural justice (Cawley, Keeping, & Levy, 1998) and fosters a higher identification with the organization and the decisions made. This results in employees feeling more committed (Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, & Alge, 1999), and hence performing better (Denison & Mishra, 1995). Further, Zwick (2004) concluded that the introduction of shop-floor participation improved teamwork and autonomous work groups and led to a reduction of hierarchies.

The ELR Model includes a leadership theory for the purpose of emphasizing the special attention leadership calls for. The prerequisite for choosing a leadership theory was largely based on its ability to be compared with the expected behavior of followers and that it focuses on contextualized behavior. Given these criteria, Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) SLT was considered the most appropriate. An interesting aspect of the SLT is that it sets out to measure expected behavior. It was a challenge to further develop this aspect of working with behavioral data in applied settings and exploring whether it is possible to combine the leadership perspective with a follower perspective. It is this combination of leader and follower behaviors that underlie the ELR Model. Even though the SLT focuses on operational leadership behavior and is suitable as a counterpart to the follower behavior in the ELR Model, there is an important difference that demonstrates how the ELR Model is further developed and expanded beyond the SLT. In applying the SLT the followers are provided with an assumed readiness which regards them as passive receivers of leadership support. In applying the ELR Model this is replaced by measured task and social abilities that consider the employees as active contributors independent of their position. This adds the follower and peer employee perspectives to the leadership perspective.

According to the ELR Model it is possible to study leader-follower behavior and examine whether it is congruent or not. Traditional leadership theories do not address this, something which restricts the understanding of work relationships and leadership (Hollander, 1992a). While formal leaders may have a greater responsibility to know more about their subordinates' strengths and weaknesses and adapt accordingly, it is a misconceived expectation to believe that the workplace is full of dynamic leaders and passive subordinates. Most followers are well aware of their leaders' strengths and shortcomings. They too adapt their behavior accordingly (Hollander).

To establish an interactive leader-follower approach, it is not sufficient to simply measure leadership behavior and to match it against a theoretical or normative need for leadership. In employeeship the joint behaviors of leaders and followers are of key importance for the output of a given situation. The congruence of leader and follower behaviors, and successful leadership and peer employee behaviors for that matter, are assumed to improve with collaborative awareness, that is, knowledge about each others' skills, experiences, and personal characteristics. This is an experience-based learning process that resembles what Schulz (2005) calls *situated learning* and takes place in the participative processes. Collaborative awareness is assumed to have a positive correlation with task and role clarity and a negative with role ambiguity and role conflict. Earlier results have indicated that high clarity plus low ambiguity and conflict have a positive effect on job performance (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Tubre & Collins, 2000), individual performance (De Vries, Roe, & Taillieu, 2002), self efficacy (Chen & Bliese, 2002), and climate (Ekvall, 1996, 1999).

Similar to Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) SLT in which the appropriate type of leadership behavior is specified according to the followers' level of *readiness*, the appropriate type of peer employee behavior is specified according to the level of task and social abilities among the employees. The ELR Model differentiates between four levels of task and social abilities even though they are elements of a continuum from low to high (see Figure 1). According to the model it can be assumed that employees will use *task-professional* behavior (i.e., work-oriented employeeship) when a co-worker is low on task and social abilities. Task-professional behavior is when an employee focuses on the relationship between the co-worker and the assignment and provides a type of peer leadership. As task and social abilities increase, the peer-instructive behavior is assumed to be replaced by a guiding behavior (*collegial-professional*). At the most highly developed levels of task and social abilities (person-oriented employeeship), *socio-collegial* and *socio-emotional*, the relationships may facilitate the possibility to mutually gain professional and personal development.

In situations where no formal leadership is involved the employee style is called peer employee style. When formal leadership is involved it is called follower employee style. Peer and follower styles are operationalized in the same way but placed in their respective contexts, they describe the direction of the behavior whether it has a horizontal perspective regarding a co-worker or a vertical one vis-à-vis the leader. Together employee style and leadership style constitute the reciprocal perspective of leader-follower interaction style (see Figure 1).

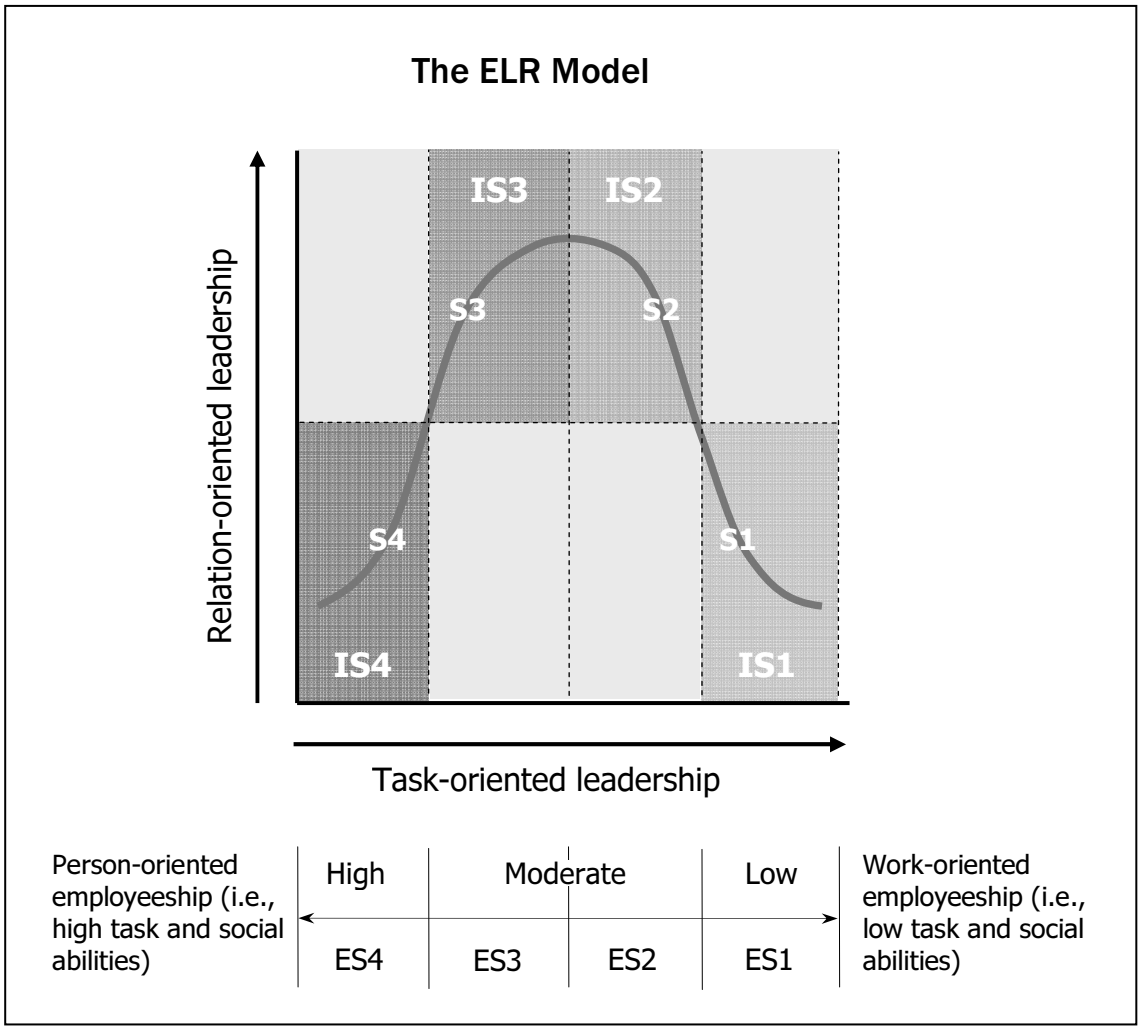

Figure 1. The Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model (Bertlett, et al., 2010). The four employee styles (ES) correspond to employee behavior in work relationships based on task and social abilities: ES1 = task-professional, ES2 = collegial-professional, ES3 = social-collegial, and ES4 = socio-emotional. The four leadership styles (S) correspond to those of the SLT (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993): S1 = telling, S2 = selling, S3 = participating, and S4 = delegating. The interaction styles (IS) are the darker gray areas indicating congruent leader-follower behavior: IS1 = task-professional, IS2 = collegial-professional, IS3 = social-collegial, and IS4 = socio-emotional.

From organizational to psychological climate

Climate as a concept in the field of social psychology goes back to Gestalt psychology (Lewin, Lippit, & White, 1939). In Gestalt psychology it is implied that individual elements of perception are formed into wholes representing more than the sum of the specific elements. In this way organizational climate is a gestalt based on the perceived experiences and behaviors of the people in an organization (Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart, & Holcomble, 2000).

Organizational climate can be identified either from an objectivistic or a phenomenological approach (Ekvall, 1987). In the objectivistic approach climate is defined by characteristic behaviors and attitudes. Ekvall argues that climate can be observed and studied in various ways; it is an attribute of the organization independent of how the employees perceive it. According to the phenomenological approach, it is the employees' perceptual and cognitive structuring of the organizational situation that determines the organizational climate. The employees experience routine actions and processes, they create cognitive maps, and they try to interpret them in order to understand the organizational environment and explain their experiences. These cognitive maps are modified in the interaction between employees when they exchange experiences and perceptions. It is this process that gives rise to a general view of the organizational environment that consists of the shared perceptions.

