DISSERTATION ABSTRACT

Doctor of Philosophy

Organizational Leadership

Adventist University of Africa

School of Postgraduate Studies

Title: FOLLOWERSHIP TRAITS AND STYLES EFFECT ON ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN SEVENTH-DAY ADVENTIST ORGANIZATIONS IN KENYA: THE MODERATING ROLE OF FOLLOWER DEMOGRAPHICS AND LEADERSHIP PERSONALITY

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Date: May 2025

This study examined the influence of followership styles and traits on organizational performance and the moderating roles of leadership personality and follower demographics in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya. Using a quantitative, cross-sectional, correlational research design, data were collected from 381 respondents via self-administered questionnaires. The findings revealed a significant but weak correlation between leadership personality and employee performance (r = -.439, p < .001) and organizational financial sustainability (r = .271, p < .001). Followership styles, such as exemplary followers (β = .295, p < .001), alienated (β = -.279, p < .001), and pragmatic (β = .085, p = .001), are predictors of job satisfaction, while alienated (ß=-.385, p <.001) and passive followers (ß=-.159, p <.01) significantly influenced financial sustainability. Also, followership

attributes such as competence was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction (ß = .529, p < .001), and good judgment was the strongest predictor of financial sustainability (ß = .455, p < .001). In addition, none of the followers' demographic characteristics had a significant effect. However, leadership personality mediated alienated followership style and job satisfaction (B= -.357, SE= .104, p = <.001).

The study concludes that followership styles and traits significantly influence organizational performance, with leadership personality serving as the moderating factor. Based on the results, it is strongly recommended that organizations give serious consideration to followership.

Keywords: Followership, Organization Performance, Leadership Personality, Seventh-day Adventists

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A dissertation

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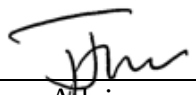

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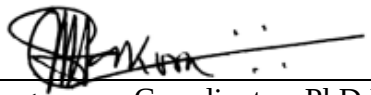

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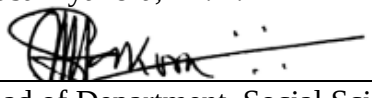

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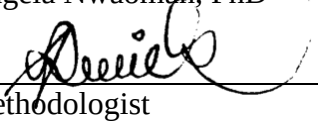

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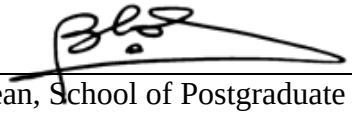

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Dedicated to Followers

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Organizational performance is a multidimensional concept that refers to how well an organization achieves strategic objectives. It includes both financial and nonfinancial outcomes (George et al., 2019). Although leadership is often recognized as a critical factor for achieving organizational performance, the leadership factor is half the story (Lee et al., 2023; Hurwitz & Hurwitz, 2015).

At different stages of their work, employees assume the roles of leaders or followers. While leadership positions are more visible, followership is equally prevalent, shaping the functioning of individuals, groups, and organizations. Followership, however, has historically received less scholarly attention compared to leadership, despite its fundamental importance in achieving organizational success. Whether adhering to religious beliefs, political ideologies, or organizational goals, individuals follow, often leading to crucial collective outcomes.

Collinson (2006) underscores the significance of followership, highlighting that leadership cannot exist without followers. While much of the existing literature emphasizes leadership development, there remains a conspicuous gap in research on followership. As Latour and Rast (2004) found, individuals spend more time in the follower role than a leader. Despite this, organizational scholarship has predominantly focused on leadership qualities and behaviors, neglecting the critical role followers play in driving organizational outcomes. Kelley (1988) defined followers as individuals who choose to align with a leader in pursuit of an organizational goal, and

according to Bratton & Francis (2020), followers are responsible for much of an organization's daily operations and successes. Yet, the full potential of followers and their behavior within organizations remains underexplored (Kelley, 1992; Ohrberg, 2014).

This study builds upon the findings of Rook (2018), who noted the significant impact followers have on organizational success, and the work of Kelley (1992), who contended that followership accounts for at least 80% of team performance. According to Riggio (2014), the roles of leaders and followers are not static; both individuals may alternate between these roles, depending on the context, making it crucial to understand the dynamics between leadership and followership. However, research on the contributions of followers lags behind leadership studies. A search of the available literature reveals that leadership texts vastly outnumber followership studies—Amazon.com lists over 95,000 books on leadership, but only 1,000 on followership (Bjugstad et al., 2006). Similarly, Google Scholar reports more than 3 million hits for "leadership" compared to just 22,500 for "followership" (Google, 2022).

Despite the importance of followership, studies on this topic are few (Cunningham, 2022; Whitt, 2023). The lack of attention to followership is concerning, as followers, often the majority in any organization, carry out essential tasks that sustain day-to-day operations and contribute to the organization's overall performance. Rook (2018) emphasized that the neglect of followership in academic literature impedes a full understanding of the leadership process in practice. Furthermore, research by Shen and Abe (2023) suggests that misconceptions about followership, such as its association with passivity and conformity, may also contribute to marginalization in organizational research.

While the literature gap on followership is evident in the business world, it is also pronounced in nonprofit organizations, particularly religious organizations. The Seventh-day Adventist Church, as one example of a faith-based organization, offers a unique setting in which the dynamics of followership can be explored. Given the spiritual and communal nature of faith-based organizations, understanding how followers' roles contribute to the success of the organization is paramount. Research in this area could provide new insights into how followership styles and traits—shaped by both demographic factors and leadership personality—affect organizational outcomes.

Problem Statement

Organizational performance has traditionally been attributed to leadership, with a disproportionate emphasis on leadership styles and attributes. Over $50 billion is spent globally on leadership development (Kellerman, 2016), yet the critical role of followership in achieving organizational success has often been overlooked. While leadership theories and models continue to evolve (e.g., Kouzes & Posner, 2020; Northouse, 2022), the literature on followership remains relatively nascent.

The significant role of followership has led to the development of theoretical foundations (Chaleff, 1995; Kelley, 1988) and several empirical studies (Othman & Busari, 2024; Essa, & Alattari). However, the majority of the research on followership originates from regions outside Africa. Moreover, limited research has focused on non-profit, faith-based settings to understand the relationship between followership and organizational performance (Cunningham, 2022). Therefore, there is a need to examine how church workers relate to leaders and their role as followers within the overall authority structures of mission-driven organizations, such as the Seventh-day Adventist Church in Kenya. Furthermore, there is a need for more empirical research

on the relationship between followership patterns of behavior and other organizational outcomes to determine how followership theories are applied (Kellerman, 2008; Novikov, 2016) in various contexts.

This study examines the relationship between followership styles, traits, leadership personality, demographic factors, and the performance of followers within Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya. Understanding the dynamics of followership and organizational performance, particularly within the context of religious organizations, addresses a significant gap in leadership research (Epitropaki et al., 2021). The findings of this research contribute to the literature on followership in faith-based settings.

Research Questions

1. What are the traits and styles of followers in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?
2. Is there a significant correlation between leadership personality and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?
3. Which followership styles best predict organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?
4. Which follower traits best predict organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?
5. Do followers' demographic attributes moderate the link between followership styles/traits and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?

6. Does leadership personality moderate the relationship between followership and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?

Null Hypothesis

$H0_1$ There is no significant correlation between leadership personality and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?

$H0_2$ Followership styles are not significant predictors of organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

$H0_3$ Followership traits are not significant predictors of organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

$H0_4$ Followers' demographic attributes do not moderate the link between followership and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

$H0_5$ Leaders' personality does not moderate the link between followership and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

Conceptual Framework

This study examined the relationship between followership and organizational performance in the context of Seventh-day Adventist organizations. The conceptual framework of this study is based on role, empowerment, and distributed leadership

theories. The framework comprises a set of independent, dependent, and moderating variables, as shown in Figure 1.

The framework suggests that organizational performance (dependent variable) is impacted by the attributes and styles of followers (White & Mackenzie, 2016; White & Mackenzie, 2003). Regardless of an organization's goal or purpose, success depends on productive followers (Wynter-Mitchell El, 2019). Different followership styles have different levels of performance, which ultimately impacts organizational performance (Novikov, 2016). Organizational performance is measured using two key outcomes: job satisfaction and financial sustainability.

This study considered followership styles and traits as independent variables that may directly influence organizational performance. Based on Kelley's (1992) followership model, followers may exhibit passive, conformist, pragmatic, alienated, passive, or exemplary behaviors. As suggested by Carsten et al. (2010), exemplary followers are proactive and constructive, which improves organizational performance, whereas passive followers are disengaged, which has a negative impact. Alienated followers may oppose leadership, whereas pragmatic followers may adjust to the situation. Therefore, this study examined how these different followership styles influence organizational performance in faith-based organizations.

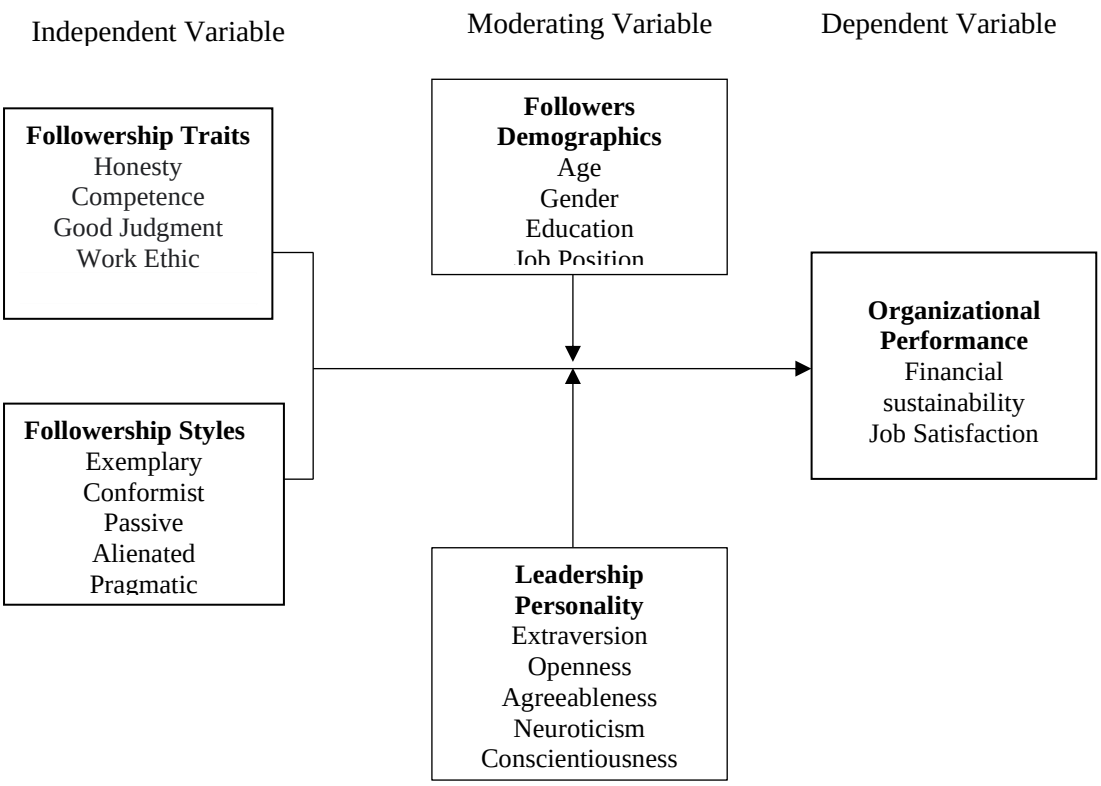
In addition, followership traits such as work ethic, good judgment, honesty, and competence are crucial organizational contextual factors that impact organizational performance. Riggio et al., (2008) posited that personal attributes influence how effectively followers fulfill their roles. For instance, followers with high competence and good judgment tend to make better decisions, contributing to improved performance, while traits like honesty and loyalty foster trust and team cohesion, further enhancing organizational outcomes.

Additionally, the framework also considered follower demographics (e.g., age, gender, educational background) and leadership personality (e.g., neuroticism, agreeableness, openness, extraversion, and conscientiousness) as moderating variables that might affect the strength of the relationship between followership and organizational performance.

A synthesis of the variables examined provides an overview of the conceptual framework of this study, as indicated in Figure 1. Consequently, the model was tested based on the specified hypotheses.

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework of the Study



Significance of the Study

The results of this study are of significant value. Effective followership plays an important role in leadership processes and organizational performance. Hopefully, this study will have positive implications for Seventh-day Adventist church organizations, nonprofit organizations, researchers, and others.

First, Seventh-day Adventist church organizations, particularly in Kenya, are likely to benefit from this study. Identifying followership styles and traits will help leaders understand the interplay between role expectations and the leader-follower relationship. This will enhance effective teamwork and organizational success and foster a positive work environment.

Second, by focusing on nonprofit organizations, particularly religious organizations, this study offers a unique context in which leadership and followership take place. By extension, the outcome of this study will increase nonprofit leaders' understanding of followership and their important role in organizational success.

In addition, researchers and students may use this study as a reference source. Moreover, researchers may leverage the research limitations and recommendations for further studies. Also, this research adds to the sparse literature and empirical research on followership conducted within the African context and religious settings.

Scope, Limitations, and Assumptions of the Study

Scope of the Study

This study primarily investigated the influence of followerwhip traits and styles on organizational performance in the context of Seventh-day Adventist organizations. The study focused on the Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya, comprising the East Kenya Union Conference and West Kenya Union Conference of the Seventh-day Adventists and the four institutions that are shared by

both unions in Kenya. Therefore, the target population of the study was Seventh-day Adventist denominational employees in Kenya, including regular and contractual employees.

The variables of interest included followership traits, styles, followers' demographic profiles, leadership personlity and their influences on organizational performance.

Limitations of the Study

This study has potential limitations that might have some bearing on its results. First, the scope of the study was limited to Seventh-day Adventist denominational workers, which could affect the generalizability of the findings. Second, the results of the study are based on self-reported data, a possibility that the respondents may provide socially desirable answers for fear that they will be judged rather than being truthful about their followership behavior. To mitigate this challenge, the researcher assured the respondents of their anonymity by using questionnaires in which personal identifiers were omitted.

Assumptions

This study assumes that followers play a significant role in achieving organizational goals. More so, just like leaders, followers display styles that influence their level of engagement and contribution to the organization. Furthermore, organizational performance can be measured using financial (e.g., financial sustainability) and nonfinancial (e.g., employee satisfaction) indicators.

It was also assumed that the study sample accurately represented the target population of the study and that the respondents provided honest and accurate responses in the survey for accurate data analysis. Besides, the data collection instrument used to measure the study variables are valid and reliable.

Operational Definition of Terms

Financial Sustainability. Refers to the capacity of an organization to maintain financial stability that permits it to continue offering services to its clientele over time. Financial sustainability indicators include self-support/sufficiency and liquidity or the ability to meet cash requirements.

Follower. A denominational employee of the Seventh-day Adventist church who has a supervisor in the same organization. These employees include the regular and contractual workers within the organization. In this study, the terms employee and follower are used interchangeably.