Climate is defined as the recurring patterns of behavior, attitudes, and feelings that characterize life in the organization (Isaksen, Lauer, Ekvall, & Britz, 2000). According to Ekvall (1985) the organizational climate is developed in the meeting between the individuals and the organizational situation. Rules, procedures, strategies, and the physical environment are all factors in the organizational situation to which the employees react. These reactions, in the form of behaviors, attitudes, and emotions, create the climate. The people as well have to be regarded as part of the organizational situation. Employee A is an environmental factor influencing employee B and vice versa. Thus, the interaction between employees is an important feature of the climate.

At the individual level of analysis, the concept is called psychological climate. At this level, the concept of climate refers to the individual perceptions of behavioral patterns. When aggregated, the concept is called organizational climate. These are the objectively shared perceptions that characterize life in the organization (Isaksen, et al., 2000; Schneider, 1975). There is a quite clear distinction between psychological and organizational climate. Individuals are regarded as observers of the climate rather than as carriers of the climate (Ekvall, 1987). All employees of an organization can describe the organizational climate on the basis of their own perceptions. These perceptions can therefore be used in the study of an organization's climate. But this is not the same as saying that the climate is the perceptions. External assessors may just as well be used in the study of the climate (Ekvall, Arvonen, & Waldenström-Lindblad, 1983).

According to Ekvall (1990), in order to understand the use of organizational climate in an organizational context, it can be considered as an intervening variable between input and output processes (see Figure 2). Resources are expected to have certain effects on for example profit, quality, and innovation throughout different organizational processes. The climate impacts these organizational processes as well as the outcomes. It does not create anything, but it strengthens and weakens the effects of the resources.

Organizational climate for innovations

Within an organization it is possible to distinguish between different aspects of organizational climate, for example, service climate (Schneider, et al., 2000), safety climate (Zohar, 2002), and innovative climate (Ekvall, 1996). Ekvall (1994) has suggested that innovative climate is important for stimulating change and Ahmed (1998) has concluded that innovation is important for an organization's ability to change. An innovative organizational climate facilitates the development and utilization of new products, concepts, and work procedures.

Saleh and Wang (1993) argue that an innovative organizational climate benefits from an open climate, collegial relationships, and reward systems that reinforce innovative achievements. Innovation benefits from an open exchange of information as it increases the availability of information and promotes trust. Trustful relationships enable employees to challenge the status quo. Further, authority and power are shared equally among co-workers in a collegial climate while the classical approach promotes a leader-subordinate relationship.

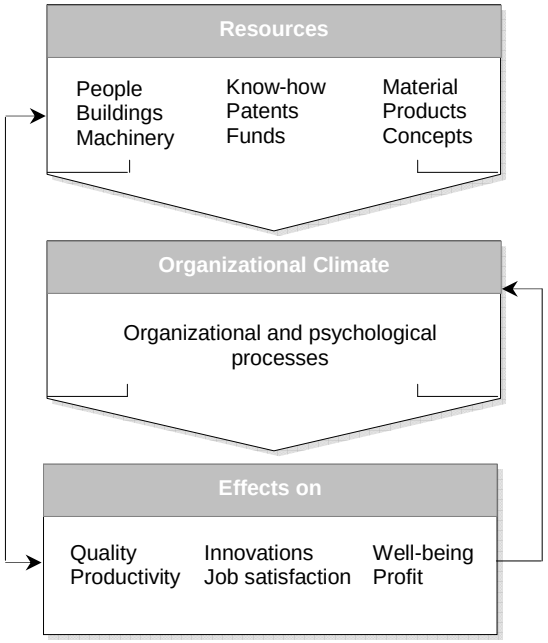

Figure 2. Organizational climate as an intervening variable (Ekvall, 1996).

Incidents and accidents at airports can have devastating effects. Airport operations are therefore considered a high risk organization. Such organizations are for the most part governed by rules, regulations, and instructions, which hampers the possibility to develop an innovative climate (Ekvall, 1994). Detailed and regulated work procedures limit the atmosphere that stimulates creativity and hinder the possibility to generate and test new ideas. Nevertheless, the rules and regulations that dictate the working conditions of the participating organizations operating at the airport are well motivated. If for example ground handling personnel and air traffic controllers were allowed to take actions that would challenge the safety standards, this would constitute a hazard to themselves, to their co-workers, and to the travelers. Innovativeness in this type of business should therefore not imply experimental behavior in daily operations. Still, the ability to change is crucial when adapting to future demands in terms of increased air traffic volumes and harmonization of procedures related to CDM.

5 Purposes and research questions

The following purposes and research questions of the individual studies are addressed:

- To contribute to the conceptualization of employeeship and to contextualize it in relation to theories of leadership, empowerment, followership, and organizational citizenship behavior (Paper I).

  In order to understand the complexity and use of employeeship and its relation to other organizational concepts, there is a need to: 1) define employeeship, 2) describe the similarities and differences relative to other adjacent established concepts, and 3) discuss possible benefits with employeeship not provided by other concepts.

- To develop and present a theoretical model – the *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR) – and the questionnaires through which the model is operationalized (Papers I-II).

  To facilitate the study of employeeship and explain results obtained require: 1) visualizing the cornerstones of employeeship as it is conceptualized here – *task and social abilities*, 2) visualizing the factors in focus – *leadership behavior*, *peer employee behavior*, and *congruent leader-follower behavior*, and 3) creating and/or choosing questionnaires through which the appropriate variables – *leadership style adaptability*, *peer employee style adaptability*, and *congruent leader-follower style* – can be extracted.

- To present and test a newly developed employeeship questionnaire (Papers I-II).

  The *leadership style adaptability* variable could be extracted from an existing leadership questionnaire. To operationalize peer employee behavior and to extract the *peer employee style adaptability* variable, a new questionnaire was needed. Leader-follower behavior is a factor that is operationalized based on the agreement between leader and follower behaviors, thus, it has to be possible to use input from both the leadership and the employeeship questionnaires in the same analysis. In order to validate the peer employee

variable it has to be tested, for example, relative to other variables that theoretically share some central components with the employeeship construct (also see the questionnaire manual, Appendix A).

- To describe the relation between employeeship and psychological climate (Paper II).

  Psychological climate shares some conceptually central components with employeeship, which makes it a valuable output variable in the statistical analysis when validating the employeeship questionnaire and when discussing how the ELR Model contributes to the field, as well as its practical implications.

- To analyze the three factors of the ELR Model, leadership, peer employee, and leader-follower behaviors, each of which is assumed to have a positive correlation with psychological climate (Papers II-III).

  Earlier results have indicated a correlation between leadership and psychological climate. With employeeship and the ELR Model it is suggested that the hierarchical leadership perspective (e.g., top-down chain of command with one-way communication across different organizational levels) has to be expanded to include the horizontal peer employee and the interactive leader-follower perspectives. It is assumed that all factors of the model contribute regarding psychological climate.

- To analyze congruent leader-follower behavior which is assumed to augment the value of leadership behavior and its positive correlation with psychological climate (Papers II-III).

  It is further suggested that the traditional leadership perspective is too narrow to explain leadership behavior since leadership is an interactive function between the leader and those led. Thus, it is assumed that congruent leader-follower behavior, which is the most important factor of the ELR Model and one that takes both leaders and followers into account, has a better explanatory power than only leadership behavior as far as psychological climate is concerned.

- To analyze the situational dimensions of: 1) peer employee behavior, 2) leadership behavior, and 3) congruent leader-follower behavior, where each is assumed to have a positive correlation with psychological climate and further, the situational dimensions of congruent leader-follower behavior,

where each is assumed to augment the value of the situational dimensions of leadership behavior and their positive correlations with psychological climate (Paper III).

In order to investigate the ELR Model in detail it is divided in four dimensions. This is assumed to provide more comprehensive information about its applicability. These analyses include follow-up data to determine whether the results can be replicated.

6 Methodology

Instruments

Three different instruments, the *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description* (LEAD), the *Your Employeeship Questionnaire* (YEQ), and the *Creative Climate Questionnaire* (CCQ), have been used in the research process in order to collect data regarding leadership behavior, peer employee behavior, congruent leader-follower behavior, and psychological climate. All factors were measured twice with an interval of nine months in order to study the stability of the assessments over time. This section provides a short description of the instruments, focusing on the included dimensions and psychometric data.

Leadership assessment

A modified version (Holmkvist, 2000) of the *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description* (LEAD; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) was used to assess leadership. The LEAD is an instrument that measures expected leadership behavior representing the top-down perspective of the ELR Model in Figure 1. Leadership is assessed in terms of the situational leadership theoretical model by Hersey and Blanchard (1993) with documented reliability and validity (Greene, 1980).

The questionnaire consists of 32 items in which work situations are described to the respondent. Each item yields four ipsative style scores and a normative adaptability score. The response alternatives describe different leadership behavior strategies. The instrument can be answered by respondents of both leading and non-leading positions. The leader respondents are asked to choose the alternative that best describes their own expected behavior while the non-leading respondents are asked to choose the alternative that best describes the expected behavior of their leader. The following is an example of a LEAD item:

> Situation
>
> The very effective work team has been divided in subgroups with different opinions of how the team should proceed. This leads to deteriorated work climate and results.
>
> *What will your supervisor do?*

Alternative actions

A. Your leader gathers the group and ensures that everybody who has any views is allowed to speak his/her mind. Your leader clarifies the description of work until convinced that everyone has understood.

B. At a meeting your leader makes a point of bringing out the group's own resources for solving the problems.

C. Your leader collects the group as soon as possible and finds out what has gone wrong. He or she clarifies the project description until convinced that everyone has understood.