Followers Demographics. A general description of Seventh-day Adventist employees' profiles in age, gender, job position/title, education attained, and years of service.

Followership Styles. Refers to how followers respond to leadership authority or influence in an organization. This is measured by Kelley's model of followership — exemplary, conformist, passive, alienated, and pragmatist styles.

Followership Traits. The personal characteristics or attributes of followers such as honesty, work ethics, competence, and loyalty.

Followership. The aptitude to efficiently carry out instructions, assist a leader's efforts, and take the proper action to maximize organizational performance. Additionally, it suggests a difference in status and authority between the leader and the followers.

Job Satisfaction. Represents a follower's thoughts and psychological feelings about his/her the job.

Leadership personality. This describes a leader's attributes or traits that consistently characterize his/her behavior pattern. Leadership personality traits

are measured by the “Big Five” personality model — openness to experience, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism.

Organizational Performance. An evaluation of how well an organization achieves its projected goals. This is measured by the level of financial sustainability and employees' job satisfaction.

Seventh-day Adventist Church. The Seventh-day Adventist Church is a Protestant Christian denomination with distinctive beliefs and practices, including observing the Sabbath on the seventh day of the week (Saturday) and emphasizing healthful living in preparation for the second coming of Jesus Christ.

Seventh-day Adventist Organization. A formal establishment owned and operated by the Seventh-day Adventist church to fulfill a specific purpose or mission. Examples include ecclesiastical organizations such as the local Conferences/Field, the Union Conferences, and institutions such as universities, hospitals, and printing press in Kenya.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews relevant literature and studies on followership and performance based on the key variables depicted in the conceptual framework displayed in Figure 1. The review was conducted by searching databases available at the Adventist University of Africa's Library. An extensive search was carried out, mainly using electronic databases such as ProQuest, Sage Journals, Emerald, and EBSCOhost, to find relevant articles and journals. These databases were selected because they catalog multidisciplinary sources relevant to organizational research.

Theoretical Foundation of the Study

A theory is a set of systematically related assertions that can be tested empirically (Hair et al., 2023). It provides a theoretical foundation for deductive theory testing and causal research (Sekaran & Bougie, 2020). This study is rooted in three theories: role, empowerment, and distributed leadership theories.

Role Theory

A role-theoretical perspective is important in understanding followership. Gesualdi, while echoing the sentiments of Biddle (1979), suggested that role theory explains how individuals receive and enact expected tasks and behaviors (Gesualdi, 2017). Sluss et al. (2011) contended that people perform various roles throughout their lives. In one's family, communal, and professional lives, roles such as that of a spouse, parent, volunteer for a cause, follower, or leader serve vital needs. These roles also give individuals a sense of who they are and who they are becoming.

In organizational settings, a role describes how a person is expected to behave in the work environment, depending on organizational culture. Role theory is defined as "the study of behaviors that are characteristic of persons within contexts and with various processes that are presumably responsible for producing, explaining, or being influenced by those behaviors" (Gesualdi, 2017, p. 1). Role theory thus investigates how socially acceptable roles impact personal behavior and offers insights into how others view behavior in connection to such roles (Anglin et al., 2022). Each person in an organization assumes the roles of an employee, a manager, a department head, a customer, a vendor, a team member, etc. These positions may be played simultaneously (for instance, a manager on a product development team and department representative) or separately (for instance, delivering and receiving performance reviews as a manager and follower, respectively), depending on the situation.

How followers behave and respond to their roles is largely determined by the specific roles they are assigned. Followers who understand and embrace their roles in any organization will help achieve the organizational goal. Within an organization, followers work together to exert influence and can act singly or in groups to have either favorable or unfavorable effects on their leaders. Therefore, the role-based perspective clarifies how the follower role (behavior) in the organizational hierarchy contributes to and influences leadership effectiveness and performance (Khan et al., 2020). It views followers as individuals who enact appropriate organizational behaviors (Zoogah, 2014). For instance, followers are expected to serve the organization's stakeholders, leaders, and themselves without any conflicts of interest (Chaleff, 2009). Sluss et al. (2011) made the following claims in light of this: (1) work is experienced and lived through one's roles; (2) the resulting role identities have

a significant impact on individual effect, behavior, and cognition; and (3) understanding behavior inside organizations. In other words, roles enable followers to adopt behaviors that are consistent with the goals and standards of the organization. Furthermore, in the words of Bunin et al. (2022), "Without effective followers, organizations flounder, decision-making only occurs at the highest levels, and plans are either partially or completely executed" (p. 1).

In Seventh-day Adventist organizations, denominational employees play specific roles as departmental heads, administrative assistants, accountants, media personalities, and pastors, among others. The advantage of this theory is that it guides the researcher in examining how denominational employees play their role as followers. Simplified perceptions of dynamic human actions in companies can result from the frequent assumption of role theory that roles are fixed and predetermined. This limitation was addressed in the study by ensuring that followers understood their roles within their different contexts.

Empowerment Theory

Empowerment theory offers a helpful framework for analyzing followership. Turner and Maschi (2015) assert that the concept of empowerment originated from Paulo Freire (1973, 1998). Paulo concentrated on the humanity of the oppressed and held that to comprehend their needs, one had to go into their world, develop empathy for them, and connect with them.

Empowerment connotes different meanings (Cornell Empowerment Group, 1989); however, the concept of empowerment implies power associated with ownership and possession (Hermann, 2003). It also means ‘to impart or bestow power to an end or for a purpose; to enable, permit’ (Lincoln et al., 2002, p. 272). Perkins and Zimmerman (1995) described empowerment as "an intentional, ongoing process

centered in the local community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring, and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of valued resources gain greater access to and control over those resources." (p.569).

Kamin (2022) and Perkins & Zimmerman (1995) classifies empowerment into three levels: (1) Individual-level empowerment describes how much a person has competence, control, and self-efficacy when interacting with others and making an impact in a particular environment. (2) Organizational empowerment refers to initiatives taken by organizations to empower their members (Wilke & Speer, 2011); (3) Community empowerment refers to relationships between organizations and community members that may boost group involvement aimed at enhancing community control (Wallerstein, 1992). In work environments, empowerment theory enables employees to gain access to vital information, resources, support, and the opportunity to learn, make contributions and grow.

As also noted by Erickson et al. (2003), “empowerment is thought to occur when an organization sincerely engages people and progressively responds to this engagement with mutual interest and intention to promote growth” (p. 96). This implies that empowerment does not occur in a vacuum. Leadership shapes or informs the empowerment process and method. Thus, empowerment is an active, participatory process through which effective followers are enabled to gain greater control over their work and right to voice. Empowerment theory is therefore important to this study. Empowered employees are more committed to their organizations (Wilkinson, 1998; Zaraket et al., 2018).

Empowerment, like any other theory, has its limitations. One major limitation of this theory is the inconsistent evidence supporting the efficacy of empowerment initiatives (Siegall & Gardner, 2000). Another area for improvement is that workplace

empowerment is frequently viewed as detrimental. Some organizations fear that delegating authority to their workforce might result in leadership forfeiting their responsibilities as managers and supervisors of the company (Zhao et al., 2020). In the Seventh-day Adventist context, followers enjoy structured empowerement due to the clarity of everyone's role. Leaders are trained to embrace empowerment strategies, ensuring their role as facilitators rather than controllers.

Distributed Leadership Theory

Distributed leadership (DL) is relevant to followership and performance since it recognizes that organizational performance is a shared responsibility. Shared leadership implies the importance of followership, which comprises the other side of leadership (Lee et al., 2023). In this study, distributed leadership theory is quite related to the previously discussed theories of role theory and empowerment theory. These theories are interlinked in the sense that one theory enables the other to be implemented. Role theory identifies the functions followers perform within an organization. Subsequently, empowerment theory enables these followers to execute the responsibilities allocated to them through the distributed leadership approach. Distributed leadership implies delegating authority and making decisions among members of a team or organization as opposed to having only one person.

Distributed leadership proposes that exceptional leader 'leads from behind' by empowering followers (Spillane, 2006). According to Xu et al. (2021), shared leadership and organizational empowerment are responsible for this notion. Again, the interaction between leaders, followers, and circumstances is central to the distributed leadership theory (Sol, 2021). This theory spreads the role of leadership beyond the leader. According to Amzat et al. (2022), distributed leadership can be operationally

understood as leaders and followers jointly being accountable for organizational performance and empowering interdependency.

According to Oduro (2004, p. 4), distributed leadership is "one of the most ancient leadership notions recommended for fulfilling organizational goals through people," with accounts of it going as far back as 1250 BC. On the contrary, Harris (2009, p. 3) asserts that it "is an idea that can be traced back as far as the mid-20s and possibly earlier" in terms of its theorization. Therefore, according to this notion, leadership should be distributed throughout the organization and be a team effort.

Spillane (2006) distinguished three types of distributed leadership. First, collaborative distribution occurs when multiple individuals work together directly in the same location and at the same time. The second is communal distribution; although workers are no longer at the same location or at the same time, they are nonetheless reliant on one another. Third, according to Fitzsimons, Turnbull, and Denyer (2011), "coordinated distribution refers to leadership practice that has to be performed in sequence" (p. 318). Increased worker engagement and empowerment, enhanced decision-making, a more inclusive approach to leadership, and enhanced collaboration are all benefits of dispersed leadership theory. While distributed leadership is commonly seen in education, it also holds significant relevance in organizational and corporate settings (Gefagnoli & Vandekerckhole, 2015). Central to this theory is the emphasis on collaborative efforts and aligned objectives.

Distributed Leadership happens most effectively when people at all levels engage in action, accepting leadership in their particular areas of expertise. It requires resources that support and enable collaborative environments with a flexible approach to space, time, and finance, which occur due to diverse contextual settings in an institution" (Jones et al, 2013, p.21). It also depends on an open culture, which means

that in order to conduct such leadership, the organization must create the necessary framework. For example, a society where exchanging and creating new concepts is encouraged. (Gefagnoli & Vandekerckhole, 2015). Harris (2008) remarked that distributed leadership is based on job performance, not the job position. This has to be facilitated, and the required internal conditions need to be created by the leaders for it to flourish (Harris, 2008).

The distributed leadership theory facilitates the involvement of effective followers in the leadership process, thus promoting collaboration for the overall achievement of organizational goals. Hence, "a follower is a leader's steward as much as a leader is a follower's steward" (Chaleff, 2009, p. 5). According to Min et al. (2016), using distributed leadership tactics increases trust. Trust creates a conducive working environment for employees to thrive. More so, Carbone et al. (2017) discovered that the leader's accountability became less taxing when distributed leadership activities were implemented. However, lack of accountability and guidance, delayed decision-making processes, trouble sustaining consistency, and the possibility of ignoring long-term objectives and tactics are some drawbacks of distributed leadership in organizations (Min et al., 2016). The study mitigated these limitations by ensuring that the followers understood their accountability structures. Again, since the role and empowerment theories were already established and understood, mitigating the limitation of decision-making was possible as the frameworks developed balanced decision-making to be inclusive and efficient.

Organizational Performance

Organizational performance is dependent variable in this study. A company's performance is a multidimensional concept that refers to how well an organization is achieving its purpose and strategic objectives (Cho & Dansereau, 2010). It includes

both financial and nonfinancial outcomes (George et al., 2019). According to Tomal and Jones (2015), organizational performance may also be described as the difference between an organization's actual and expected outputs. Over the years, the phrase "organizational performance" has changed. According to Robbins (1987), performance in the 1980s was the degree to which an organization could consider its goals and means as a social system. Accordingly, organizational performance is a notion of an organization's efficacy or success that shows how it operates well to accomplish its goals (Cherrington, 1989).

Adam (1994) believed that in the 1990s, employee performance quality had a big impact on organizational performance. He believed that in order to guarantee top-notch organizational performance, it was imperative that the company's employees receive constant exposure to fresh and up-to-date knowledge and abilities. This would enhance the caliber of organizational performance by enabling them to stay abreast of the latest developments in the market. To enable followers and leaders to accomplish the objectives of the company, organizational personnel must intentionally be exposed to the latest operational trends.

The ability of an organization to efficiently use the resources at its disposal to achieve goals consistent with the company's established objectives while also considering its users' relevance was the main focus of the definition of organizational performance in the first decade of the twenty-first century (Gijsbers et al., 2003). According to this concept, "efficiency," "effectiveness," and "relevancy" are important aspects of organizational performance, according to Gijsbers et al. Put another way, an organization's performance is influenced by its efficacy, efficiency, and stakeholder satisfaction, as well as by the correlation between performance and organizational goals (relevancy). According to Almatrooshi et al. (2016), the

effectiveness of an organization is mainly determined by the ability with which its leaders execute strategies. But an organization's workforce also affects how well it performs. They are an integral component of the company and the cornerstone of its success. Although followers may have been the real cause of an organization's success or failure, leaders are frequently unfairly held responsible for it (Northouse, 2019).

Organizational Performance Indicators

While organizational performance has been conceived in a variety of ways, employee and organizational results are widely recognized as its main objectives (Asgari et al., 2020; Burak et al., 2017; Madanchian et al., 2017). In addition to assessing how well goals and objectives are met, performance is defined as "the total sum of all processes and actions undertaken by managers in the present...directed towards achieving a particular set of goals in the future...satisfying the needs of stakeholders" (Mutinda & Kilika, 2019, p. 36). Ivancevich et al. (2014) and Yukl (2013) state that job satisfaction, organizational dedication, and good citizenship behavior are examples of employee outcomes. Control, productivity, profitability, and development are examples of indicators of organizational performance (Karim et al., 2017; Paliszkiewicz et al., 2015; Pang & Lu, 2018). On the other hand, indicators of organizational performance also include quality, efficiency, satisfaction, and social and environmental adaptability.

It is hard to imagine a successful organization of any size without effective followers and financial performance. The most valuable resource in every organization is its workforce. Employee attitudes towards their jobs and the consequences for them affect the stability and effectiveness of the company. When employees are happy and fulfilled in their roles, they will have a strong incentive to perform effectively and accomplish the objectives of the company. A negative work

environment negatively impacts employee performance (Gridwichai et al., 2020). People are the sole element that have the innate ability to create value, according to Fitz-enz (2012 p. xii). All other factors provide only inert potentials: cash and its relative credit, materials, plant and equipment, and energy. They don't contribute anything by nature, and they won't be able to do so unless someone—a lowly worker, a brilliant professional, or a high-ranking executive—leverages that potential and puts it into action. However, organizations need to have sustainable financial performance in order to survive. According to Humphreys & Einstein (2004), if leaders develop goals that align with the organization's vision and followers' talents, followers' performance would improve.