D. Your leader helps the group to understand why it has gotten into trouble and support its own way of grappling with the problems.

Each alternative action reflects a specific *leadership style* referred to as telling, selling, participating, and delegating, see Figure 1. The method generates data concerning a leader's leadership style profile (the frequency of the four leadership styles used by the leader across the 32 situations). Thus, this profile generates data about a leader's task- and relation-oriented leadership behaviors.

Each item in the questionnaire further reflects one of four readiness levels of an individual or a group of follower employees. The reflected level of an item corresponds to one of the alternative leadership actions which are considered to be the most effective in the given situation according to the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). The four levels are: the lowest readiness level where the follower has no willingness or ability to perform, calls for the task-oriented leadership style 'telling'; the second level where the follower has the willingness but still not the ability to perform calls for both task- and relation-oriented leadership styles, 'selling'; the third level where the follower has the ability to perform but still not the confident willingness to be solely responsible calls for the relation-oriented leadership style 'participating'; and the highest readiness level where the follower has the ability and willingness to perform calls for a 'delegating' leadership style. Hence, the method also generates data concerning the *leadership style adaptability*, that is, the leader's ability to adapt the leadership style according to the readiness level of the group or individual.

Leadership data was calculated as the sum of the scores for leadership style adaptability in *Papers II* and *III*. The leadership adaptability scores range from -2 to +2 per item and depend on the match between the situation described and the endorsed alternative according to the situational leadership theory (Hersey &

Blanchard, 1993). The response alternative with the highest probability of success offered in the given situation was weighted +2, the second best +1, the third best -1, and the least preferred leadership behavior was weighted -2.

In *Paper II* leadership style adaptability was calculated as an overall variable including all 32 items with a scale range of -64 (no adaptability) to +64 (full adaptability). In *Paper III* the LEAD was divided in four situational dimensions with eight items each: *individual-success*, *individual-hardship*, *group-success*, and *group-hardship*. For this instance the style adaptability scales range from -16 (no adaptability) to +16 (full adaptability). Combined, the method makes it possible to analyze how the leadership style profiles and the leadership style adaptability change with the situation.

Employeeship assessment

In order to assess the horizontal perspective of employee behavior and to have a follower behavior to be analyzed in relation to the LEAD's leadership behavior (i.e., the reciprocal leader-follower behavior) in the ELR Model, there was a need to construct a new instrument. This resulted in the *Your Employeeship Questionnaire* (YEQ; Appendix B) (also see Appendix A for additional information about the development of the questionnaire, how to administrate it, how to score and analyze data, as well as preliminary reliability and validity analyses).

As with the LEAD, the YEQ consists of 32 items in which work situations are described to the respondent. Each item gives five ipsative style scores and a normative adaptability score. The response alternatives describe different employee behavior strategies. Apart from the fact that the YEQ items are rewritten so that no formal leader is mentioned, they are the same as the LEAD items. A more important difference between the two questionnaires is the response alternatives. There is no leadership perspective embedded in the YEQ. Instead, all respondents choose the alterative that best describes their own expected employee behavior. The following is an example of a YEQ item:

> Situation
> For several years you have been part of an effective team with good internal relationships. But recently the work climate and results have deteriorated due to a conflict about how the team should manage and perform the work.
> *What do you do?*

Alternative actions

A. Ask the supervisor to advise and support us in how to handle the conflict.

B. Ask how my fellow workers value the work situation and give personal support.

C. Consider my own contribution to the team assignment and proceed with that.

D. Ask the supervisor to clarify the work and give instructions.

E. Ask how my fellow workers experience the work situation and support those who present suggestions that improve the work set-up.

Each alternative action reflects a specific *employee style* referred to as pre-mature, task-professional, collegial-professional, social-collegial, and socio-emotional, see Figure 1. The method generates data concerning an employee's style profile (the frequency of the five employee styles used by the respondent across the 32 situations). Thus, this profile generates data about an employee's work- and person-oriented employeeship behaviors.

Each item in the questionnaire reflects one of four employeeship levels for an individual or a group of employees. The reflected level of an item corresponds to one of the alternative employee actions which are considered to be the most effective in the given situation according to the ELR Model. The four levels that are on a continuum from low to highly developed task and social abilities call for task-professional, collegial-professional, social-collegial, and socio-emotional employee styles respectively, see Figure 1. Hence, the method also generates data concerning the *peer employee style adaptability*, that is, the employee's ability to adapt the employee style in a horizontal perspective according to the task and social abilities of the group or an individual employee.

As is apparent in the former paragraph no items correspond to the pre-mature response alternative. Across the 32 items it is the other four employee styles that are the most effective actions eight times each. The pre-mature employeeship response alternative is in all items the least effective action. It represents a non-collaborative behavior with no prospect of creating joint understanding, learning, or development. Still, it was kept as it became clear during the development of the YEQ that the behavior was a somewhat frequent response and thus should be included in order for the YEQ to provide a comprehensive style profile.

Peer employee style adaptability was calculated as the sum of the scores. The score ranges from 0 to 4 per item and depends on the match between the situation described and the endorsed alternative. The response alternative with the highest probability of success offered in the given situation was weighted 4, the second 3, the third best 2, the fourth best 1, and the least preferred employee behavior (i.e., pre-mature) was weighted 0.

In *Paper II* peer employee style adaptability was calculated as an overall variable including all 32 items with a scale range of 0 (no adaptability) to 128 (full adaptability). In *Paper III* the YEQ was divided in four situational dimensions containing eight items each: *individual-success*, *individual-hardship*, *group-success*, and *group-hardship*. For this instance the style adaptability scales range from 0 (no adaptability) to 32 (full adaptability). Combined, the method makes it possible to analyze how the employee style profiles and the peer employee style adaptability change with the situation (see manual in Annex A concerning type of situations covered by the YEQ, what items to include, as well as adaptability scale range and Cronbach's alpha per situational dimension).

Further, with the YEQ it is possible to use the employee style from a follower's perspective to be analyzed in relation to the leadership style of the LEAD to study the congruence of leader-follower behavior. Thus, *congruent leader-follower style* (see Figure 1) was computed based on the responses from corresponding items in the LEAD and YEQ. The response alternatives pre-mature and task-professional in the YEQ were grouped together. The two response alternatives can be merged since both correspond to work-oriented employeeship and therefore are correctly matched against the 'telling' leadership style that corresponds to task-oriented leadership behavior (see Figure 1). Congruence is achieved when there is a match between employee and leadership styles. The formula for computing the congruence variable per pair of items is to first take $3-\sqrt{((S-ES)\times(S-ES))}$, where S is the leadership style for a given item and ES is the employee style for the same item, and then to add the values for each pair of items related to the situational dimension of interest. This means that each response to a set of YEQ and LEAD items can have a congruence value of 0 to 3 and that the congruence variable scales ranges from 0 (all pairs describe discrepant leader-follower style) to 24, 48, or 96 (all 8, 16, or 32 pairs dependent upon the situational dimension describe fully congruent leader-follower style).

Psychological climate assessment

The *Creative Climate Questionnaire* (CCQ; Ekvall, 1990) was chosen to assess the psychological climate. The CCQ was originally considered as a measure of organizational climate (Ekvall, 1996). But since the analyses were made on an individual level in *Papers II* and *III*, without any aggregated results, it is the individuals' perception of the organizational climate that has been assessed and therefore referred to as psychological climate (Glick, 1985; Isaksen, et al., 2000).

The CCQ consists of 50 items divided into ten dimensions of five items each. The dimensions were derived through factor analysis (Ekvall, 1996) and the scale of each dimension is calculated as mean scores per five items. The items are answered on a four-point scale where 0 = do not agree, 1 = agree to some extent, 2 = agree to a great extent, and 3 = fully agree. All scales describe dimensions that have a positive relationship to creativity and change with the exception of *Conflicts* that has a negative relation. To make the presentation of the analysis easier to understand in the studies, that scale is reversed and hence called *Absence of conflicts*. The ten dimensions are according to Ekvall (1990) defined as:

Challenge/ Motivation	The degree of emotional involvement, commitment, and motivation in operations and goals.
Freedom	The level of autonomy, discretion, and initiative in behavior exerted by individuals to acquire information and make decisions.
Support for ideas	The degree to which new ideas and suggestions are attended to and treated in a supportive manner.
Trust/ Openness	The degree of emotional safety and openness found in relationships.
Dynamism/ Liveliness	The dynamics and eventfulness of life in the organization.
Playfulness/ Humor	The display of spontaneity, ease, good-natured joking, and laugher.
Debate/ Diversity	The expressing and considering of many different viewpoints, ideas, and experiences.
Conflicts	The presence of personal and emotional tensions of hostilities.
Risk taking	The tolerance of ambiguity and uncertainty.
Idea time	The amount of time people can use for elaboration of new ideas.

Table 1. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the ten psychological climate dimensions in Papers II and III as well as Ekvall's (1990) reference alpha values.

Scale	Questions (*N*)	Paper II Cronbach's α	Paper III Cronbach's α	CCQ Cronbach's α
Challenge/Motivation	5	.85	.88	.81
Freedom	5	.64	.79	.67
Support for ideas	5	.89	.93	.88
Trust/Openness	5	.72	.81	.76
Dynamism/Liveliness	5	.72	.82	.76
Playfulness/Humor	5	.80	.85	.70
Debate/Diversity	5	.68	.73	.67
Absence of conflicts	5	.83	.85	.84
Risk taking	5	.57	.75	.66
Idea time	5	.80	.82	.78

Six of the ten CCQ dimensions – the ones which are presented in bold-italic typeface – were included in *Paper II*. This was due to the research question, which concerns only those climate dimensions that share conceptually central components with the employeeship construct (cf. Ekvall, 1996; Møller, 1994). During the psychometric evaluation of the questionnaire in *Paper III*, the result showed that the first principal component of all ten dimensions explained about 53% of the variance. This indicates a general climate dimension in the questionnaire. The first component was used as a measure of overall psychological climate in *Paper III* which involved a baseline and a follow-up measurement. To increase the similarity between the measurements, the scales of the questionnaire were weighted based on the regression weights from the first principal component in the baseline study. Table 1 shows the calculated internal consistency of the ten dimensions in *Papers II* and *III* as well as Ekvall's (1990) reference values. The table shows that the alpha coefficients of the two studies correspond with the reference values.

Participants

There are two measurement rounds included in the dissertation. The measurement in *Paper II* is the same as the baseline measurement in *Paper III*, which is also accompanied with a new set of data partly from the same population. For the reminder of the methodological section the first measurement round (*Paper II* and baseline *Paper III*) is referred to as measurement 1 and the follow-up measurement of *Paper III* is referred to as measurement 2. All measurements were

conducted in organizations operating at Stockholm-Arlanda airport. Participating organizations in measurement 1 were: (1) apron service and (2) passenger service of a ground handling company, (3) ground control and (4) tower control of ATS, and (5) an airline's operations division. In measurement 2 the same (1) apron service, (2) passenger service, and (3) ground control participated. Altogether 727 employees, 57 leaders and 670 followers, were invited to participate in measurement 1 at the five study locations. Answered questionnaires were returned by 153 employees (21%), 29 leaders (51%) and 124 followers (19%). In this measurement 22 of the leaders were men of which 82% were between the age of 30 and 49, 7 of the leaders were women of which 86% were between 30 and 49, 100 of the followers were men of which 60% were below the age of 40 and 40% were 40 and above, and 23 of the followers were women of which 87% were 30 and above. In measurement 2, 628 employees, 41 leaders and 587 followers from the three study locations were invited to participate: 77 employees (12%), 15 leaders (37%) and 62 followers (11%), returned their questionnaires. In this measurement 12 of the leaders were men of which 42% were below the age of 40 and 58% were 40 and above, 3 of the leaders were women at the age of 30 and above, 52 of the followers were men of which 61% were between 20 and 39 and 39% were 40 and above, and 10 of the followers were women of which 50% were below the age of 40 and 50% were between 40 and 49.

The final response rates for all five study locations in measurement 1 were 20% (148/727) for the psychological climate assessment of the CCQ, 17% (124/727) for the leadership behavior assessment of the LEAD, 18% (132/727) for the peer employee behavior assessment of the YEQ, and 16% (116/727) for the congruent leader-follower behavior assessment of the LEAD and YEQ. The final response rates for all three study locations in measurement 2 were 12% (75/628) for the psychological climate assessment of the CCQ, 10% (65/628) for the leadership behavior assessment of the LEAD, 11% (71/628) for the peer employee behavior assessment of the YEQ, and 10% (65/628) for the congruent leader-follower behavior assessment of the LEAD and YEQ. There were some variations in the response rates between the participating organizations that may be due to professional traditions, work organizations, and contingencies.

Procedure

After the agreement between the representatives of Stockholm-Arlanda and Lund University to launch the project, representatives from other organizations working with the turn-round process were invited to an information meeting. This was

followed by several meetings with managers from the interested organizations where details were discussed and decided. During these meetings it was decided that specific results of interest for the respective organizations were to be presented after each study. This provided the opportunity for the organizations to further discuss issues raised by the results on a local basis.

Both measurement rounds were administered in the same way nine months apart. The employees were informed about the study through posters and their supervisors. The questionnaires were distributed to the staff through the internal post system. The questionnaires were answered anonymously and the participants were requested to return them in an included pre-stamped envelope within three weeks. Three reminders were sent out, of which the last reminder declared a one-week extension of the deadline. As an additional attempt to promote the studies, some organizations continuously posted information on their intranet.

Statistical analyses

This section refers to both measurement rounds presented in *Papers II* and *III*. Prior to all analyses, the data were checked according to the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). The CCQ was rejected if it held more than 5% missing values. With 5% or less, the items were assigned the mean value calculated from available items of the concerned scale. The LEAD and YEQ were rejected if any values were missing. Each item of these questionnaires is part of two scales, style profile and style adaptability, which cannot be managed with a mean value substitution. In all variables, scores outside of the mean and ±3 standard deviations were considered as univariate outliers and thus deleted. No multivariate outliers were found based on the Malahanobis distance. In this analysis, alpha on the χ^2 was set at $p = .001$. The incidence of outliers in the solution was investigated in each hierarchical regression analysis. A standardized value with a residual above 3.29 was considered an outlier in the solution. No major deviances were discovered. All data were further screened for singularity and multicollinearity. Concerning singularity no serious violations were found, which also applied to multicollinearity since no tolerance values for any variable were close to zero.

All hypotheses presented in *Papers II* and *III* were analyzed by using either Pearson correlational analysis or hierarchical regression analysis. In *Paper II* the overall variables of leadership and peer employee style adaptabilities and congruent leader-follower style were included as independent variables, and the

psychological climate dimensions were included as dependent variables. In *Paper III* the situational dimensions of leadership and peer employee style adaptabilities and congruent leader-follower style were included as independent variables, and the first principal component of the psychological climate was included as a dependent variable. Leadership style adaptability in all regression models was entered at step one followed by peer employee style adaptability and congruent leader-follower style in steps two and three, respectively. In all studies a two-tailed significance level of alpha < .05 was applied.

7 Summary of papers

The dissertation is based on three different papers. The first is a conceptual paper in which the employeeship concept is described together with a presentation of the *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR). The second and third papers are empirical, in which the three factors of the ELR Model – leadership, peer employee, and congruent leader-follower behaviors – are studied in relation to psychological climate. This section summarizes the papers with focus on the results in the respective studies.

Paper I. Employeeship concept: A holistic model of work relationships focused on leader and follower behaviors

There has been an increased interest in employeeship for the last ten years as researchers and practitioners (Hällstén & Tengblad, 2006a; Møller, 1994; Tengblad, Hällstén, Ackerman, & Velten, 2007) started to contribute to the theoretical foundation and/or tested various models. In accordance with followership (Hollander, 1992a, 1992b) and some leadership theories (Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002; Uhl-Bien, 2006) there is an assumption that there is a need to develop better collaboration between managers and non-managers and that leadership is a concern for any and all employees as they are part of and execute self- and peer leadership. Hence, leader and follower behaviors need to be considered in relation to each other. Most of the research so far has studied *what* employeeship is (see Hällstén & Tengblad, 2006b), whereas this study focuses on *how* employeeship is expressed in work behavior.

The aims of this study were to: 1) place employeeship in relation to leadership theories (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; House, 1996; Pearce & Manz, 2005), empowerment (Kinlaw, 1995), followership (Hollander, 1992a, 1992b; Hollander & Offermann, 1990), and organizational citizenship behavior (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Organ, 1988), 2) contribute to the conceptualization of employeeship, 3) present a model – *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR) – and suitable methods to collect data, and 4) discuss strengths, weaknesses, use of employeeship, and research questions needed to test the model.

Employeeship is a concept used in relation to social and task abilities. The former is psycho-relational and refers to the individual's psychological ability to handle social interactions, while the latter refers to the knowledge and skills that are needed for given assignments. Employeeship was defined as *the behavior that constitutes the dynamic process of mutual work relationships between two or more employees based on task and social abilities*. The definition was discussed from the perspective of psychosocial and organizational structures and processes that impact work relationships, for example roles, responsibilities, authority, communication, trust, commitment, and learning (Argyris, 1999; Argyris, et al., 1985; Argyris & Schön, 1996; Baird & Kram, 1983; Likert, 1967; Metcalf & Urwick, 1941; Møller, 1994; Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002; Schulz, 2005).

Concerning the ELR Model it was shown that employeeship varies on a continuum ranging from *work*- to *person orientation*. It was also illustrated that leadership varies from being *task oriented* to being more *relation oriented*. Four leader-follower interaction styles were defined – *task-professional*, *collegial-professional*, *socio-collegial*, and *socio-emotional* – that are dependent on the level of task and social abilities attained. The model covers vertical and horizontal perspectives of work behaviors, which makes it possible to study *vertical leadership*, *horizontal peer employee*, and *reciprocal leader-follower behaviors*. The suggested model for simultaneous study of leader and follower behaviors expands existing models of leadership and followership that take the perspective of only the one or the other. To assess leader and follower behaviors two questionnaires were presented: a modified version (Holmkvist, 2000) of the *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description* (LEAD; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) and the *Your Employeeship Questionnaire* (YEQ; Appendix B). With these instruments it was possible to study the interaction of the leader and employee factors, thus enabling a joint leader-follower analysis to see whether the leader and follower acted congruently or showed discrepancy according to the ELR Model. It was assumed that employeeship requires commitment throughout the organization to be successful. Cultural issues like power distance (Hofstede, 1984) and how the employees relate to sharing and accepting responsibility and authority were also assumed to affect the quality of employeeship.