According to Kelley (1992), organizational performers should not rely on leadership to provide explicit instructions for every activity necessary to achieve organizational goals; instead, they should shatter the myth of leadership by modeling excellent followership. An organization will be able to increase efficiency and become inventive as a result. According to Kelley (1992), followers who exhibit outstanding followership have an effect on the effectiveness of their organizations. Sempane et al. (2002) considered employee performance to be an individual's overall viewpoint and evaluation of the workplace. It may also be seen as a positive emotional condition brought on by an individual's assessment of their experiences and work there (Islam & Siengthai, 2009). These concepts are generally unified by the notion that employee performance is a function of employee satisfaction, which encompasses how individuals feel about their entire employment in an organizational setting. As a result, the degree of job satisfaction or unhappiness among followers affects organizational performance over the long run.

Effectiveness and efficiency also lead to improved organizational performance. According to Jenatabadi (2015), effectiveness is the degree to which production functions are completed and customer requests and requirements are met. Key performance indicators (KPIs) are based on organization effectiveness theories, according to Spicer (2010). Armstrong (2009) defines KPIs as results or outcomes that "are crucial to the achievement of high performance and provide the basis for setting objectives and measuring performance" (p. 233). It provides a tool for monitoring targets and goals that are essential to the company's strategy (Armstrong, 2009; Nurcahyo et al., 2015). On the other hand, efficiency is the appraisal of how an organization's resources are utilized profitably through the fulfillment of tasks in order to reach its goals in line with its goals. Janatabadi (2015).

How is performance evaluated in a faith-based organization like the Seventh-day Adventists? Nonprofit success is measured using various methods and indicators. According to Benjamin et al. (2015), these consist of staff assessments, capacity evaluations, budgetary indicators, and outcome measurement methods. This research covers two metrics—financial and non-financial—that are used to assess the companies below.

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Performance

Irving and Montes (2009) assert that numerous interrelated elements affect an employee's job satisfaction and productivity. These factors encompass recognition, relationships with colleagues, effective communication, workplace environment, additional benefits, job content, organizational characteristics, company policies, operational systems and procedures, compensation, career advancement opportunities, individual growth, job security, acknowledgment, and managerial oversight. The responsibility for addressing these aspects primarily falls on the leader. Their role is to

create a supportive work environment for their team members through their organization's efforts.

The Seventh-day Adventist organizational operations enable the followers to continue operating even when the leaders are absent or changed, as the leaders are elected or re-elected every five years. This is possible because there is a universal system in place for each follower; if one has a job description, one does not have to wait to be told what to do. This uniform system enables Adventist church workers to operate anywhere around the world. But that does not mean that leaders are not sought from time to time.

The metrics chosen for performance measurement must align with the organization's overarching goals, which is the most evident and crucial best practice (Lambert, 2001). The universal management system of the Adventist church also has a measurement system. At the beginning of every five years, the different organizations develop strategic plans for what is expected of all the workers. At the end of every year, each department comes together to evaluate the performance based on the KPI in the strategic plan. By doing this, the organization can tell whether it has achieved its goals.

Research by Humphreys and Einstein (2004) suggests that when leaders establish objectives that are in line with the organization's vision and capabilities, it enhances the performance of their subordinates. This finding is supported by Jabnoun et al. (2005), who noted that having organizational goals leads to improved follower performance, a conclusion that aligns with the work of Humphreys et al. (2003). The Adventist church employs a strategy of developing a theme every five years to maintain consistency, which the global church then uses to guide its activities during that specified period.

Financial Sustainability in an Organization

According to Shaharir and Alinor (2013), the notion of sustainability was initially brought into development literature through the efforts of the World Commission on Environment and Development, commonly referred to as the Brundtland Commission (1987, p.8). This commission defined sustainable development as a process that "meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs." The concept of financial sustainability extends beyond current operational concerns and considers long-term viability.

Access Economics (2006b) and the FSRB (2005) define long-term financial sustainability as the ability to meet projected financial needs for the foreseeable future. This sustainability should remain intact without requiring major or disruptive adjustments to revenue or spending. Similarly, Dunford (2003) explains financial sustainability as the ability to continue toward microfinance objectives without continued donor support. These definitions center on one key point— the ability to depend on self-operation and the notion of self-reliance. The definitions also imply the possibility of making a profit, especially in organizations that focus on profit-making, like the microfinance sector.

Dollery et al. (2006) further explored financial sustainability within Australian local governments, including several disclaimers. They point out the challenges in defining "overall local government sustainability," which they describe as "abstract and ephemeral," making it difficult to pinpoint with precision. They highlighted several crucial factors, including "local government democracy," "local government capacity," "sense of place," "community sustainability," "local social capital," "local preference diversity," "local leadership," "local economic development," and

"environmental sustainability.” In the Seventh-day Adventist organization, financial sustainability means that the church organization can pay its workers and run its operations continuously without running into debt now and in the foreseeable future.

When the aforementioned characteristics are applied to the current study, which focuses on Adventist organizations in Kenya, the researcher concludes that they play a role in the financial viability of the organizations. The Adventist environment regards the working policy as the primary guiding principle in financial operations. Muralidharan and Pathak (2018) found that governmental institutions and policies have an impact on sustainability. These are the institutions or underlying rules and structures that govern social, economic, and political transactions in a society.

In the Seventh-day Adventist institutions, the treasurers (part of the leadership team) normally devise budgets according to the organization’s needs, guided by the policy annually; the budget guides the day-to-day operations. The location, environment, community, capacity, and the local leaders of the organizations also determine its financial sustainability to a large extent. That is because different locations have different financial capabilities. The different organizations within Kenya operate under different budgets depending on the organization’s financial muscles.

Followership

Followership plays an integral role as a key partner in the process of creating value, comparable to a captivating dance. Like observing a passionate couple flawlessly executing a sizzling South American tango, the dance floor becomes a mesmerizing display of seamless coordination and rapid movements. Each dancer's role in this intricate dance contributes to the overall performance. One takes the lead

while the other follows. If they have undergone dance lessons, they understand the significance of investing time, dedication, and effort into mastering the art of leading or following. With both partners excelling in their respective roles, the outcome is maintained, as Hurwitz and Hurwitz (2015) suggested.

The topic of followership has garnered less focus in literature compared to leadership. This oversight likely stems from the belief among managers and scholars that followers naturally know how to follow, underestimating their potential to learn how to do so effectively (Crossman & Crossman, 2011; Agho, 2009). When examining the ideas of followership and leadership, it is imperative that leaders and followers have a thorough understanding of one another's behaviors and know how to communicate with one another. Banutu-Gomez (2004) asserts that for organizations to be successful, "leaders must teach their followers not only how to lead: leadership, but more importantly, how to be a good follower" (p. 143). Following should be taught in a similar way to leading.

Baker et al. (2014) had a mind-blowing thought regarding what prompted the resurgence of interest in followers and followership. While conducting an attribution theory study, they came across this. In their study, they argue that rather than emphasizing a leader's traits or behaviors, attribution theories underlined the significance of how leaders, and subsequently followers, evaluated leadership. They asserted that within the same study, each leader and follower was supposed to have their own implicit leadership theory. This stream is shown by the well-known essay "The Romance of Leadership" (Meindlet al., 1985), which demonstrated how organizational outcomes and even industry performance was influenced by the success (or failure) of the leader. These articles provide the impression that a leader

alone determines whether an organization succeeds or fails, with nothing to do with the followers.

Instead of focusing on terrible leaders, ineffective leadership, and subpar outcomes, Baker et al. (2014) suggested that studies should pay greater attention to followership. Their provocative thoughts have attracted different reasons why leadership and followership research are changing the lens to look at followership through the followership lens and not through the leadership lens, as has been the case for decades.

Effective followers play a crucial role in the success of organizations for several reasons. For instance, they improve leaders' image (Bennis, 2008; Latour & Rast, 2004; Lundin & Lancaster, 1990). Additionally, their backing of organizational goals is vital to the smooth operation of the organization (Bennis, 2008; Kelley, 1988); and both flexible organizational structures and followership are important in rapidly changing environments—scholars should concentrate on followers as a discipline. Bennis (2008)

Follower and Followership

A follower is someone who does not hold a leadership position in an organization. A follower is employed by an organization, reports to a leader, or adheres to certain teachings and doctrines. A Google search, done on 07/06/2023, reveals a difference between follower and followership. The search observed that follower is a term derived from followership. As a noun, followership is an adherence to a leader, while a follower is one who follows and comes after another.

Regardless of official authority, Agbarakwe (2020) defines a follower as someone who acknowledges another as the primary source of influence at any given time. These followers are workers with various backgrounds in the workplace. The

following will be included in this study: department heads/supervisors, instructional staff, treasury, clergy, secretariat, office staff, and health workers. Agbarakwe (2020), further suggest that followership is the portion of the leadership process that deals with the roles, traits, and affects of individuals on accomplishing organizational goals while they are not acting as leaders. On the other hand, the definition of followership given by Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) is "the characteristics, behaviors, and processes of individuals acting in relation to leaders," indicating that followership involves a leader. On the other hand, a follower is not always a leader; they could follow anyone or any principle. (p. 96).

In the opinion of Baker et al. (2014), both followers and leaders refer to roles rather than inherent propensities or even birthright as the first step in comprehending followers and followership. Additionally, a role refers to a part played at any particular time by a person or organization. According to Sluss et al. (2011), a "role" is typically described as a set of behavioral standards associated with a place in a structured network of social connections. The roles in this scenario will either be leader or follower. In formal organizations, workers carry out roles that have been defined and codified by the organization, according to Baker et al. (2014). In a static scenario, people adhere to role expectations as they carry out role obligations rather than display their personality traits. Kelley (1988) thus declared that it is crucial to understand the nature of the follower’s role to encourage effective followership. Role identity is crucial for both the follower and the leader. In the Seventh-day Adventist church system, the followers avoid role ambiguity by following the job descriptions provided to them by the leaders every so often.

In addition to their roles, followers can be classified according to their organizational status. Followers are "subordinates with less power, authority, and

influence than do their superiors," according to Kellerman (2008). They comply with someone else's desires and intentions" (p. xix). There has since been a more accurate definition of the terms follower and followership, despite the fact that these ideas are disparaging and denigrating to the follower. Recent research, for instance, has distinguished followership from servitude, dependency, or helplessness. (Gilstrap & Morris, 2015) defined followership as "a group of individuals who accept the goals and enable goal achievement for their organizational leaders" (p.155) after looking at it from the perspective of goal achievement. But this description falls short of what most people consider followership to be. The basis of followership is found in the actions of historical figures such as Aristotle, Thomas Jefferson, and others who "proved themselves as followers first" (Kelley, 1992, p. 10).

Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) views followership as an integral part of the leadership process rather than a hierarchical position. According to Bastadoz and Van Vugt, (2019), most people lead and follow concurrently, highlighting that these roles are often interdependent (Chaleff, 2003; Manning & Robertson, 2016; Morris, 2014). Researchers have also confirmed that followers may define the nature of corporate goals and visions and can make or break leaders (Chaleff, 1995, 2003; Kelley, 1988, 1992). Consequently, followership is much more than subordination and goal achievement. Kelley (1998) offers yet another viewpoint on followership. He addresses followers in an organization from two perspectives as one of the pioneers of followership literature. The first one manifests as the level of critical thinking and independence. The second dimension is how an action is categorized in terms of how it begins. Two characteristics of this category are excellent followers and passive followers.

Another pioneer, Adair (2008), offers a different perspective on followership. To assist leaders who reflect their common objectives, he emphasizes that followership is a shared influence relationship between followers, leaders, and other followers. Adair says followership is the glue that holds the organization towards achieving its goal. Similarly, Howell & Costley (2001) contend that followership is a complementary interactive role that people play that is just as important to achieving group and organizational performance as leadership.

Doyle (2018) asserts that while everyone follows, not everyone has the ability to lead. The role of followership is the art of following and the abilities required to follow. Since one cannot lead without followers, developing one's followership skills is crucial for both understanding and guiding people as well as for effective following. (Malakayn, 2013). Mastering followership allows the follower to follow effectively and enables the follower to understand the leader and even the other followers.

Amagheib (2016), submits that followership has no single definition. As a result, in this study, the follower role is defined as an active, participatory role in which a person actively works towards shared goals with a leader and/or organization while voluntarily approving a leader's actions or beliefs, perspectives that (Baker & Gerlowski, 2007) also held. Essentially, followership is the process by which someone takes on the position of the follower. Leadership and followership depend on the active participation of both a leader and a follower.

For the moral uprightness of the organization to be upheld, both the leader and the follower need to play their part without considering their position. The relationship between a leader and a follower now includes a moral component, according to (Maroosis, 2008), in which both parties share responsibility for moral

behavior and judgment, collaborate to bring about organizational change, and participate in a transformative process.

Kelley (1988, pp. 146–147) defined leadership and followership differently in his groundbreaking work on followership. The following are the operative definitions:

> Effective leaders have the vision to set business goals and plans, the communication skills to build consensus, the linguistic ability to exude fervor to large and diverse audiences, the organizational capacity to coordinate dispersed activities, and the drive to lead. Effective followers have the vision to see both the forest and the trees, the interpersonal skills to work well with others, the fortitude to succeed without hero status, the moral and psychological balance to pursue their own and their company's goals without hurting others, and, above all, the desire to collaborate with others in order to accomplish a greater goal.

Kelley's definition of both the leader and the follower resonates very well with many organizations, especially the Adventist church. Followers in the Adventist church are expected to be self-motivated. Once the various departmental leaders provide the job description, the operations are supposed to go on smoothly, guided by the working policy. As noted by Aktas and Can (2012), analytical followers are aware of the behaviors expected of them and others to accomplish the organization's objectives. These followers are open to being imaginative and creative, and they possess the capacity to critique the leader by forming their own opinions.

Follower Traits/Characteristics

Different follower tendencies and characteristics draw particular leader personalities. Ehrhart and Klein (2001) discovered a favorable correlation between task-oriented leaders and followers who prioritized extrinsic job values like work

hours, pay, and perks. Conversely, followers who prioritized ties at work exhibited favorable correlations with relational and goal-oriented leaders. Relationship- and task-oriented leaders had a favorable correlation with followers prioritizing job security and stability. Finally, followers who demonstrated high participation in their jobs shared decision-making and worked for the organization's common benefit exhibited good associations with charismatic and relationship-focused leaders.

A longitudinal field study conducted by Dvir and Shamir, involving 90 non-commissioned officers and 729 Israeli Defense Force recruits, revealed that follower developmental factors such as morality, empowerment, and motivation influenced leader behavior based on collective perceptions of transformational leadership attributes. This finding was later supported by Ehrhart and Klein's 2001 study. However, the relationship could occasionally deteriorate if leaders perceived followers not directly under their supervision as autonomous, innovative, or critical, potentially challenging their authority. This negative association resulted in the suppression of transformational leadership characteristics in both the leader's actions and the indirect followers' perceptions. Thus, numerous leaders felt threatened by independent and innovative active followers, especially those out of their direct control (Dvir & Shamir, 2003).

Further investigation by Fobbs (2010) revealed that existing research has shown the relationships between leaders and followers to be intricate and multifaceted rather than simple. These complex interactions were found to have diverse and far-reaching impacts on organizational dynamics. Fobbs urged leaders and their organizations to create a setting and culture that promotes the idea of empowered followership while quoting (Lundin & Lancaster, 1990). Thereby assisting members of the organization in growing or strengthening those qualities of a follower that will

improve their capacity to grow as individuals and contribute favorably to the organization.