The main conclusions were that the ELR Model: 1) provides the possibility to collaboratively study the hierarchical perspective of leadership, the horizontal perspective of peer employee, and the reciprocal perspective of leader-follower behaviors, 2) allows a comparison of leadership with congruent leader-follower behaviors, and 3) needs further theoretical and methodological development to understand fully the collaborative aspect it proposes.

Paper II. A two-way approach of congruent behavior between leaders and staff in the employeeship concept: Test of model, questionnaires, and influence on climate

Many leadership theories often meet with difficulties when describing direct leadership since they address the leader side only. These one-sided approaches were considered too narrow to explain the interactive leader-follower behavior. Instead it was suggested that most likely, an interactive leader-follower approach would better explain the perceived work climate. This reasoning is in line with results regarding shared leadership (Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002), followership (Hollander, 1992b), and relational leadership theories (Uhl-Bien, 2006). It was noted that little had been done to incorporate the full potential of a leader-follower interaction. Thus, there was a gap in the literature. Employeeship, as taken up in *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR) first presented by Bertlett et al. (2010), is one measure towards filling this need. In addition to leadership behavior, employeeship emphasizes employee behaviors, for example, the horizontal peer and bottom-up follower ones. Thus, it comprises an interactive perspective of leader and follower behaviors.

This paper presented some of the conceptual work that has already been carried out to bridge the gap (Bertlett, et al., 2010; Hällstén & Tengblad, 2006b; Møller, 1994; Tengblad, et al., 2007), including the ELR Model as well as a modified version (Holmkvist, 2000) of the *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description* (LEAD; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) and the *Your Employeeship Questionnaire* (YEQ; Appendix B) which facilitates the assessment of leader and follower behaviors. Empirical data were also presented in order to test the ELR Model relative to selected dimensions of organizational climate assessed on the individual level, that is, the psychological climate (Glick, 1985). There were two reasons why six out of ten climate dimensions as defined by Ekvall (2004) were chosen: 1) they share some conceptually central components with employeeship (see Ekvall, 1999; Møller, 1994) which enabled a validity analysis of the YEQ and 2) since earlier results have indicated a relation between organizational climate and desirable organizational outcomes (Ekvall, 1996, 1999; Fransson Sellgren, et al., 2008; Newman, Maylor, & Chansarkar, 2002), a correlation between the ELR Model and psychological climate is a possible indication that the model is of practical organizational benefit. The psychological climate dimensions chosen were *Challenge/Motivation*, *Support for ideas*, *Trust/Openness*, *Debate/Diversity*, *Absence of conflicts*, and *Idea time*. They were assessed with the *Creative Climate Questionnaire* (Ekvall, 1990).

The aims of this study were to test the ELR Model by means of its three factors (*peer employee*, *leadership*, and *congruent leader-follower behaviors*); and to test the YEQ, from which it is possible to extract the peer employee variable called *peer employee style adaptability*, and test the combination of the LEAD and YEQ, which allows the computation of the leader-follower variable called *congruent leader-follower style*. To do so it was hypothesized that the three factors of the ELR Model correlated with the psychological climate dimensions. It was further hypothesized that congruent leader-follower behavior, which is the most important factor of the ELR Model representing the interactive approach, augmented the value of leadership behavior and its positive correlation with the climate dimensions. The study locations were a ground handling company, air traffic service, and an airline's operation division at Stockholm-Arlanda airport in Sweden. Out of 727 employees, 153 participated in the study (21%).

The most important results showed that: 1) there is a relation between peer employee, leadership, and congruent leader-follower behaviors on the one hand and the psychological climate dimensions on the other, 2) the YEQ measures behaviors relevant to the ELR Model, 3) the ELR Model contributes new knowledge to the field and is thus worthy of more empirical interest, and 4) congruent leader-follower behavior partly augments the value of leadership behavior in explaining the psychological climate dimensions. The interpretation was that leadership has to be regarded as an aspect in employeeship (cf. Møller, 1994) and that leadership occurs when leaders and followers are able to develop effective relationships (cf. Uhl-Bien, 2006).

The main conclusions were that it is of possible benefit for organizations to incorporate the understanding of congruent leader-follower behavior into training programs where followers should be included in leadership development and that the issue of shared responsibilities and authority is best managed in discussions between management and staff.

Paper III. A baseline and follow-up study of the Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model: Do the four facets contribute?

The traditional thinking around leadership and subordination in organizational hierarchies found in leadership theories such as the charismatic theory (Conger & Kanungo, 1987) and the transactional theory (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Judge & Piccolo, 2004), is downplayed in employeeship. Some prominent factors are instead participation and the balance of ownership, authority, and

responsibility. For example, Bertlett et al. (2010) and Møller (1994) have suggested that leaders and employees jointly take ownership of their work situation. It is further argued in this present paper that organizational behavior consists not only of top-down leadership and bottom-up followership, but also of horizontal interactions between employees and reciprocal interactions between leaders and followers. In an attempt to go beyond the traditional leadership and followership perspectives and to cover all perspectives mentioned, Bertlett et al. (2010) presented the *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR). The model facilitates the study of work behaviors by focusing on three types of behaviors relevant to the concept of employeeship: vertical leadership behavior, horizontal peer employee behavior, and reciprocal leader-follower behavior.

Paper II, using the ELR Model showed that leadership behavior was best studied in interaction with follower behavior. Their study concerned the overall factors of the model (*peer employee*, *leadership*, and *congruent leader-follower behaviors*) and the factors' relation to six of the ten creative climate dimensions as defined by Ekvall (2004). Based on preliminary support for the ELR Model, the present study replicated the same analyses with an amended design that: 1) divided the factors of the ELR Model based on four situational dimensions: *individual-success*, *individual-hardship*, *group-success*, and *group-hardship* and 2) included new set of data partly from the same population to determine whether the results could be replicated. The instruments which operationalize the ELR Model, a modified version (Holmkvist, 2000) of the *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description* (LEAD; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) and the *Your Employeeship Questionnaire* (YEQ; Appendix B), were thus divided based on the same situational dimensions (also see questionnaire manual in Appendix A). The psychological climate was assessed using the *Creative Climate Questionnaire* (CCQ; Ekvall, 1990). During the psychometric evaluation of the CCQ, the first principal component of all ten dimensions explained about 53% of the variance. This high percentage indicated that there was a general climate dimension in the questionnaire. Hence, the first component was used as a measure of overall psychological climate.

The purposes of this study were to: 1) increase the understanding of the four facets of the ELR Model presented by Bertlett et al. (2010) and its applicability in different situations and 2) test and replicate the results in a baseline and follow-up study. The question was whether the situational dimensions of leadership, peer employee, and congruent leader-follower behaviors were related to the psychological climate.

The baseline study locations and return rates were the same as in *Paper II*. The follow-up study locations were the same divisions of the ground handling company and the ground control of air traffic service. Seventy-seven employees (12%) participated out of 628 invited.

The most important finding was that congruent leader-follower behavior is related to psychological climate with some variations between the situational dimensions, and hence an important factor for future research. Hierarchical regression analyses even indicated that three dimensions of congruent leader-follower behavior augment the importance of the three dimensions of leadership behavior and their relationship to psychological climate. The results were partly supported in the follow-up study. Without having explicitly tested it – a pre-requisite for continuing – it can reasonably be assumed so far that congruent leader-follower behavior is the most important factor of the ELR Model as regards the relationship to psychological climate. Following the results in this paper, which provided a detailed overview of the ELR Model's applicability in different types of situations, it was concluded that the model can: 1) help us understand leadership and employee behaviors, and the interaction between them and 2) map how employeeship works in different types of situations where leaders and follower reciprocally can learn how to support each other and what steps can be taken towards congruent behavior – the four facets contribute.

8 Discussion

The overall aims of the research presented in this doctoral dissertation were to contribute to the conceptualization of employeeship, to develop and present the *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR) (Bertlett, et al., 2010), to develop an employeeship questionnaire, to present a combination of the employeeship questionnaire and a leadership one, through which the ELR Model is operationalized, and to study the different behavioral factors (*leadership*, *peer employee*, and *congruent leader-follower behaviors*) of the ELR Model in relation to psychological climate. Leadership, peer employee, and leader-follower behaviors were all assumed to contribute to a positive psychological climate. The reason for studying the relation between employeeship and psychological climate was to test the theoretical and practical use of the ELR Model and to validate the employeeship questionnaire. Further, some research questions regarding the factors of the ELR Model concerned: 1) whether leader-follower behavior that represents both the leadership and the follower perspectives augments the value of leadership behavior and its positive correlation with psychological climate and 2) whether the situational dimensions (*individual-success*, *individual-hardship*, *group-success*, and *group-hardship*) of the three factors were adequate tools for providing more comprehensive information about the model's applicability to psychological climate in different work situations.

The most important findings were that: 1) all factors of the ELR Model correlate with psychological climate, 2) it is reasonable to assume that congruent leader-follower behavior is a more important factor than leadership and peer employee behaviors regarding the relation to psychological climate, 3) the *Your Employeeship Questionnaire* (YEQ) and the combination of the YEQ and the *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description* (LEAD) measure behaviors relevant to the ELR Model, and 4) the ELR Model brings new knowledge to the field of employeeship.