In the same article, Fobbs (2010) cites (Lundin & Lancaster, 1990), who proposes four essential characteristics of influential followers. Integrity is the first. Although this is a virtue for both individuals and organizations, the writers claim that integrity for a follower entails loyalty and acting in accordance with one's convictions. The second quality is "owning the territory," which refers to learning about the company and how it contributes to its strategic and operational objectives. Versatility is the third quality, which involves how followers satisfy organizational needs.

Followers must be adaptable and flexible in their skill development, modification, and handling of potential waves of change. Self-employment is the last quality. This urges followers to assume personal responsibility for their careers and actions. Self-employment puts them in a position to be influential followers while also creating opportunities for various career paths. The qualities mentioned above by Fobbs must be taught to followers like they are taught to leaders. Organizations do not have to presume that followers will receive it automatically. Likewise, Banutu-Gomez observed that positive followership can be enhanced by encouraging staff members to exhibit independent thought and participate in constructive feedback, creativity, and innovation exchanges. This is similar to how effective leadership can be developed and refined over time (Banutu-Gomez, 2004).

Dixon (2003) asserted that the level of followership increases as individuals ascend the organizational ladder, building on the idea that demonstrating strong followership is essential for leaders to advance in their careers. In Seventh-day Adventist organizations, for instance, there are workers who are supervisors inside the organization and also have leadership roles; for instance, a department head is both a

supervisor and a person under the president's supervision. Furthermore, Dixon argues that followership indications become more apparent when one moves up the ranks of an organization. Dixon argues that the framework of behaviors for daring followers, as proposed by Chaleff (2003), has demonstrably accurate premises, and that the sum of these behaviors is a measure of followership.

Dixon's research, which was previously mentioned, aimed to determine whether followership is measurable and whether it is correlated with an employee's position inside the company. The results of this study illustrated how Adam's equity theory anticipated that employees would work harder to demotion rather than to raise their status within an organization. But they'll perform better if you set higher standards for them. According to Adam's equity thesis, employees should assess their own performance and that of their peers. These kinds of comparisons show how they support organizational objectives (Dixon, 2003).

This portrays followership as a form of stewardship, involving actions that embrace shared authority and impact, as well as proactive endeavors to improve organizational effectiveness and uphold principles. This contrasts with the notion of passive followers who simply comply with instructions without participating in decision-making or exercising any authority or influence. In concluding his research, Dixon (2003) emphasizes that enhancing the status of followers would not only be advantageous for them but also result in more substantial contributions to the organization.

Some authors suggest that the term "followership" appears in various contexts within literature.On the leadership-followership continuum, it can represent the counterpart to leadership. Additionally, it may denote a direct or indirect form of influence or serve as an umbrella term for individuals who are influenced by a leader

(Atchison, 2004; Briggs, 2004; Gronn, 1996; Hodgkinson, 1983; Russell, 2003; Seteroff, 2003). These definitions often relate followership to leadership concepts. Crossman & Crossman (2011) refer to these authors and note their alignment with Kelley (1998), who concurred with Heller & van Til's assertion that "leadership and followership are best seen as roles in relation" (Baker, 2007, p. 56). From these insights, leadership cannot exist or thrive without followers. In organizations, leadership depends on followers, and followers depend on leaders for organizations to succeed. It is like a coin that always has two sides. In Kellerman's words, "leadership and followership must be thought of in tandem - as inseparable, indivisible, and inconceivable the one without the other" (p. 239). Similarly, Chaleff (1995) states that “leaders and followers are viewed as two sides of one process, two parts of one whole” (p. 2).

From the coin analogy, it is clear that the role of followers is critical in every organization. At every level of an organization, followers are essential. Getting rid of the idea that leaders do all the thinking and followers only follow orders is necessary to increase followers' effectiveness. Organizations may rely excessively on their leaders, and these myths may become self-fulfilling prophecies (Thach et al., 2006). Fobbs (2010) posits that in many religious systems, the followers are the ones who truly possess and exercise power and influence. This is also true in the Seventh-day Adventist church. The representative operation system in the Seventh-day Adventist church gives more power to the followers, who seem to stay longer in their positions even when the leaders keep rotating.

The concept of a follower is evolving as seen by the introduction of phrases like "courageous follower" (Chaleff, 2003) and "exemplary follower" (Kelley, 1992). According to (Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002), the transformation entailed

giving followers more authority and helping them to become self-sufficient critical thinkers. The impact of team empowerment on organizational performance has been observed by leaders in organizations (Sheard & Kakabadse, 2002). All organizational performers gain the qualities of teamwork, self-direction, creativity, and independent thought when their leaders value their followers (Kelley, 1992). The one constant in life is change. Changes in the workplace also indicate the necessity for a deeper investigation of followership because of this idea. The leaders would conceal important information to ensure that there was only one source of knowledge in the past. The development of social networks and the increasing empowerment of followers due to their enhanced access to information have eroded the traditional organizational hierarchy between leaders and their followers over time (Cross & Parker, 2004; Brown, 2003).

Because they are the ones who actually have power, organizations must give their followers the tools they need to accomplish their goals. Jehn & Bezrukova (2003) claim that effective followers "inspire others to follow towards a common goal; creates enthusiasm and desire to excel; fully engages others; builds confidence; and moves the organization forward as one entity rather than separate parts" (p. 728).

The affective, cognitive, and metacognitive behaviors that influence people to follow others have been noted by Burns (1978) and Bass & Bass (2008). These motives are seen as being framed by self-expression, individual objectives, interpersonal interactions, and self-transformation. Kelley (1992) described, in brief, these lenses through different desired follower behaviors as follows: Those who follow the loyalist or lifeway pathways do it through the lens of self-expression. Those whose paths to followership are determined by personal objectives take the dreamer and apprentice routes.

The comrade or mentee path is used by those whose paths to followership are built on relationships, whereas the disciple road is used by people who want to change themselves. Kelley argued further that these particular incentives go against widely accepted paradigms that people adhere to due to a leader's inspiration or vision. Kelley (1992) also asserted that certain individuals are driven to use their talents and skills to advance organizational goals. They are generally content with their current circumstances, accomplishments, and way of life. These people typically see followership from the perspective of self-expression. Loyalists pursue a path founded on a strong emotional link with their leader, where the follower enjoys their trust and confidence, a bond of integrity, and a one-to-one relationship.

While exploring these followers' paths, Kelley observes that individuals with personal preferences choose the lifeway path. According to Kelley, this follower is motivated by a desire to help others and is more concerned for others than himself or herself. These kinds of followers typically present as content to stand in the background, supporting and motivating others on their path to success. These people do not strive for more since they are content with their current situation. This metacognitive idea was referred to as enoughness by Kelley (1992).

According to Kelley (1992), some people value interpersonal ties more than achieving organizational objectives and dreaming big. More personal significance, motivation, and intrinsic benefits come from the strength and connection of friendships and group involvement than from any external factors. The path of comradery is another name for this route. The bonds between comrades are forged by life-changing circumstances, as observed by (Kelley, 1992). Students enrolled in demanding doctoral programs, people working in dangerous jobs like law enforcement, firefighting, and the military, or people cooperating for a good cause,

like a medical team or a sports team at a championship game, are a few examples of situations that can lead to comradery. According to Kelley, the intimacy connected to belonging is the foundation for the emotive, metacognitive, and cognitive processes that develop around comradeship.

In this instance, these exchanges are unrelated to the organization's boss. These connections and exchanges take place between the followers. In contrast, according to Kelley (1992), a follower on the mentee path has a personal, one-on-one relationship with the leader that is both developmental and emotional. In this situation, the follower voluntarily submits to the leader's authority. The mentor can then shape and lead the mentee's skills to attain personal happiness and growth because the developmental aspect is not one of the skills but rather of human maturation.

The next lens is personal aspirations, as Kelley (1992) noted. These people are driven to fulfill their life's purpose. This motivation encourages the followers to look out for followership paths that can be used to achieve their objectives. The path of the apprentice is one such route. The apprentice tries to develop and strengthen skills that will help him or her succeed in the chosen career, as opposed to the mentee, who emphasizes relationships and personal growth more. This emphasis involves receiving instruction from a knowledgeable mentor who will help the apprentice advance in his or her studies. For instance, in the military, the follower is an aspiring leader learning to follow to learn how to lead. As a result, providing satisfactory service at each lower level increases your chances of being promoted to the next level. The dreamer's path is the alternative. The dreamer, as opposed to the apprentice, places all of his or her attention on the dream, with little or no attention paid to the leader.

The fulfillment of the dream itself, in accordance with Kelley (1992), serves as the dreamer's only compass. Internalization is the term used by Kelley to describe this emotive process. There is a good fit if the dreamer's and the organization's aims are similar. If the objectives are incompatible, there will be friction; dissatisfaction will likely result in either case and for such followers, changing careers to pursue their dreams may be an alternative.

In contrast to a mentor-to-mentee connection, the teacher conveys a body of knowledge to a class of students, and the development is cerebral rather than personal or emotional. This is the fourth lens that Kelley mentions. The metacognitive process of identification is followed by discipleship. The disciple desires to be a part of something greater than themselves and to renounce their individuality to join something higher and more significant. The leadership at the organizational level can use disciples to convey messages of organizational transformation to others, acting as useful ambassadors of organizational knowledge and culture (Kelley, 1992). It would be wise to support this group of supporters since they might serve as excellent brand ambassadors for the organization.

Chaleff (2003), on the other hand, while describing the different levels of followers, avowed that followers operate on four levels regarding their organizational interactions. In the first level, Chaleff contends that the follower is an obedient, "other-focused" servant who serves both internal and external organizational stakeholders. The followers can concurrently serve themselves, organizational leaders, and internal and external stakeholders on the second level without appearing to have a conflict of interest. On the third level, followers become wholly self-serving, putting their own demands and those of organizational leaders ahead of those of other stakeholders.

In his subsequent analysis of the levels, Chaleff noted that the third level is where organizational failure is most likely to occur since followers there have a propensity to disregard organizational needs in favor of self-serving interests. The focus of this third level is attending to the requirements of the follower. The self-serving behaviors of the follower can be classified as immoral or unethical at the fourth level. By now, the follower's main focus is serving the leader while enabling the latter to act in a way that is immoral, unethical, and harmful to the group and its stakeholders—while also engaging in the same behavior themselves (Chaleff, 2003).

Kellerman (2008) proposed an explanation for why individuals follow in light of these follower-organizational interaction layers. Kellerman wrote that Freud claimed that individuals follow for four reasons, quoting Freud from his book Moses and Monotheism. People have a strong need for authority, which is the first reason, and our early relationships with powerful, authoritative male figures—typically the father—are the second and third reasons. The connection between the need for religion and the desire for authority that results from our first relationship of subordination to our parents is the third reason why people follow. The fourth explanation for why people follow is the nature of power relationships, where there is enmity and approval on the one hand and hatred and terror on the other (Kellerman, 2008).

In contrast to Challeff's followership levels, Kellerman thought that people follow because of human wants to belong, experience a feeling of togetherness, be loved, and have a sense of safety and community. She maintained that people have a strong yearning to belong to a group since they are social beings. Therefore, she argued, wanting to follow others and behaving in a followerly way fulfills at least some of these criteria, therefore following others is the right thing to do. According to

Kellerman (2008), "followers follow not only because it is in their best interests to conform to their leaders, but also because it is in their best interests to conform to their fellow followers... [by providing] ...crucial reference points." Page 56

According to Kellerman's theory, followership is behavioral in character and is influenced by the follower's social, emotional, and temporal requirements (Kellerman, 2008). Contrarily, (Chaleff, 2003) agreed that followership is behavioral in nature. Still, he makes the case that, in contrast to Freud, who claimed that, in a secular sense, people seek out some higher authority to obey and follow, people are socialized from a young age to conform to obey, be compliant, and be submissive.

There needs to be more literature regarding the cultural background of followers, especially the African perspective and, more specifically, the Kenyan perspective. The focus of the followership research thus far has been on North America. Additionally, no research has been done on Seventh-day Adventist church members. According to an influential pioneer in the field of followership research (Kellerman, 2008, p. 10), different cultural "perspectives will likely produce different approaches to followership," and "followership is also influenced at the subcultural level," as evidenced by the differences in followership between military personnel and civilians. As a result, the researcher attempted to bring together many follower types from various cultures in order to identify followers' initial cultural behaviors from a Kenyan perspective. The researcher also attempted to communicate with non-Kenyans who are followers within the targeted organizations in order to gain an African perspective. By doing this, the researcher hopes to bridge the gap between the many cultural origins of the numerous followers.

The Etymological Review of the Terms Follower, Followership

There have always been followers as long as there have been leaders, from the time Jesus called twelve ordinary people from their businesses to be His disciples to now. According to Ye (2010), it wasn't until 1967 that the significance of followership was mentioned in any official capacity.

Burke (2009) notes that the terms "leader" and "follower" have historical connotations. The Old High German word "*follaziohan,"* which dates to the ninth and eleventh centuries, is where the name "follower" got its etymology (Kelley, 1992, p. 34). The German word's meaning is related to helping or supporting. The word does not denote a lesser position. Kelley, (1992). The other author concurs with Kelley (Spicer, 2018), who also pointed out that the Old High German verb *follaziohan*, which meant to support, succor, or minister to, is the etymological source of the word "follower." Similar to this is the Old High German word "leader," which originally meant to go through, go through, or endure. Although there are few etymological hints as to why leaders suffered or required care, the phrase's original meaning involved followers helping to look after leaders. The terms "leader" and "follower" didn't acquire their modern meanings until the previous century (Kelley, 1992, pp. 34–35).

Follett was the first modern management scholar to emphasize the shortage of knowledge and disregard for followership. It's interesting that she was the first to highlight "followership" as a unique and interdependent (as opposed to the dependent) position in the supervisor-subordinate interaction. She also emphasized its significance in figuring out the dynamics of work groups and overall organizational success. Follett emphasized that the interaction between the leader and follower determines whether the "team" can win events rather than whether the leader can

control the follower. (Follett, 1949). Positive organizational outcomes depend less on how much the leader dominates the follower and more on how well the follower and leader get along and appreciate the significance of each other's contributions to the team.

Robert E. Kelley published a ground-breaking book on the presence and significance of followership in 1988, which discussed the various aspects of followership as already mentioned in the previous paragraphs. The Courageous Follower, published by Ira Chaleff in 1995, introduced the dynamic of courage to followership analysis. These two authors gave the followers the courage to stand up for themselves and for the organizations they serve. Because of such exposure, followers have learned to stand for the right principles even without the support of their leaders.

Since much of the leadership literature has yet to pay attention to the follower, several researchers are beginning to be intentional about flipping the coin to include the follower in their studies. For instance, a body of leadership research representing a follower-centered leadership strategy emerged in the 1990s (Lapidotet al., 2007). The hypothesis was originally developed by Jim Meindl (1995) and expanded by others (Howell & Shamir, 2005; Lord & Brown, 2004; Pillai et al., 2007). This work provides a framework for formulating hypotheses regarding the inputs, mechanisms, and results of follower constructions of leadership following (Castern et al., 2010).

Biblical Perspectives of Followership

According to Beebe (2013), the origins of followership can be seen in 1 Corinthians 11:1, where Paul exhorts the Corinthians to follow him like he is following Christ. Jesus was a brilliant leader who drew his followers into a life of discipleship and eventually projected them into becoming the next generation of

Christian leaders. Upon calling his first disciples, He extended an invitation to follow rather than to take the lead. After that, Jesus would devote the remainder of his life to teaching his people how to fulfill the duties of followers and disciples, and when his purpose was accomplished, he would set them free to assume leadership roles. (Doyle, 2018). Once more, Doyle (2018) provides examples of persons who started out as followers and rose to prominence as leaders from both biblical and non-biblical figures. He clarifies that prior to helping a generation in need, Joseph was a slave. David escaped into the caves prior to becoming a successful monarch. Prior to serving in the temple, Jesus worked in the temples. Before serving a divided nation, Abraham Lincoln worked as a farmer and carpenter. Nelson Mandela's heart was first bound by the love of his nation before being confined by jail bars. The Bible contains numerous more instances of followership. The main example of what followership is thought to be is represented by Jesus. Interestingly, the Bible mentions followership more often than leadership. (Harbecker, 1987). Additionally, according to Doyle (2018), the Bible describes the role of leadership in a variety of contexts, including teaching, guiding, authority, protection, authority, and power. Nonetheless, the biblical text appears to be more concerned with the deeds of leaders and adherents than the positions they held. Harbecker, in 1987.

Beebe (2013) avers that being a follower of Christ entails being a Christian. Jesus beckoned His followers to come after Him. It's interesting to see that churches no longer emphasize followership and instead often host workshops on leadership. On the other hand, the main idea of the gospel might be understood as a call to follow Jesus. Before taking on any leadership role, members of the Adventist church are all followers of Christ, as stated in John 10:27, "My sheep hear my voice, and they follow me." The aim of the Adventist church is to develop disciples of Jesus Christ

who live as His devoted witnesses and spread the eternal gospel of the Three Angels' Messages to everyone in anticipation of His impending return, according to multiple official Church websites. The mission was designed based on the following scriptures: Matthew 28:18–20, Acts 1:8, and Rev 14:6–12. The scriptures in question serve as a reminder to Jesus' disciples to spread his gospel throughout the world in order to win more converts before the end. Therefore, the texts focus on making more followers who will lead others to Jesus and not making leaders. The beginning is making followers for Jesus.

The first disciples were not the only ones to receive the biblical concept of being called to follow. For instance, Elisha abandoned the plough to assist Elijah (1 Kings 19:19–21). Other instances include when a charismatic leader implores followers to accompany him on a military mission (Judge 3:28; 6:34; 1 Sam. 11:6-7). In both the Acts and the Epistles, it regularly appears. It is not a matter of being a follower but rather of choosing a leader. As a result, the concepts of service and discipleship are the foundation of the Christian concept of followership. Interestingly, "discipline" and "disciple" derive from the same Latin root, *discer*, which means to learn. This suggests that disciples acquire discipline through discipleship (Wilton, 2012).

In Christianity, being a follower is more about working alongside Christ. Matthew 28:18–20 contains a commission given by the Bible to followers of Christ. "All authority in heaven and on earth has been given to me," he tells them. Thus, go and make disciples of all nations, baptizing them in the names of the Father, Son, and Holy Spirit, and giving them instructions to obey all that I have spoken. And till the end of time, I shall surely be at your side. Making disciples is the main purpose of the authority. A disciple of Jesus is one who trusts and follows Him and obeys all His

teachings. The Great Commission is a scriptural directive that directs Christians to go forth and create disciples, educating them in the faith and initiating them into fellowship (Tomlinson, 2010).

In her devotional book My Life Today, White (1952, p. 218) makes the claim that "Christ's disciples have been redeemed for service. According to what Our Lord teaches, the proper goal of life is service. Christ was a worker, and He imparted the law of service—serving God and their fellow humans—to all His disciples. In this instance, Christ has offered a higher view of life than they had previously understood. Man interacts with Christ by living to serve others. Our connection to God and to one another is established by the law of service.

Follower Role Orientations

Followership role orientations are rooted in role theory. Role orientations are neither pure state- nor trait-like constructs. According to Parker (2000, 2007; Parker et al., 1997), role orientation refers to a person's attitudes about the duties and expectations of a specific function as well as how that role should be properly carried out. (Youssef & Luthans, 2007); rather consistent with (Parker et al., 1997) and Carsten et al. (2017), elude that individuals playing different roles keep improving since role orientation is not constant. For example, a woman playing the role of a mother keeps improving on caring for her children through various means available to her. One cannot just stick to his/her old ways of playing their roles. Different leaders have different leadership styles and personalities. Leaders and their leadership are also a source of learning for the followers.

As contrast to overt or observable behaviors, followership role orientations are cognitive belief systems and schemas regarding what the follower role entails in relation to the leader, according to Carsten et al. (2014; 2017). Employees will have

varied perceptions about what their function entails even within the same employment, according to Parker (2007, p. 404). According to Parker (2007) and Parker et al. (2006), beliefs about role orientation considerably impact behavior.

Passive Follower Role Orientation

In any organization, followers settle down on their role orientation depending on the existing leader. Depending on the situation, these role orientations could alter. Researchers studying "subordinate" role enactment followership have started categorizing the many role orientations followers may choose (Carsten et al., 2010; Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2012; Carsten et al., 2013). One form is the passive follower-role orientation, in which followers feel that the best way to demonstrate their followership is by being mute, showing deference to the leader, and obeying them (Carsten et al., 2010; Howell & Mendez, 2008; Kelley, 1992).

According to DeCremer and VanDijk (2005); De Vries and Van Gelder (2005); and Ravlin and Thomas (2005), managerial positions are charged with making choices, resolving issues, obtaining information, and creating objectives. Accordingly, people who have a passive follower-role orientation think that managers are in the best position to "lead". In contrast, followers are in the best position to "follow" (i.e., perform a "subordinate" role) (Hecksher, 1994; Howell & Mendez, 2008; & Kelley, 1992). This type of role orientation prevents followers from going above and beyond to help the organization accomplish its objectives. Nothing will be done if the leader gives no instructions.

Engaging or maintaining deference is challenging for the follower with a passive role orientation and may result in worry or anguish. Additionally, managers who depend on followers to supply important expertise or information may need help due to their lack of participation. For followers who have a passive role orientation, an

instruction that is seen unethical or inappropriate may provide difficulties (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2012; Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2007). In the literature on followership, the labels "benign followers" (Lipman-Blumen, 2005), "conformist selves" (Collinson, 2006), and "sheep" (Kelley, 1992) are common instances of passive orientation and have a negative connotation.

Anti-authoritarian Follower Role Orientation

The ‘anti-authoritarian’ orientation is the second variety of follower role orientation. According to Flemming & Spicer (2007), followers with this viewpoint think that part of their responsibility as followers is to resist the leader's attempts to control and oppress them. This mindset is the opposite of authoritarianism, which is the idea that superiors have all power and knowledge.

People with an ‘anti-authoritarian’ mindset reject the idea that superiors can command them (Flemming & Spicer, 2007). They may even engage in the "non-follower" position and respond angrily or dismissively to an attempt by a superior to persuade them (Bennett, 1988; Weitman, 1962). They wish to operate autonomously and oppose to having their autonomy infringed (Gregory, 1955). The polar opposite of this is passive role orientation. Anti-authoritarian role-oriented followers are against using coercion to force them to follow their leaders.

Co-production Follower Role Orientation

This type of role-playing is referred to as "Partnership", also known as co-production orientation (Carsten & Uhl-Bien, 2012). This viewpoint asserts that followers should be actively engaged in aiding leaders to achieve the corporate goals (Chaleff, 2003; Crossman & Crossman, 2011; Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Hollander, 1993; Hollander & Offermann, 1990; Rost, 1993). This role orientation holds that followers support leaders in problem-solving, goal-accomplishment, crisis management, and

decision-making (Bjugstad et al., 2006; Crossman & Crossman, 2011). In this role orientation, the leader and follower collaborate effectively. Success is attained by each party due to the assistance provided by the other.

According to Carsten et al. (2010), followers who hold this viewpoint are, therefore, more likely to fulfill their follower duties, which include cooperating well with leaders, foreseeing issues, making plans, stepping up to support the group, and being prepared to confront leaders when they stray from the path. According to (Dvir & Shamir, 2003), because they are active and in charge rather than passive, followers with critical, autonomous attitudes are more inclined to participate fully.

Followers who exhibit partnership behaviors may encounter challenges in work environments where leaders do not foster partnership-oriented behaviors. In settings where the leadership climate discourages active participation, individuals inclined towards co-production roles might experience frustration and disappontment. Carsten et al. (2010) indicate that proactive followers working with a micromanaging leader will experience frustrations in the workplace. In such situations, where their input and engagement are unwelcomed, co-production-focused followers may easily become discouraged (de Vries, Jehn, & Terwel, 2012).

In her 2008 analysis of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory, Salley identified four leadership styles—S1, S2, S3, and S4—based on the balance of supporting and directive behaviors. Additionally, the theory categorizes followers into four groups, designated as D1, D2, D3, and D4, based on their level of commitment and skill (Figure 2).

Figure 1.

Situational Leadership, as proposed by Salley (2008)

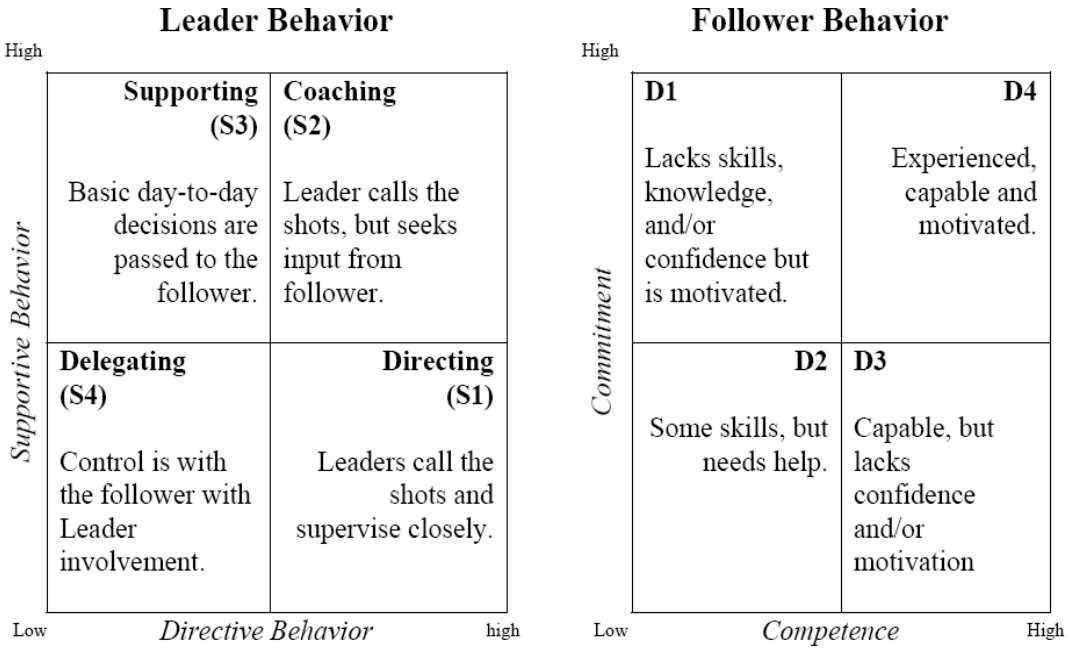


Figure 2 shows followers' behavior in addition to leaders' conduct. Burke (2009) states that situational theories concentrate on three facets of leadership: the situation, the follower, and the leader. The aforementioned three factors are most important in achieving the objectives of any organization. All three of the aspects are connected. This is the first leadership strategy where all three characteristics were deemed appropriate to some degree. The situational leadership approaches affect both leadership and followership, and both the leader and the follower actively participate in them.

Salley (2008) posits that situational leadership assigns tasks and establishes relationships based on the maturity of the followers. This maturity—or, as it was subsequently termed, readiness—includes the followers' dedication, knowledge, competence, and confidence. Graeff (1983), Yukl (1989), Blake & Mouton (1982), and various studies have pointed out several limitations of the theory, including

ambiguity, oversimplification, and an absence of intervening variables to clarify processes. Additionally, McCall (1977) argues that a busy manager may not have the time to effectively apply the situational model, suggesting that they might default to their dominant style instead.

Many leaders have come to understand the importance of strengthening the talents of their subordinates to build high-performance organizations. These developmental strategies go by various names, including total quality management, team building, quality of work-life, job enrichment, reengineering, empowerment, management by objectives, etc. Because they recognize followers' crucial role in accomplishing organizational goals, many organizations with exceptional leaders are now spending more time and money on inspiring their workforce. According to Lawrence and Nohria (2002), businesses that do not invest in training their employees run the danger of losing their competitive edge in the future. When intellectual capital prices grow, having a pool of capable followers becomes imperative (Citrin, 2002). There has never been a more appropriate time to live by the proverb "People are our most important asset," as stated by Posner et al (1986).

Beebe (2013) postulates that leaders should adopt a more holistic approach to leadership, considering the follower, the responsibility, the work environment, the compensation, etc. Over time, individual behaviors that become visible often lead to specific forms and degrees of perceptions, trust, actions, and cultural traits (Mosley & Patrick, 2011). Job presentation, job excellence, morale, contentment, and group efficacy can all be impacted by effective followers and their leaders (Agho, 2009). Researchers cannot evaluate a leader's demeanor and style without also taking the follower's impact on leadership into account. Based on how they see themselves as followers and how their leaders can inspire them, followers are typically more likely

to follow their leaders (Mushonga & Torrance, 2008). Empowerment is intrinsically linked to effective leaders and followers who are capable of autonomous thought (Lee, 1991).

Typologies of Followership

Followership typologies classify followers according to specific characteristics, behaviors, or attitudes (Agbarakwe, 2020). Among the most common typologies are those developed by Zaleznik (1965), Kelley (1988), Chaleff (1995), and Kellerman (2008).

Zaleznik Typology

Zaleznik (1965) presented the first follower typology, aiming to distinguish between distinct follower types. Zaleznik utilized a two-by-two matrix, mapping dominance and submission to differentiate between followers who desired leadership roles and those who were content with submissive roles. Northouse (2019) describes how Zaleznik developed a spectrum of follower behavior based on activity and passivity levels. This continuum spans from proactive, initiative-taking behavior to more passive, withdrawn conduct. Zaleznik's model resulted in the identification of four distinct follower categories: impulsive subordinates, compulsive subordinates, masochistic subordinates, and withdrawn individuals. These categories are briefly outlined below.