To test the conceptualization of the ELR Model and its operationalization by means of the YEQ and the LEAD, *leadership style adaptability*, *peer employee style adaptability*, and *congruent leader-follower style*, were studied in *Paper II* in correlational analyses relative to six of Ekvall's (1990) psychological climate

dimensions. The six dimensions (*Challenge/Motivation*, *Support for ideas*, *Trust/ Openness*, *Debate/Diversity*, *Absence of conflicts*, and *Idea time*) were selected based on the work of Ekvall (1999) and Møller (1994) that indicate that these dimensions share some conceptually central components with employeeship. Thus, the purpose of these analyses was to validate the newly operationalized constructs. All results were statistically significant. Overall this indicates that there is a relationship between all factors of the ELR Model and psychological climate. In detail the results indicate that: 1) leadership is an important factor related to how the employees perceive their climate (cf. Ekvall, 1996, 1999; Ekvall, et al., 1995), 2) there is a connection between peer employee behavior and psychological climate, 3) the YEQ measures employeeship according to the conceptualization of Møller (1994) and Bertlett et al. (2010), and 4) psychological climate correlates with the leaders' and followers' ability to act congruently. Congruent leader-follower behavior concerns the followers and leaders and how they match each other in collaborative settings. Congruent behavior is assumed to be a matter of task and role clarity, collaborative awareness, and situational learning. Even though such an assumption lacks theoretical and empirical support, it is of value since it facilitates a reasoning that leads to possible explanations about the relation between congruent behavior and psychological climate. The assumption implies that congruent behavior between leaders and followers requires that they know what to expect from each other. It creates a clear picture of where they stand and facilitates the process of how to solve a given task. Therefore, provided that task and role clarity is an aspect of congruent behavior, these results are in line with earlier research where task and role clarity has been indicated as important when considering the psychological climate (see Ekvall, 1996, 1999).

In *Paper II* it was also hypothesized that congruent leader-follower behavior augments the importance of leadership behavior in explaining the psychological climate. Congruent leader-follower behavior represents the interactive leader-follower perspective of the ELR Model. It is this factor that expands the traditional thinking of leadership and subordination in an organizational hierarchy. The results showed that congruent behavior adds unique variance, improving the explained variance in three of the six analyses (Challenge/Motivation, Support for ideas, and Idea time). Also, when the congruence variable was entered into these three hierarchical regression models, there were no longer statistically significant relationships between leadership behavior and the climate dimensions. This could mean that leadership behavior is not related to these dimensions when controlling for congruent leader-follower behavior. But since the independent

variables co-vary, this might be a facile explanation. There is, however, a theoretical and logical explanation for why leadership and employee behavior cannot be separated from each other. According to Hollander (1992a, 1992b) leadership and followership need synchronization where leader and follower behaviors have a reciprocal impact. Møller (1994) suggests that leadership has to be regarded as an aspect of employeeship and Uhl-Bien (2006) suggests that leadership occurs when leaders and followers are able to develop effective relations. Further, it is logical to assume that leaders and followers who have the required abilities to adapt their behaviors relative to the situation also have the abilities to adapt their behaviors relative to the behaviors of other leaders and/or followers. This means that good adaptability of leadership and peer employee behaviors is necessary in order to establish congruent leader-follower behavior. Thus, when there is a statistically significant relation between congruent leader-follower behavior and psychological climate in the hierarchical regression analyses, leadership and peer employee behaviors cannot be ruled out as unimportant even though their results are not statistically significant. Still, the results in *Paper II* indicate that most regression models are best explained when leader and follower behaviors are considered as one interactive function.

Based on the preliminary support for the ELR Model in *Paper II*, *Paper III* replicated the same analyses with an amended design that: 1) divided the factors of the ELR Model based on four situational dimensions: *individual-success*, *individual-hardship*, *group-success*, and *group-hardship*, 2) used the principal component (PC) of the climate questionnaire where the scales of the questionnaire were weighted based on the regression weights from the first PC in the baseline study, and 3) included follow-up data to determine whether the results could be replicated. The aim was to perform a detailed investigation of the ELR Model in order to provide a more complete picture of its applicability.

The correlation of the two individual dimensions of peer employee behavior with psychological climate was statistically significant. This indicates that the individual employee's behavior is relevant concerning the perception of the climate independent of success or hardship. These results support the suggestion in *Paper I* that employees should be regarded as active contributors in work relationships. The leadership analyses in *Paper III* fully supported the results presented in *Paper II*. These results indicated a relationship between all four situational dimensions of leadership behavior and the PC of psychological climate. Hence, all leadership results in this dissertation imply that leadership, if not the most important factor, still is relevant for how the employees perceive their climate.

Due to the somewhat low response rate in the follow-up analyses, it was only possible to carry out the correlational analyses between the situational dimensions of congruent leader-follower behavior and the PC of psychological climate. Both the baseline and the follow-up results are presented here in order to enable a discussion covering all relevant results that concern the correlations between congruent leader-follower behavior and psychological climate. In the baseline there were statistically significant correlations between psychological climate and both group dimensions as well as the individual-success dimension. As with the results in *Paper II*, it is also of value to discuss the results in *Paper III* from the perspective of task and role clarity. Group situations are more complex than individual situations and therefore assumed to require a higher level of task and role clarity to work properly. This means that task and role clarity and congruent behavior are relatively more important in group situations than in individual ones. Ambiguous tasks and roles and discrepant leader-follower behavior are probably more negative for team work than for individual work. This is a possible explanation for why employees who report congruent leader-follower behavior in group situations perceive a positive climate. The individual-success dimension can also be discussed from a task and role clarity perspective to explain why congruent behavior and task and role clarity are important for collaborations to work successfully. It is not possible to make a causal statement that congruent behavior affects the outcome of collaborative situations, but the results do reveal that employees who experience congruent leader-follower behavior in successful situations also perceive a positive psychological climate. Provided that psychological climate influences various organizational outcomes (Ekvall, 1996; Ekvall & Ryhammar, 1998; Fransson Sellgren, et al., 2008) it is reasonable to conclude a three-step relationship of congruent leader-follower behavior, psychological climate, and the outcome of the situation. Also in the follow-up study, three of four analyses were statistically significant. There were, however, a change of statistically significant results from one study to the other. The group-hardship dimension went from a statistically significant positive correlation to a zero correlation, while the individual-hardship dimension went the opposite direction. All in all the four dimensions received support but only two were replicated. An exploratory analysis showed that the results were sensitive to differences between the samples. Employees from two organizations who supported the baseline results did not participate in the follow-up study. In order to replicate fully the results of the baseline study, more studies are needed. It is assumed to be a matter of fit between the model and different situations, professions, and/or organizations. Therefore future research should address these differences.

The results in *Paper II* partly supported the hypothesis that the overall factor of congruent leader-follower behavior augments the value of leadership behavior and its correlation with the psychological climate dimensions. In *Paper III* the same type of analyses was performed but with the amended design where congruent leader-follower behavior was divided in four situational dimensions and the psychological climate was represented by the principal component. Again the hypothesis found partial support. Adding congruent leader-follower behavior to leadership and peer employee behaviors improved the percentage of explained variance regarding the individual-success, group-success, and group-hardship dimensions. No change was found regarding the individual-hardship dimension. Based on these results together with the concluding remark in the prior paragraph about psychological climate influencing organizational outcomes add up to a central conclusion about the ELR Model: congruent leader-follower behavior is an important factor relative to psychological climate. Hence congruent leader-follower behavior may be hypothesized as an important factor regarding organizational outcomes. Overall, the results in this work concerning the augmented importance of the congruent behavior seemingly indicate that the interactive leader-follower approach of employeeship is a more important factor vis-à-vis psychological climate than the leadership factor. Even though it is reasonable to assume that congruent leader-follower behavior is the most important factor of the three, it cannot be concluded before it has been explicitly tested with a more complex experimental analysis. Nevertheless, the integrated leader-follower perspective still provides a unique contribution.

The study of leadership (e.g., Bass, et al., 2003; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Judge & Piccolo, 2004) often tries to understand the impact of leaders on employees. Followership (Hollander, 1992a, 1992b) aims at revealing the reverse condition or at least, in accordance with other leadership theories (Pearce & Sims Jr., 2002; Uhl-Bien, 2006), highlighting that it is a reciprocal impact. Employeeship and the ELR Model aim to emphasize a reciprocal impact as well. But by putting equivalent focus on leaders and followers, employeeship also acknowledges the equally important counterpoint of *impacting* and *leading*, which is being *affected* and *following*. The results in this dissertation concerning congruent leader-follower behavior show that leadership is not only about leading, it is also about following. More specifically it is about collaborative awareness and situated learning where leaders and followers have to agree how the leader should lead and how the follower should follow. In this sense, ‘leaders’ and ‘followers’ do not necessarily imply formal positions, it is the situation that

determines who should lead and who should follow (Metcalf & Urwick, 1941). Therefore it also concerns the formal leaders' responsibility to realize when to share leadership and how to follow. This is probably easier to discuss in societies and organization where there is a shorter power distance (Hofstede, 1984) than in authoritarian environments. It is a matter of being loyal to the primary goal of the organization and not to personal goals (cf. Møller, 1994). Just because formal leaders have authority of action, it does not mean that they have to exercise it at all times. By allowing authority of meaning, which is most likely reflected in an innovative climate by means of openness, trust, debate, and shared authority (Saleh & Wang, 1993), it is probably easier to access more valid information, to make informed choices, and to detect the most suitable leader given the conditions of the specific situation.