1. Impulsive Subordinates: These are authority challengers who possess a bold and impulsive drive to create, accomplish, and guide.
2. Compulsive Subordinates: These are authoritative figures who exhibit submissive behavior as a way of expressing their remorse about wanting to dominate.

3. Masochistic Subordinates: Individuals who yield to the dominance and authority of those in power, deliberately underperforming to provoke anger and criticism.
4. Withdrawn Individuals: These individuals are detached workers who lack trust in others, show no interest in their work, and tend to isolate themselves, making them difficult to reach or communicate with.

Kelley Typology

According to Northouse (2019), the most widely utilized framework for categorizing followers is the model by Robert Kelley (1988, 1992, and 1999). Kelley categorizes followers into two behavioral groups based on their critical thinking abilities and their engagement in organizational activities. Zaleznik (1965) concentrated on the individual characteristics of followers, whereas Kelley placed more emphasis on their motivations and actions. According to Kelley's classification, organizations contain five distinct types of followers: alienated, passive, conformist, pragmatic, and effective.

1. *Alienated Followers*: Critical thinkers who abstain from participating in organizational activities are alienated followers. When alienated followers are not involved directly by leaders, they will take a back seat to their brilliant ideas. (Kelley, 1992) also observes that alienated followers do not participate or work well with other team members. Such followers might see themselves as mavericks, making them score high in critical thinking but low in active engagement. Also, (Aktas & Can, 2012) posit that alienated followers have effective follower features. These types of followers are creative, talented, and well-informed. They do tend to keep their skills and background hidden, though.

2. *Exemplary Followers*: These are followers who exhibit excellence in all areas of performance. Typically, they actively participate, think critically on their own, and act independently of the group or the leaders. These types of followers are believed to be the best followers, according to (Kelley, 1992). According to Kelley (1992), exemplary followers balance two competencies: active engagement and critical thinking. Aktas and Can (2012) note that these exceptional followers tend to be more proactive and can display leadership qualities. Organizations require individuals who possess abilities in decision-making, implementation, and oversight. Such followers take full accountability for their assigned responsibilities.
3. *Conformist Followers*: These individuals willingly accept instructions or yield to their superiors. They actively participate in organizational activities but rarely demonstrate independent thought. Although conformist followers show excellent involvement in the organization, they lack the ability to think critically, as stated by Kelley (1992). In essence, these followers conform to any circumstance, can be blindfolded in any circumstance, and exhibit characters that discourage disagreement, arguments, and conflicts.
4. *Passive Followers*: Passive followers are those who refrain from taking the initiative and have traits that are the exact opposite of those of exemplary followers. Such followers allow their leaders to make decisions for them, necessitating ongoing oversight. They lack enthusiasm and exhibit neither autonomous, critical thought nor active engagement. As a result, passive followers evade accountability and avoid taking chances (Aktas & Can, 2012). The same authors contend that passive followers are obedient

followers who prioritize obeying their superiors' commands and defer to the leader. They act as though they are simply accountable for carrying out the leader's instructions.

5. *Pragmatist Followers:* Such followers demonstrate the characteristics of the four follower types (alienated, passive, conformist, and exemplary) depending on which style fits with the prevalent situation. Hence, their approach is embodied in the idiomatic expressions— “hug the middle of the road” and “ride smoothly without swinging.” This kind of follower avoids risks and employs whatever strategy works best for their own position.

Chaleff’s Typology

Ira Chaleff’s typology (1995, 2003) expands the significant role of followers. A follower is not the same as being in a subservient position, according to (Chaleff, 2009). Instead, a follower works towards a common goal with the leader and plays a brave, proactive role. As a result, Chaleff emphasizes courageous followership and describes followers based on two characteristics of courageous followership. The first dimension is the degree to which followers fervently and devotedly support their leader(s). At the same time, the second is the degree to which followers oppose their leader when their actions or policies prove detrimental to the group or go against group principles.

Chaleff’s (2009) typology differentiates four styles of followership: implementer, partner, individualist, and resource.

1. *Implementer*: These followers are the most prevalent in the workplace. Implementers are highly supportive of their leaders and get the work done. However, such followers are not capable of challenging bad leadership.

Implementers support the leader's policies and behaviors and are dependable, compliant, and respectful of authority (Chaleff, 2009).

2. *Partner*: These followers give their leaders full support yet constructive criticism if the group's objectives are in danger. Such followers speak up when they feel that the leader's actions or policies go against what they believe to be correct. According to Chaleff (2009), partner followers are those who face delicate subjects. They are mission- and purpose-driven and see peer relationships as the basis for authority.
3. *Individualists*: These followers speak their opinions and feel what they feel without being scared off by authorities. However, they are marginalized since they frequently refuse assistance from those in positions of authority. Such followers are aggressive, independent thinkers and straightforward reality-checkers.
4. *Resource*: These followers "do an honest day's work for a few days' pay" but do not go above and beyond what is required of them. As a result, resource followers need to catch up. They lack dedication, complain to outside parties about organizational problems, and purposefully ignore authority figures (Chaleff, 2009).

Kellerman's Typology

According to Barbara Kellerman (2008), those who follow others tend to do so because their superiors have more influence and power over them (Kellerman, 2008; Northouse, 2019). As a result, they follow the instructions of those in authority. According to Kellerman's typology, followers can be classified into five categories: isolated, bystanders, participants, activists, and die-hards. These categories are based on their level of interaction.

1. *Isolate:* These devotees are indifferent. They don't know anything about their leaders, don't care about them, and don't react in any manner. By default, they give their leaders power to do what they choose, whether for good or bad, because they know little and take no action. It is equivalent to a registered voter deciding not to vote or appearing at the polls. Kellerman (2008, p. 91) states that isolates are "uninformed, uninterested, and unmotivated" at work.
2. *Bystanders*: These followers make a conscious decision to take a backseat and not take part in the leadership process. Both the group and their leaders are cut off from them. This retreat is a covert endorsement of the existing quo, whoever it may be and whatever it may be. Kellerman (2008) used the context of Nazi Germany and the Holocaust to illustrate the concept of bystanders. These individuals are characterized as spectators who are aware of occurrences within their organizations or communities but consciously opt for non-involvement. When such followers align with their leaders or group in actions that preserve the existing order through bystander inaction, they are effectively granting implicit approval to these behaviors.
3. *Participants*: Such followers may express opinions on various matters, either endorsing or dissenting from the leader's stance, with a moderate level of engagement. Followers may either support their group, purpose, or leader, or choose not to. Regardless of their level of commitment, they are willing to put in some effort to make a difference, however small. Their dedication may not match that of a diehard follower or activist, especially regarding efforts to undermine or overthrow a leader.

4. *Activists:* These followers have strong opinions in support or opposition of their leaders or organization. They are capable of exerting a lot of effort on behalf of their leaders or even actively undermining them. Activism, according to Kellerman (2008), is the pursuit of change by followers. The intensity and enthusiasm of activists is unmatched. They are involved. They will exert a great deal of effort to uphold and support their leaders or to take steps to have them removed because they are deeply invested in the cause, the people, and the supporting systems.
5. *Diehards*: These followers are willing to give their lives in defense of what they support, whether it be a person, an idea, or both. Diehards may have a strong commitment to their leaders or their ideologies. When seen from a different perspective, they are prepared to use all means necessary to remove these leaders if they fail to meet their expectations or objectives. Like activists, diehards are fiercely devoted to their leaders and will fight valiantly to remove them from office. But unlike activists, diehards would stop at nothing to topple those leaders, if necessary, and they would do it by whatever means required. These followers can be distinguished by their degree of commitment and readiness to make unwavering sacrifices—even at the risk of their own lives—for the cause or ideology. Kellerman (2008) asserts that a person's devotion to a cause shape their identity and behavior.

Apart from the above-mentioned typologies, several others have contributed to classifying followers. For example, Adair's 4-D Followers' Model (2008) represents the distinct characteristics of followers in the workforce. There are four distinct employee characteristics, as depicted below:

1. *Disgruntled*: These are dissatisfied employees who feel slighted (whether from an actual or perceived). As a result, they lack appreciation for their company and offer minimal benefit to the organization.
2. *Disengaged*: These are followers who do not support the organization's goals but see the benefit in preserving their current positions and will be content to put in the bare minimum to ensure their employment.
3. *Doer*: Employees are inspired and eager to participate in group projects that will increase productivity. They are unstable, though, and frequently leave the company searching for "greener grass" elsewhere, which results in a high turnover rate for this group of workers.
4. *Disciple*: Employees are highly productive, feel engaged, and want to stick around for a while. They think they are at the "right place at the right time."

Apart from the main followers' behaviors and characters mentioned earlier by the main proponent of followers, there is yet another author who briefly named the followers differently. Based on interpersonal and performance factors, Potter III & Rosenbach (2006) proposed four follower typologies: contributor, politician, submissive, and partner. According to their perspective, partners who follow are frequently aspiring leaders.

Table 1 below summarizes the various typologies, highlighting how followers have been characterized. "The four main styles of followership are supportive-conforming, independent-assertive, submissive-compliant, and active-engaged..."Passive, antiauthoritarian, and proactive followers" (Northouse, 2019, p. 362).

Table 1

Types and Summary of Followers

Author	Type of follower	Summary of follower
Zaleznik (1965)	1. Impulsive	1. Impetuous Challenges to power.
	2. Compulsive	2. Compulsive Controllers of Authority
	3. Masochistic	3. Masochistic submission to established power.
	4. Withdrawn	4. Care little about the work.
Kelley (1992)	1. Alienated	1. Think freely and critically but score low in organizational engagement.
	2. Exemplary	2. All-around followers with good thinking and participation scores.
	3. Conformist	3. Score high on active participation but low on autonomous thinking.
	4. Passive	4. Score poorly on independent thinking and engagement.
	5. Pragmatist	5. They score "middling" in independent thinking and "middling" in engagement.
Chaleff, (2003)	1. Implementer	1. Respectful of authorities and loyal followers.
	2. Partner	2. Addresses delicate issues, operates with a clear sense of purpose and mission, and considers authority within the context of peer-based relationships.
	3. Individuals	3. Reality checker, confrontational, and not afraid of authority.
	4. Resource	4. Complains to third parties about organizational concerns, contributes the bare minimum to job obligations, and avoids the attention of authorities.
Kellerman (2008)	1. Isolate	1. Disengaged followers who have no interest in, knowledge of, or reaction to their leaders.
	2. Bystanders	2. Followers deliberately choose to remain on the sidelines, without active involvement in the organization.
	3. Participants	3. These followers are in some way involved and plainly prefer their leaders and their group.
	4. Activists	4. These followers have strong feelings for or against their leaders or groups. They might work hard for their leaders or even sabotage them to the point of dragging them down.
	5. Diehards	5. Followers who are willing to die for what they stand for or believe; whether an individual, ideology, or both.

Author	Type of follower	Summary of follower
Adair (2008)	1. Disgruntled	1. Disconnted followers
	2. Disengaged	2. Followers who opt to break free from leaders or groups.
	3. Doer	3. Participates in organizational activities and interacts with everyone concerned to ensure optimal productivity.
	4. Disciple	4. Followers believe they are in theright place, thus they offer their all to the organization.
Potter III & Rosenbach (2006)	1. Contributor	1. Followers who bring value to the company.
	2. Politician	2. Followers who are more interested in personal wins than the organization's
	3. Subordinate	3. People who are under the jurisdiction of a superior leader.
	4. Partner	4. Followers who actively work with leaders to achieve organizational goals and accept responsibility for both good and bad outcomes.

There are several followership typologies already discussed in this study, but the researcher adopted Kelley's followership model to examine followership traits and styles among Seventh-day Adventist workers in Kenya to be used during the interviews. This typology enabled the researcher to identify the various types of followers in the church and how they impact performance.

Ideal Followership Styles

Followership styles are distinct modes a follower expresses his/her thoughts or actions. Even though the typologies come up with different names for the different types of followers, there are some similarities. Collectively, these provide the basis for different ideal followership styles, as discussed below.

Exemplary Followers

Kelley's (1992) followership philosophy emphasizes styles that translate into traits such as (a) initiative and self-starting abilities, (b) ownership, (c) active participation, and (d) task completion—qualities also associated with exemplary

followers. On the other hand, ineffective followers exhibit traits such as: inactivity, stubbornness, avoidance of accountability, and requiring continuous oversight. Kelley (1992) suggests that followers can adopt either positive or negative characteristics. This concept is reflected in the way followership development utilizes the attributes of both effective and ineffective followers.

Exemplary followers go above and beyond in order to produce exemplary outcomes (Solovy, 2005). Whether or not the leadership is appropriate, exemplary followers carry out their responsibilities. Exemplary followers are stars and perfect for organizational performance and success, claims Kelley (2008). These folks are proactive, willing to put forth views that occasionally conflict with those of their superiors, and supportive of the needs and objectives of the organization, leaders, and peers. On the other hand, strong critical thinking could lead to paralyzing pessimism, which is common among followers who feel alienated (Kelley, 1992).

Courageous Follower

In Chaleff's (2003) model, the quintessential follower is characterized by courage. Chaleff (2003) outlined five attributes of courageous follower behavior: the courage to act ethically, the courage to question, the courage to support, the courage to take responsibility, and the courage to engage in change. In comparison, Kelley's (1992) ideal follower style is more clear-cut than that of Chaleff (2003).

Chaleff (2010) notes that courageous relationships are the foundation for courageous followership. the bravery to be different from one another, the courage to be mistaken, and the courage to be right. Chaleff emphasized that brave followers take ownership of both the organization and themselves. Additionally, he noted that these followers do not have a paternalistic view of the leader or group. They don't anticipate that the boss or group will guarantee their safety and development or grant

them authority. Followers with courage look for or create possibilities to reach their potential and add the most to the organization. Chaleff contends that loyal followers must be aware of their obligations in order to fulfill them.

Diehard Follower

According to Kellerman's (2008) paradigm, the perfect follower is a devoted individual who is willing to go to great lengths to achieve the objectives or concepts of the organization. In addition, this seems to require a lot more of a follower than Kelley's (1992) straightforward model of followership."Diehards, as the name suggests, are willing to sacrifice their lives for their cause—be it a human, an ideology, or both. Diehards are fiercely loyal to their leaders, yet they are also willing to use any means necessary to remove them from positions of control. Diehards are known for their tenacity and willingness to take unnecessary risks. Die-hards are all-consuming. You are what you are. It influences your actions (Kellerman, 2008, p. 92). Every organization needs some diehards who will work tirelessly to achieve the organizational goals. A challenge would only occur when such followers are misled by the leaders.

Authentic Follower

An authentic follower, as described by (deZilwa, 2014) and other researchers, is an individual within an organization who not only complies with the directives of their leader but also demonstrates a personal commitment to both the leader and the organization. There is often a substantial power gap between leaders, managers, and employees in hierarchical organizational systems, which is frequently encountered in businesses and public sector organizations (French and Raven, 1959; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Barbuto, 2000; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Recent studies highlight the crucial role of genuine followership in tackling challenges in the leader-follower dynamic. By cultivating an authentic followership attitude, organizations can foster a sense of ownership, active engagement, and commitment among their followers (deZilwa, 2014). Authentic followers comply with their leader's directives and contribute their unique perspectives, talents, and constructive feedback, enhancing decision-making and overall organizational effectiveness.

According to Kernis's (2003) theory, people must demonstrate four crucial characteristics to have the psychological potential for authenticity: consciousness, impartial processing, action, and relational orientation. These qualities help people be authentic, self-aware, and true to themselves in their ideas, behaviors, and interpersonal interactions. In addition, according to Kernis (Kernis, 2003), awareness is the recognition of one's own motivations, feelings, desires, strengths, and flaws. It also includes qualities and emotions. Both the leader and the follower need to be generally aware of themselves. It enables the follower to exercise self-control and be conscious of how they interact with their peers and even the leader. Self-awareness also makes it possible for followers to acknowledge their errors and perhaps come up with solutions.

Empirical Studies on Followership

Followership studies have shifted from examining followers exclusively from the leader's point of view to taking followers' viewpoints about other followers and following into account. The increasing understanding of the significance of followership in the study of leadership has led to a surge in interest for studies on this topic (Ramuedzisi-Matshoba et al., 2022). Thus, it is accurate to say that "leadership

cannot be studied apart from followership" (Van Vugt et al., 2008, p. 193), and it is necessary to analyze followership in relation to leadership.

Ramuedzisi-Matshoba et al., (2022) study entitled “Followership in South-African Organizations” was conducted in South Africa. The study explored followership systems within South African organizations and how followers engage with leadership in varying contexts. This was a qualitative study with a focus on leader-follower dynamics and followers’ contributions to organizational outcomes. The study’s main findings included that followers stepped in whenever the leaders were ineffective. The other finding was that followers displayed compliance and respect as key behaviors. The conclusion of this study suggested that followers play a vital role in addressing leadership decisions by highlighting organisational values and acting decisively.

Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) conducted a study titled “Implicit Followership Theories in Non-Western Cultures” to examine the influence of cultural variations on implicit followership theories (IFTs) and behaviors. This quantitative research was carried out in organizations across Asia and parts of Africa. The findings indicated that national culture significantly shaped perceptions of follower roles and their enactment. Additionally, the study revealed that African participants emphasized the communal aspects of followership, in contrast to the more individualistic tendencies observed among followers in Western regions. Furthermore, the research identified that cultural differences affected how followers challenged unethical leadership. The study concluded that cultural context is crucial in shaping followership behaviors and perceptions. However, this study did not address the role of denominational organizations within the African context, which is the gap that the present study aims to address.

Blair and Bligh (2018) note that Africa is underrepresented in followership theory development, especially when contrasted with "English-speaking, Catholic Europe, and Protestant Europe" (p. 130) cultural regions. They also suggest that national cultures may shape the social construction of followership and leadership roles and behaviors. This viewpoint aligns with Yang et al. (2020) and Thomas (2004) who highlight how cultural differences impact implicit followership theories. A study by Matshoba-Ramuedzisi et al. (2022) identified five research projects on followership within Africa. Among these, two qualitative studies focused specifically on followership systems in South Africa (Singh & Bodhanya, 2013) and Uganda (Ofumbi, 2017). Ofumbi (2017) found that followers generally respond through intervention, especially when leaders exhibit ineffectiveness or malice, as well as through delegation, compliance, and respect.

The study on followership conducted in Uganda by Ofumbi, titled "Followership Practices in Ugandan Organizations," aimed to explore the responses of followers to leadership challenges and their contributions to organizational success. This qualitative case study revealed that followers intervened when leadership was inadequate, aligning their actions with organizational goals. Additionally, the study identified that leadership delegation strategies frequently depended on follower initiative to achieve success. The study concluded that the proactive nature of followers in Uganda often compensates for leadership weaknesses, thereby maintaining organizational stability.

The significant contributions of these studies to the field of followership underscore the necessity for more geographically diverse research, particularly outside Western nations, to gain a comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon. As McKimm and Vogan (2020, p. 43) suggest, a deeper grasp of followership can

inform our decisions about "what kind of followers we want to be and what kind of leaders we are willing to follow (and not follow)."

Examples of Followership Constructs

The study of followership, according to Mathoba-Ramuedzisi (2022), considers social constructions of followership in addition to role orientation, context, enactment, and styles. By examining followership, we can add to our comprehension of the leadership process by providing "descriptions of follower styles and followership behaviors" (Carsten et al., 2010, p. 543). Scholarly investigations on leadership and followership have been conducted from multiple angles, such as relationship-based, leader-centric, and follower-centric viewpoints.

Leader-centric studies (Bono & Judge, 2004; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Wilson, 2004) frequently portray followers as incidental to leadership; their duty is to be led. Followers are now regarded as social constructors of leadership, with their views and opinions on leaders and leadership being explored (Offeman, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994; Ehrhart, 2012). Finally, connection-based perspectives (Uhl-Bien, 2006; Brower et al., 2000) have depicted followers as an important part of the leadership process, where they engage in a reciprocal influence relationship (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014, p. 87).

Uhl-Bien et al. (2013) give examples of followership constructs that leaders and followers need to understand for followership research to advance as follows:

- Followership characteristics: traits that influence the definition and practice of followership. (For instance, role orientations, motives, cognitive and analytical skills, affect, and social constructions of followers and/or people recognized as participating in following behaviors are examples.)

- Followership behaviors: actions taken while acting as a follower or from a position of following (The various manifestations of overt followership, such as expressing, rejecting, advising, deferring, obeying, etc., are examples).
- Followership outcomes: The consequences of characteristics and behaviors that followers can demonstrate at personal, relational, and group levels. Thus, leadership process is influenced by followership in various ways. Examples include how follower behavior impacts leadership and organizational outcomes, the reactions of leaders to their followers (such as contempt or exhaustion), decisions regarding follower career advancement or dismissal, and whether leaders seek and value input from their followers. These instances demonstrate the role of followership within the leadership dynamic.

Barriers to Creating Followership

Reliance on "conventional wisdom" that is neither empirically supported nor a reliable foundation for creating robust and effective organizational cultures is one of the most frequent issues organizational leaders faces (Caldwell & Hansen, 2010). This reliance on poor management techniques has the consequence of undermining the capacity of leaders to establish high trust, high-performance organizations that, according to Pfeffer (Pfeffer, 1998), foster employee commitment and civic behavior. In the words of Hayes et al. (2014), there are eight common mistakes committed by organizational leaders that obstruct the development of followership. They also describe how these mistakes erode trust, shorten commitment, and lessen corporate citizenship and stewardship behavior.

1. *Underinvesting in human capital* – Organizational dysfunction and a decline in trust are frequently the results of underinvesting in human capital in today's knowledge-, wisdom-, and information-based economy

(Johnson & Horan, 2013; Davenport & Harding, 2010; Fitz-enz, 2009). Organizations can get a tacit advantage over competitors by investing in human capital, which enables workers to become more knowledgeable and skilled (Reed & DeFillippi, 1990; Hatch & Dyer, 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004). According to Carlzon (1989) and Beaujean et al. (2006), the relationship between an employee and a customer frequently results in unforgettable experiences that are equivalent to the generation of competitive advantage. Building follower commitment and trust requires investing in human capital and aligning that investment with policies, programs, procedures, and processes. This improves customer service, better quality, and increased profitability. (Cameron, 2011; Caldwell, 2012)

2. *Treating followers as means rather than as ends*- Over the past 20 years, organizational and interpersonal policies and practices have reshaped the employment relationship, often treating employees as means or as useful tools to accomplish organizational objectives rather than as valuable ends in and of themselves (Pfeffer, 1998). Such actions have the effect of establishing a transactional relationship with workers. Instead of seeing people as the secret to success and a competitive advantage, this transactional approach makes it abundantly evident that they are seen as a cost center and a commodity that contributes to profitability (Covey, 2004).
3. *Settling for "good enough" rather than striving to be great* - Collins (2009) notes that one of the main reasons great organizations collapse is the "hubris born of success" (p. 27). Collins notes that the data challenges

companies' capacity to accomplish their objectives and implies that "good is the enemy of great" (Collins, 2001, p. 1). According to leadership studies, in order to gain the respect and loyalty of their workforce, leaders must also show that they are dedicated to reaching high standards of performance (Cameron, 2011; Caldwell et al., 2012; Paine, 2003).

4. *Thinking short-term and missing long-term needs*- Wall Street analysts, who evaluate the health of companies based on quarterly balance sheets, are a continual source of pressure for organizations and their leaders (Dillard et al., 2011). Tightening the screws to make the financial report for this quarter look good distorts not only the company's picture in the short term but also the company's ability to invest in employee training, customer outreach initiatives, and capital assets that are essential to the company's future growth (Covey, 1991). A common leadership error is to place too much emphasis on the short-term financial position and neglect to address longer-term organizational priorities that support the creation of long-term wealth, despite the fact that incremental financial decisions made by organizations and their impact on firm success are unquestionably important (Caldwell & Hansen, 2010).
5. *Relying more on performance appraisals than performance coaching* - For almost fifty years, traditional performance rating systems have been deemed problematic (McGregor, 2006). Despite this, academic textbooks (Nkomo et al., 2011; Snell & Bohlander, 2012) continue to support ineffective personnel appraisal systems that have shown to be at best marginally effective Longenecker (2010), and organizational leaders continue to conduct ineffective performance appraisals that devastate

morale and undermine commitment (Roberts, 2003; Deming, 2000). Research has shown that performance coaching improves relationships, commitment, and output (Coe et al., 2007; Kimsey-House et al., 2011).

6. *Failing to empower and decentralize decision-making* - Many executives respond to the constraints placed on their firms to succeed in a challenging economic climate by tightening controls, centralizing decision-making, and tightly enforcing organizational rules and norms. The importance of employee participation and individual initiative demands that organizations carefully balance the need for reasonable controls with the capacity to empower, develop, and allow employees to use their talents to continuously improve the organization—even though there will always be a tension between freedom and constraint in any organization (Kouzes & Posner, 2011, pp. 176-179). According to Caldwell (2012), empowerment encompasses considerably more than just allocating accountability for
7. *Breaking promises and perceived commitments* - According to Kouzes and Posner (2011), Chapter 1, maintaining credibility as a leader starts with fulfilling promises. If a leader "is worthy of their trust," then their honesty is "absolutely essential to leadership," according to Kouzes and Posner (2011, p. 8). In a study by Caldwell & Clapham (2003), the only significant component that explained organizational trustworthiness was honest communication.

   If leaders want to be seen as reliable and moral, they must always have a clear knowledge of what their followers expect from them in terms of the social contract (Bai et al., 2013).

8. *Assigning value to the wrong priorities* - The opposite of successful stewardship is focusing on the incorrect priorities and losing equilibrium in the pursuit of long-term wealth (Hernandez, 2008; Caldwell & Hayes, 2007).

Organizations and their leaders must be dedicated to "core values and a sense of purpose beyond just making money - that guides and inspires people through the organization and remains relatively fixed," according to Collins and Porras (2002, p. 48). In order to fulfill this commitment, policies and activities must be systemically aligned with those principles to create a cohesive goal. According to Kouzes and Posner (2011 p. 2), those who adhere to these principles "are energized by values and visions that give their lives meaning and purpose."

According to Hayes et al. (2014), for businesses to succeed in the future's intensely competitive economy, their executives and employees must grow into incredibly dedicated, moral stewards who are passionate about bettering the lives of both the company and their clients. Organizations must overcome their incapacity to foster cultures that reward personal excellence, view workers as valuable resources, and put in place procedures and policies that give employees agency and represent the values of the company if they are to succeed (Covey, 2004; Paine, 2003; Cameron & Spreitzer, 2012). According to Block (1993). As per Hayes et al. (2014), outstanding leaders comprehend that a company's profitability, competitive edge, and sustained prosperity are predominantly reliant on the loyal collaboration of their followers.

Leadership Personality

Human beings behave in distinct ways depending on where and what is happening. Each one of us can either be shy, outgoing, aggressive, friendly, or excited. The bottom line is that we don't act similarly under similar circumstances (Burger, 2014). Additionally, Endler and Rosenstein (1997) suggest that the trait or individual differences model has dominated research and theory throughout the history of personality, as studied by 20th-century psychologists. The same authors also note that features are seen as overarching, persistent aspects of the person that serve as a predispositional basis for behavior patterns in various contexts. Ibid

Personality usually refers to the distinctive patterns of behavior that characterize everyone's adaptation to situations in his or her life (Andersen, 2006). Burger (2014) also observed that both the situation and the person contribute to one's behavior. In his attempt to define personality, Burger posits that personality is a consistent behavior pattern and intrapersonal process originating within the individual. These behavior patterns vary from one individual to another depending on the circumstances or people around the individual.

Personality describes an individual's dominant characteristics or traits, which are reflected in behavioral tendencies across various situations (Hitt et al., 2018). Many factors influence the individual's behavior. Human behavior reflects the continuous interaction of many forces in the person and the environment or situation. As observed by Andersen (2006).

Although people have proposed many different personalities (Diener & Lucas, 2019), Gordon Allport and other "personologists" contended that while there are many ways to construct personalities, knowing personality attributes will help us better understand how people differ from one another. The core of human diversity is

found in personality traits (Matthews et al., 2003). Different interpretations of personality qualities are given in literary works. Personality traits are described as "relatively stable dispositions rooted in genes and enduring effects of past life events" in an article by Opp and Brandstatter (2013). These dispositions govern how an individual acts in particular classes of generally relevant events in a way that consistently differs from the experiences and behavior of others. Personality traits are persistent, distinctive qualities that might alter depending on the circumstances. The psychological mechanisms underlying various thoughts, behaviors, and emotions are contained in personality traits. (He, Wang, Zhu, and Harris, 2015)

As Goff (2003) notes, the study of leadership began in the early 1900s with the trait theory and developed into the behavioral leadership theory in the 1950s and 1960s. The behavioral leadership theory was created by numerous academics who were unhappy with the characteristic theory's conclusions to clarify how leadership is practiced and what behaviors are required of a competent leader. In an attempt to explain distinctive features of a leader's performance, Goff (2003) claims that the leadership trait theory defines a collection of personal attributes. It was believed that potential leaders could be identified by observing and analyzing their personality traits. The person has to possess qualities of leadership in their personality. But the traits could be improved with practice, training, and experience. Leadership cannot be a part of a leader's personality without the characteristic hypothesis. According to Goff (2003), these traits can be developed to become effective leadership traits.

Conversely, the theory of behavioural leadership attempts to elucidate the many approaches that effective leaders use by means of the circumstances of their work. Two essential behavioral characteristics of a leader were highlighted in the development of the behavioral leadership theory (Bass, 1990). According to Goff

(2003), the two behavioral components are a strong motivation to finish the work (job-centered) and a genuine concern for people (employee-centered). According to Goff (2003), employee-centered leader behaviors focus on building rapport, mutual trust, and sensitivity with their team members while also elaborating on the two behavioral traits of a successful leader. Task completion under close supervision, with the use of coercion, threats, and formalities, is the aim of job-centered behaviors. This aspect of leadership conduct is to produce results and increase revenue so that the business can continue to operate without going out of business. Both are necessary for every effective leader, and a skilled leader knows which hat to put on at what time.