One of the trends in leadership research today, this work included, advocates the benefits of self-, shared-, and peer leadership. But it must not be forgotten that leaders are in the minority and that there is a need to train the majority as well. At any time, there are almost always more followers than there are leaders. This is a research area that is relatively neglected. Pearce and Sims Jr. (2002) have provided some suggestions about learning how to lead as they discuss self- and shared leadership, but it seems to be taken for granted that learning how to follow is something most people can do without proper training. To lead and to follow is a reciprocal dependence. As a result of this discussion it is therefore suggested that leadership training should recognize this and facilitate collaborative awareness and task and role clarity. It is further assumed that it will be difficult to succeed in teaching awareness of this reciprocity in traditional leadership training programs where leaders are separated from followers. Training has to be constituted as a reflection of reality.

Methodological concerns

The instruments included have documented reliability and validity analyses in Ekvall (1990, 2004) concerning the *Creative Climate Questionnaire* (CCQ), in Greene (1980) concerning the *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description* (LEAD), and in Appendix A concerning the *Your Employeeship Questionnaire* (YEQ). In spite of this there are always questions that ought to be raised when using survey research methods. According to Parrott and Hertel (1999) the use of self-reports has both advantages and disadvantages. The advantage is the ease of use, which is important in applied settings where researchers often have limited access to perform measurements. One disadvantage is that self-reports could be

distorted and biased due to expectations and social norms, so-called *social desirability*. Other disadvantages are that the participants might misinterpret the question or statement of an item or the item might not correspond to any aspect of the participants' work situation, which ultimately means that they cannot provide a valuable judgment. In the CCQ the participants are instructed to make objective judgments about the organizational climate, which is assumed to reduce the risk of social desirability. This is probably also the case when participants with non-leading positions are asked to assess the expected behavior of their leaders. The self assessments in the YEQ by all employees and in the LEAD by participants in leading positions are contrary to the other assessments in being indeed a subjective measure. Hence, they are probably more sensitive to this kind of bias.

Another methodological consideration is the generalization of the results due to the somewhat low response rates. Since the employees who choose not to participate could be more positive or negative toward the studied factors than those who participated, the results are not representative for the whole sample. But since all analyses were made on the individual level with no claim of generalization, the results are less sensitive to the response rate. Nevertheless, analyses on the individual level still raise other methodological issues, such as the impact of method variance. According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) it is possible to decrease the impact of method variance by using different item and response formats, which here has been achieved with the LEAD and the YEQ on the one hand and the CCQ on the other. Whether the results here from the airport sector can indicate the ELR Model's applicability in other areas is too early to determine. More empirical data are needed. The response rates of the LEAD and the YEQ are lower than the one of the CCQ in both measurements. The reason for this is that different rules were applied concerning the rejection of the responded questionnaires. The CCQ was rejected if it had more than 5% missing values. With 5% or less, the items were assigned the mean value calculated from available items of the relevant scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The LEAD and YEQ were rejected if any values were missing (i.e., case-wise deletion). Each item of these questionnaires is part of two scales, style profile and style adaptability, which cannot be managed with a mean value substitution.

The ELR Model and the YEQ are mainly developed from Scandinavian conditions. This could affect the model's general applicability and the possibility to generalize results found with the YEQ across borders. Further, none of the instruments included was developed for the somewhat specific working conditions that prevail at an airport, which could affect the results to some degree.

Conclusions and practical implications

First, leadership is a strong contributing factor to the organizational climate (Ekvall, 1996, 1999; Ekvall, et al., 1995), which correlates with organizational success (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Fransson Sellgren, et al., 2008; Moy, 2004; Silverthorne, 2001; Weil, et al., 2001) and organizational outcomes (Ekvall, 1996, 1999; Ekvall & Ryhammar, 1998; Fransson Sellgren, et al., 2008; Newman, et al., 2002). The results in this dissertation support a relationship between leadership and psychological climate. Even so, the results also indicate that leadership is a narrow perspective, which can be advantageously expanded beyond the traditional top-down patterns of thinking of hierarchical leadership to include the follower perspective. Leadership, peer employee, and congruent leader-follower behaviors all explain psychological climate, so the one cannot replace the other. Still, the leader-follower perspective is possibly more important regarding organizational success and outcomes due to its seemingly stronger relationship to psychological climate. The practical implication of this is that organizations have to recognize this and incorporate it into training programs.

Second, collaborative training sessions should include both leaders and followers with an increased focus on group dynamics (e.g., addressing issues aimed at reaching task, role, and behavioral agreement). This is in line with the suggestions made by Pearce and Sims Jr. (2002) that both leaders and followers should participate in leadership development, something which has proven to have positive effects on team effectiveness. Pearce and Manz (2005) also argue that formal leaders have to set a good example of leadership behavior and that coworkers need preparation to exercise self- and shared leadership.

Third, the balance of responsibility and authority are assumed to be important in leadership training and the congruence of leader-follower behavior. It is a process that requires combined efforts from different organizational levels. To mention some key aspects that need to be processed and accomplished in order to achieve balance, it is recommended that top management advocates the importance of shared responsibility and authority, that leaders recognize the benefits and are willing to share, and that followers receive proper support towards accepting responsibility and authority. Therefore, it is suggested that more focus should be placed on the questions of whom and how to share and accept responsibility and authority throughout the training of formal and informal leaders.

Fourth, the results presented in *Paper III* provide a detailed outline of the ELR Model's applicability in different types of work situations. This is helpful when trying to improve leadership behavior, employee behavior, and the interaction between them. The ELR Model can help guiding the analysis and map how employeeship works in different types of situations. It provides best cases for a certain factor (e.g., leadership behavior) in a specific dimension (e.g., individual-success) for others to study and learn from.

Limitations and future research

The possibility to generalize the results presented in this dissertation is limited due to two facts: the two measurements were limited to five and three organizations, and the return rates were somewhat low. To validate the ELR Model and support the results, more data will be needed. Additional larger data sets would also facilitate the specification of more complex causal models. Some respondents gave feedback about the LEAD and YEQ being too extensive. Possible reductions are considered without reducing any one dimension to a single-item measure, which is often criticized as being unreliable (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). Finally it is of interest to study the ELR Model relative to the following: 1) conceptually important factors such as participation, communication, followership, and leadership theories in order to more clearly describe the model's theoretical contribution and 2) operationally important factors such as creativity, productivity, and staff turnover in order to explore its practicability.

Reflections at the end of a journey

Looking back at the last years of my professional life that I have dedicated to my doctoral work, I ask myself what I have accomplished. Six years have passed and the process has taken so many unexpected turns. There have been setbacks, and of course, times of joy, positive surprises, and breakthroughs, that I lost count a long time ago. The only things that are certain is that what I set out to do in general is what I did do, but most of the details are quite different from what I expected. Here I see no point in reflecting on what could have been and what did not become. Instead I will reflect on the process as it was.

In the beginning there was a lot of reading, thinking, and discussing. I searched for literature that could help me describe employeeship as I understood it. Based on the literature I found and the many discussions with my advisor I continued my search, drew a model, searched through some more literature, read, discussed, and redrew the model until I came up with one that I decided I could

work with. At this point I had contributed to the understanding of the term employeeship following an approach I believe nobody has done before. I think that the ELR Model illustrates a new possible way to the study of employeeship: how employees behave in work relationships and how it can be explained according to the conceptualization. Before it was possible to test the model I had to operationalize it by means of a set of questionnaires. Since I was challenged from the beginning by the possibility to study employeeship on the behavioral level, the modified version (Holmkvist, 2000) of the LEAD (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) that measures expected leadership behavior was a good starting point. Because it was of utmost importance to enable a comparison between leadership and employee behaviors, I took the LEAD items and started to develop the *Your Employeeship Questionnaire* (see Appendix A). With this done it was time to test the model, the YEQ, and the combination of the two questionnaires. After the first measurement round I did not know what to expect. I was sure that I had done a good job concerning the theoretical work. I could argue why employeeship by means of leadership, peer employee, and congruent leader-follower behaviors should correlate with psychological climate. Also, I was not worried about finding a correlation between leadership behavior and psychological climate. Earlier studies had indicated such a relationship (see Ekvall, 1996, 1999; Ekvall, et al., 1995). But regarding the other two factors it was a different ballgame. Just because the theoretical connection was supposedly made, it did not mean that the operationalization was successful. Luckily, the results indicated that there are reasons to assume it was. Further, considering that the factors of the ELR Model are assessed as expected behavior, I achieved what intrigued and challenged me, that is, the possibility to use both employee and leadership behavioral data in an applied setting. Even though a more positive response rate would be of benefit regarding the conclusions, I am convinced that the results show that employeeship and the ELR Model add something new of theoretical and practical value and thus should be given further theoretical and empirical attention.

9 Svensk sammanfattning

Summary in Swedish

Akademisk avhandling vid Lunds universitet 2011

En medarbetarskapsmodell och dess relation till psykologiskt klimat

En studie av samstämmighet i beteende hos ledare och följare

Johan Bertlett

Denna avhandling behandlar organisatoriska aspekter som organisationsklimat, psykologiskt klimat samt medarbetarskap utifrån ledarskapsbeteende, arbetskamratsbeteende och interaktivt ledare-följarebeteende. Den sistnämnda faktorn handlar både om ledarens och följarens (medarbetarens, arbetskamratens) beteende och om dessa är samstämmiga (kongruenta) eller skilda.

Avhandlingsprojektet är ett av många samarbeten mellan LFV (svenska flygtrafiktjänsten), Swedavia (statsägt bolag som äger och driver flertalet svenska flygplatser) och Lunds universitet. Samarbetet har sedan 1998 huvudsakligen behandlat psykologiska, organisatoriska och human factors-relaterade aspekter och resulterat i både magisteruppsatser och doktorsavhandlingar. Starten till denna avhandling var när representanter på Stockholm-Arlanda flygplats identifierade behovet av att undersöka och följa upp införandet av ett nytt beslutfattningssystem vid namn collaborative decision making (CDM). Införandet av CDM med relaterade nya arbetsprocedurer och teknologi förväntades påverka de anställda i sitt arbete och samarbetet mellan olika aktörer på flygplatsen. Med tanke på att mycket av det som sker på en flygplats kräver en hög säkerhetsnivå för att inte utsätta personal och resenärer för fara, är det viktigt att organisations- och arbetsrelaterade förändringar inte påverkar personalen negativt.

Det är känt att flygplatser kommer att vara en av de större flaskhalsarna i framtidens luftfart. Ett sätt att höja kapaciteten är att förbättra procedurer relaterade till flygplanens ankomst till flygplats, turn-round på flygplats och avgång från flygplats (turn-round översätts inte då den engelska termen även används som fackterm i svenskt flyg). Turn-round innefattar de aktiviteter, t.ex. påstigning av passagerare, hantering av baggage och tankning, som sker när flygplanet

är parkerat vid gaten. Dessa aktiviteter kräver nära samarbete inom och mellan de organisationer som har till uppgift att förbereda nästa avgång. För att detta ska fungera bra med ökad trafikvolym i framtiden behövs förbättrad spridning av information mellan deltagande företag, samt ny teknik som stödjer samarbete och skapar ökad insyn i varandras arbete. Ett sådant åtagande att förbättra samarbete och rutiner i anslutning till turn-round är CDM. Till en början byggdes hela studien upp för att följa införandet av CDM där bland annat medarbetarskap var en ingående faktor. Till följd av flera förseningar vilket hade omöjliggjort avhandlingsarbetet, omarbetades emellertid upplägget till att innefatta två mätningar som genomfördes före införandet av CDM. Som konsekvens av detta blev avhandlingens primära syfte att utveckla och testa en medarbetarskapsmodell.

Flera forskare är överens om att relationer och samarbete är centrala begrepp i definitionen och att medarbetarskap också handlar om hur en anställd hanterar relationerna till sin arbetsgivare och sitt arbete. Det finns också en ganska tydlig samstämmighet i att medarbetarskap handlar om balansen mellan ansvar och befogenhet, lojalitet, förtroende, engagemang, delaktighet, social och teknisk kompetens, kommunikation, eget och delat ledarskap, självstyrande anställda och gränsdragningen mellan arbete och privatliv. De flesta av dessa faktorer är svåra att studera utan att inkludera ledarskap. Det finns de som menar att ledarskap och medarbetarskap måste studeras i relation till varandra medan andra går längre och föreslår att ledarskap är en del av medarbetarskapet. Trots detta finns det än idag inte en modell som inkluderar ledarskap som en del i medarbetarskapet.

Denna avhandlings bidrag till vidareutvecklingen av medarbetarskapsbegreppet tar sin utgångspunkt i de faktorer som nämns i stycket ovan. Men eftersom frågeställningarna här skiljer sig från de flesta som tidigare har ställts tar utvecklingen en ny inriktning. Det betyder även att metoden för att studera medarbetarskap skiljer sig från tidigare studier. Tidigare studier har ofta haft ett organisatoriskt perspektiv med fokus på *vad* medarbetarskap är och vilket uttryck det kan ta i en organisation. Fokus i denna avhandling är *hur* de anställda uttrycker medarbetarskapet på individnivå ur ett arbetsperspektiv. En annan skillnad gäller ledarskap och hur det införlivas i medarbetarskap. Här inkluderas ledarskap i medarbetarskapsdefinitionen samt i den modell som presenteras i avhandlingen. Medarbetarskap föreslås vara baserat på två pelare som anses vara viktiga i hanteringen av arbetsrelationer. Dessa är *social förmåga* och *kompetens att utföra uppgiften*. Definitionen av medarbetarskap lyder: *De beteenden som utgör den dynamiska processen av ömsesidiga arbetsrelationer mellan två eller flera anställda baserat på deras sociala förmåga och kompetens att utföra uppgiften*.

Drivkraften i avhandlingsarbetet var att studera hur anställda beter sig mot varandra utifrån ett interaktivt perspektiv där alla anställda i en organisation anses bidra aktivt till organisationens framgång. Detta relationsperspektiv är centralt i medarbetarskap. Målsättningen med avhandlingen var att bidra såväl till begreppsutvecklingen som till metodutvecklingen vad det gäller att studera medarbetarskap. Syftet var att utveckla och presentera modellen *Employeeship-Leadership-Relationship Model* (ELR) som åskådliggör medarbetarskapets tre perspektiv: ledarskaps-, arbetskamrats- och ledare-följareperspektiven. Vidare, att presentera och testa två frågeformulär genom vilka ELR-modellen är operationaliserad och att studera modellens tre faktorer, vertikalt *ledarskapsbeteende*, horisontellt *arbetskamratsbeteende* och ömsesidigt *kongruent ledare-följare-beteende* i förhållande till *psykologiskt klimat*.

Tre studier genomfördes av vilka den första är en teoretisk, begreppsmässig studie och de andra två bygger på empiriskt material insamlat på Stockholm-Arlanda flygplats. I den första empiriska studien deltog rampservice och passagerarservice från ett marktjänstföretag (ground handling), kontrolltornet och rangeringstornet från flygtrafiktjänsten och en avdelning från ett flygbolag. I den andra empiriska studien deltog samma avdelningar från marktjänstföretaget och rangeringstornet. Det psykologiska klimatet studerades med frågeformuläret *Creative Climate Questionnaire*, ledarskapsbeteendet studerades med *Din Ledarstil* som bygger på frågeformuläret *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description*, arbetskamratsbeteendet studerades med *Ditt Medarbetarskap* och kongruent ledare-följarebeteende räknades ut baserat på svaren från motsvarande frågor i ledarskaps- och medarbetarskapsenkäterna.

I den första studien placerades medarbetarskap i sitt sammanhang relativt andra mera etablerade organisatoriska koncept som ledarskap, följarskap och självbestämmande. Vidare bidrog studien till den begreppsmässiga vidareutvecklingen av medarbetarskap och föreslog den definition som presenterades tidigare. Studien presenterade även ELR-modellen, passande metoder att samla in data, lämpliga forskningsfrågor för att testa modellen samt en diskussion av möjliga styrkor och svagheter. En av slutsatserna var att ELR-modellen möjliggör att gemensamt studera såväl det hierarkiska perspektivet av ledarskapsbeteende som det horisontella perspektivet av arbetskamratsbeteende och det ömsesidiga perspektivet av ledare-följarebeteende.

Syftet med den första empiriska studien, dvs. studie två, var att testa ELR-modellen, medarbetarskapsenkäten och kombinationen av ledarskaps- och medarbetarskapsenkäterna. Som ett led i att göra detta antogs det att ELR-modellens

tre faktorer korrelerade med valda dimensioner i det psykologiska klimatet: *Utmaning/Motivation*, *Idéstöd*, *Tillit/Öppenhet*, *Debatt/Mångfald*, *Konflikter* och *Idétid*. Dessa dimensioner valdes baserat på tidigare studier som påvisat att dessa dimensioner har teoretiska likheter med medarbetarskapsbegreppet. Ett annat antagande var att samstämmigt ledare-följarebeteende tillför unik varians till ledarskapsbeteende och dess positiva korrelation med klimatdimensionerna. Resultaten visade att: 1) det finns en relation mellan ELR-modellens tre faktorer och psykologiskt klimat, 2) medarbetarskapsenkäten mäter beteende relevant för ELR-modellen och 3) samstämmigt ledare-följarebeteende delvis tillför unik varians vad det gäller ledarskapsbeteende och dess förmåga att förklara psykologiskt klimat.

Den sista studien upprepade de analyser som genomfördes i den första empiriska studien med en förändrad design som: 1) delade upp ELR-modellens tre faktorer baserat på fyra situationsdimensioner: *individ-framgång*, *individ-motgång*, *grupp-framgång* och *grupp-motgång* och 2) inkluderade en andra mätning för att kunna avgöra om resultaten kunde replikeras. Syftet var att genomföra en detaljerad undersökning av ELR-modellen för att tillhandahålla en mer komplett bild om dess användbarhet. Frågan som ställdes var huruvida ledarskapsbeteende, arbetskamratsbeteende och samstämmigt ledare-följarebeteende uppdelat på de fyra situationsdimensionerna var relaterade till psykologiskt klimat. Det viktigaste resultatet visade att samstämmigt ledare-följarebeteende är relaterat till psykologiskt klimat, dock med viss variation mellan situationsdimensionerna. En hierarkisk regressionsanalys indikerade även att samstämmigt ledare-följarebeteende tillför unik varians till ledarskapsbeteende och dess positiva korrelation med psykologiskt klimat. Resultaten fick delvis stöd i den andra mätningen.

Några av slutsatserna var att samstämmigt beteende mellan ledare och följare expanderar ledarskapsperspektivet bortom traditionellt tänkande om formellt ledarskap och underställd i en organisatorisk hierarki, att organisationer vinner fördelar genom att införliva detta tänkande i sina ledarskapsprogram och inkludera följare i det som berör ledarskapsutveckling samt att ELR-modellen kan guida analysen av hur medarbetarskap fungerar i olika typer av arbetssituationer där ledare och följare kan lära hur de på ett bra sätt kan stödja varandra för att uppnå samstämmigt beteende.

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Appendix