Four fundamental actions that a leader must take are described by Yukl (1971). Directive behavior makes goals, expectations, and job procedures clear. Supportive behavior includes showing care and empathy, paying attention to employees, and offering helpful guidance. When making decisions, participative behavior looks for suggestions and input. High goals are set, and staff dedication to goals is sought after in the achievement behavior. Goff (2003) noted that these feelings existed.

Culture plays a very crucial role in a person’s character development. Burger (2014) posits that culture plays an important role in understanding personality. He also observed that psychologists have seen that people and their personalities exist within a cultural context. That means that even how people describe and study personality differs from culture to culture.

According to Diener & Lucas (2019), personality traits are indicative of an individual's recurring patterns of emotions, ideas, and actions. Personality qualities imply consistency and stability. The same writers provide an example: a person with a high extraversion score is predicted to be gregarious throughout time and in various

contexts. As a result of the results of several recent meta-analyses (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997; Tett et al., 1991). For example, personality is widely accepted as a reliable indicator of job performance, according to Jiang et al. (2009). Similar concepts were put up when Van Aarde et al., (2017) said that over the past thirty years, personality traits have become some of the most significant factors influencing employment requirements. Meta-analyses have also confirmed that personality traits are predictive of job performance and other work-related outcomes (Barrick et al., 2001; Ones et al., 2007). Consequently, it makes sense to conclude that personality qualities influence organizational success and can be used to forecast it. Psychologists started using personality to gauge employees' levels of performance. According to Endler and Rosenstein (1997), personality assessments were included in intelligence exams in the 1920s by psychologists to increase performance prediction accuracy.

Gridwichai et al., (2020) noted that personality traits have been the focus of considerable research in the past because of the various organizational and job-related responses, also referred to as individual reactions. Conscientiousness is predictive of nearly all performance parameters across a wide range of occupations, which is the most reliable and consistent finding in the research on personality and job performance.

As a result of the realization that leadership plays a critical role in an organization's success or failure, several studies have been carried out to examine the relationship between leadership (and specifically, leadership roles) and positive organizational outcomes (Matoba-Ramuedzisi, 2022; Lok & Crawford 2004, Yahaya & Ebrahim 2016, Bushra, Usman, & Naveed 2011, Lian & Tui 2012). To achieve positive organizational performance, Mathoba-Ramuedzisi's ongoing observations indicate that organizations also need to look at followership and all of its facets. The

same author also provided a disclaimer, saying that although research of this kind is crucial to deepening our understanding of leadership, it is crucial to remember that followers also have a vital role to play in the organization and the leadership process. Thus, followership must be discussed in the context of leadership, and as Van Vugt et al. (2008) indicate, we should arguably admit that "leadership cannot be studied apart from followership."

1. Despite disagreements over the nature of the relationship, Eastham (2017) found that job performance has been positively correlated with both personality and job happiness. Determining whether personality and job happiness are connected characteristics is therefore a reasonable area of study for researchers and practitioners looking to increase job satisfaction and possibly job performance. According to Gridwichai et al. (2020), personality traits are attributes that are predictive of an individual's conduct. Three fundamental ideas underpin the conventional interpretation of personality traits (Hitt et al., 2018). Psychological characteristics that are relatively constant in an individual are known as personality traits. This suggests that these traits are not prone to rapid changes and tend to persist over time. An illustration of this concept is shyness; if someone exhibits this trait, it is likely to remain a part of their personality for an extended period.
2. An individual's behavior is largely influenced by their personality characteristics. As an illustration, an individual with introverted tendencies will typically be quiet and display non-assertive conduct..

Eastham claims that Sir Francis Galton's research in the late 1880s marked the beginning of the search for a personality domain structure. Following John Digman's

suggestion that it needed fifty years to arrange the language of personality into a logical framework, there was a more significant push for creating the trait theory of leadership, which intensified the hunt for a clear, concise list of personality domains. (Hammer, 2017) One of such identified structures of personality traits is The Big Five, which Northouse identified, are five personality qualities. According to Northouse (2013), the specific characteristics include extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness, and neuroticism. According to authors like Smith & Canger (2004), the Big Five components model is thought to be responsible for most of the variation in personality assessments. This model is significant because it allows for the meaningful categorization of personality traits, gives researchers a uniform framework and language, and purports to encompass almost the whole personality "space" (p. 468).

History of the Personality Traits

According to Endler & Rosenstein (1997), utilitarianism has played a significant role in the development of trait theories of personality. That is to say, traits were employed because it was simple to gather information about attributes via questionnaires and because traits offered the promise of aiding in behavior prediction. Many of the personality traits listed in dictionaries overlap, according to research that took a lexical approach to the topic. Consequently, many of the terms we use to characterize persons are interchangeable (Diener & Lucas, 2019).

There is a growing interest in qualities in the subject of personality, as observed by (Pervin, 1994). Pervin continues to observe that from the threats of its conceptual foundations dating back to the 1960s, due to the resurgence of trait theory, some believe that science has reached an understanding of the fundamental components of personality. Different authors such as (A. H. Buss 1989; Broody 1988

and Digman 1990) have all tried to find an appropriate structure for personality traits. The author that many researchers keep referring to when it comes to personality trait structure is Costa & McCrae.

The five-factor model (FFM) and the related NEO Personality Inventory, which were put forth by Costa and McCrae in 1989, are suggested as benchmarks by which other comprehensive personality questionnaires can be evaluated for validity (Pervin, 1994). Although personality qualities evolve over time, most traits and most people are unlikely to experience changes significant enough to undermine stability, as noted by (Buss, 1988). Depending on the person, circumstance, and time, people's personality is bound to change. Costa & McCrae (1994) observed that somewhere between ages 20 and 30, personality appears to take its final, fully developed form.

Big Five-Factor Model of Personality (FFM)

Most trait theorists have suggested that evidence of traits' longitudinal stability supports the trait model (Brody, 1988, Funder, 1991; McCrae & Costa, 1990). This statement was suggested by Pervin (1994) while trying to develop a common structure of the personality trait. Pervin continues to observe that both the social cognitive theorists and psychoanalysts would agree with the assumption of longitudinal stability, even though the explanations offered are different from those of trait theory and different from one another.

Based on factor analysis of several personality questionnaires conducted since Cattell 1959, proponents of the Five Factor Model (FFM) have postulated that approximately the same five factors are recovered (Pervin, 1994). Since then, researchers studying traits have tried to demonstrate consistency in personality assessments inside and between data sources. It is preferred to use the five-factor model since the five proposed qualities are consistent among researchers. Several

authors have argued in favor of three factors (Cloninger, 1987; Eysenck, 1990; Gray, 1987; Tellengen, 1985, 1991; Zuckerman et al., 1988) or seven factors (Tellegen, 1993), or, more broadly, that "the bottom line is that the most widely accepted personality traits may be too inclusive" (A. H. Buss, 1988, p. 246), despite the suggestion that five seems right (McCrae & John, 1992).

Consequently, Diener and Lucas (2019) postulate that the variety of terms that people like Allport and Odbert identified may be accounted for by a small number of dimensions as a result of the application of statistical tools (more specifically, factor analysis). "The Big Five" or "Five-Factor Model" (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & John, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1987) was the most generally recognized of the systems that resulted from this methodology. The five personality traits can be easily remembered using the acronym OCEAN, which represents the following characteristics: O for openness, C for conscientiousness, E for extraversion, A for agreeableness, and N for neuroticism. The five fundamental components of the five-factor model are conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to new experiences. The pertinent personality qualities are described by these five dimensions (Kudek, 2018; Hitt et al., 2018; Robbins & Judge, 2016)

1. *Extraversion*-an individual with positive emotions who is pleasant, cheerful, gregarious, and outgoing is described as extraverted (McCrae & Costa, 1992). Extraverts typically have happier lives overall and at work (Robbins & Judge, 2016). People with high extraversion scores are typically more gregarious than individuals with low extraversion scores (George & Jones, 2012). Leaders with these traits tend to attract a good number of followers to their side because of their likable, happy personalities, and sociable people are loveable people and, in many cases,

can get any work done by simply making people around them happy and doing what they want. On the other hand, leaders with the opposite of this personality tend to push their followers away from them because of their nature. McCrae & Costa agreed when they observed that individuals with low scores in this area could be seen as cold, distant, formal, and even unenthusiastic (McCrae & Costa, 1991).

Perugini et al. (1992) state that for the Energy (E) dimension, we refer to the traits that are typically associated with either Surgency (Goldberg, 1990) or Extraversion (McCrae & Costa, 1987) in the literature. This is partially in line with Watson & Clark (in press). Given the more precise definitions that the Italian words "Extraversion" (which is generally used as a synonym for Sociability) and "Surgency" have, the term "Energy" E felt more appropriate and generic. This dimension is divided into two facets: "Dominance," which denotes assertiveness and confidence, and "Dynamism," which denotes expansiveness and excitement.

2. *Neutoticism*- According to McCrae & Costa (1992), neuroticism characterizes a person who is tense, uneasy, defensive, afraid, and gloomy. This is also known as emotional instability, in which a person on the low end may become extremely watchful, searching for faults and challenges; this may be observed externally in how effectively they manage stress (Robbins & Judge, 2016). Everybody is neurotic to some extent, despite the term being used disparagingly in the popular press and media (George & Jones, 2012). Humans are sociable creatures, and people knowingly or unknowingly tend to move away from anxious, tense, and nervous individuals who are leaders or followers. This is because of fear of joining

the tense bandwagon of anxious people. It is interesting that we all possess these neurotic traits, yet we do not want to associate with anyone exhibiting them.

According to Widiger & Oltmanns (2017), high neurotic individuals exhibit poorer work performance due to their intense emotional concentration that transforms ordinary situations into risky and overwhelming ones. Additionally, Politis & Politis (2012) note that the Big Five personality traits showed that neuroticism had a negative relationship with leadership characteristics like goal-setting, integrity, altruism, and team building. Leaders are people who need to be present and always involved at work. The physical and mental challenges experienced by neurotic leaders will hinder the growth of any organization. In 2017, Widger and Oltmanns asserted that neuroticism is also associated with a worse quality of life, which includes unfavorable feelings, overly worried attitudes, job failure, and marital discontent. Work performance will suffer from high levels of neuroticism due to emotional stress, fatigue, and distraction. The followers will take note of these unfavorable sentiments and perform poorly as a whole.

3. *Agreeableness* characterizes a person who exhibits friendliness, compassion, forgiveness, trustworthiness, andpeaceful, and peaceful (McCrae & Costa, 1992). Leaders who possess this trait make the best leaders because they create a conducive working environment for their followers. Ozbag (2016) reports that charismatic leaders are perceptive to followers' demands and are concerned for their welfare. Unfortunately, there are few such leaders in our organizations. Such leaders tend to give their followers room to be their people and provide a conducive environment for

their followers. Leaders with high agreeableness scores perform better, are more well-liked by their followers, and exhibit less aberrant behavior (Robbins & Judge, 2016). Individuals with low trait scores are typically impolite, uncooperative, confrontational, and unsympathetic (George & Jones, 2012). According to Mushonga and Torrance (2008), agreeableness is linked to followers who are actively involved and eager to take on new responsibilities for the sake of the organization.

The element commonly referred to as Agreeableness (McCrae & Costa, 1987) or Friendliness vs. Hostility (Digman, 1990) is the one we are referring to when discussing the friendliness (F) dimension. The two elements that make up this dimension are "Cooperativeness/Empathy," which relates to concern and sensitivity towards other people and their needs, and "Politeness," which refers to kindness, politeness, docility, and trust. A positive organizational performance and opportunities for growth for the followers are not necessarily guaranteed by agreeableness and extraversion.

4, Conscientiousness describes an individual as self-confident, thorough, resourceful, organized, and efficient (McCrae & Costa, 1992). Conscientiousness is one of the most studied traits in work psychology (Bono & Judge, 2004). These are dependable, responsible, dutiful, and well-organized leaders who deliver on their roles.

As per Ozbag (2016), moral obligation, honesty, and a high concern for obligations and responsibilities are all highly valued by conscientious leaders. These leaders create an atmosphere that upholds the outcome. For these leaders, the bottom-line matters. According to Robbins and Judge (2016), those who score highly in this category are dependable, whereas those who score poorly are quickly distracted, unorganized, and unreliable.

In a meta-analysis, conscientiousness was shown to be a reliable indicator of job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Their organized, thorough, and resourceful nature enables them to follow their employees to achieve organizational goals.

Impulse control is covered for the Conscientiousness (C) component in both its proactive and inhibitory aspects (Digman, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1989). (Perugini et al. 1992) The two components of this dimension are "perseverance," which refers to the ability to fulfill one's own obligations and responsibilities, and "scrupulousness," which is related to reliability, orderliness, perfection.

5. *Openness* to new experiences: McCrae and Costa (1992) describe an open-minded individual as creative, fearless, optimistic, idealistic, inquisitive, and insightful. Furthermore, those that are receptive to new experiences have enhanced capacity for learning and more receptivity to change (Robbins & Judge, 2016) and are prepared to assume more risks (George & Jones, 2012). Integrity has also improved with an open mind to experience, caring for others, enabling others, fostering teamwork, and establishing objectives (Politis & Politis (2012). Those that score poorly in this category tend to favor activities that are based on facts and conforming principles, and are comfortable and routine. These leaders don't want to change or advance; they like things to stay the same. Costa and McCrae (1991). The Openness (0) dimension corresponds to the aspect identified as Culture (Norman, 1963), Intellect (Goldberg, 1990), or Openness to Experience (Costa & McCrae, 1985), according to (Perugini et al., 1992). This dimension is divided into the two following facets: "Openness to Experiences," which describes openness to

novelty, tolerance of diverse values, and interest towards various people, habits, and lifestyles; and "Openness to Culture," which describes how broad or narrow one's own cultural interests are. Diener & Lucas (2019) summarize the Big Five Personality Traits, and their brief definition as indicated in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Descriptions of the Big Five Personality Traits

Big 5 Trait	Definition
Openness	Propensity to appreciate fresh ideas, values, feelings, and behaviors.
Conscientiousness	Tendency for punctuality, adherence to rules, and diligent work.
Extraversion	The propensity to be talkative, sociable, and enjoy a company often displays a dominant approach.
Agreeableness	The propensity to conform with others instead of expressing personal opinions and choices.
Neuroticism	An inclination to frequently experience adverse emotions such as irritation, worry, and sadness and a heightened sensitivity to interpersonal dynamics.

Ashton and Lee (2001) identified the sixth component of personality, bringing the total number of dimensions in the current understanding of personality to six. These six characteristics are: Consciousness, Agreeableness, Extraversion, Emotionality, Honesty-Humility, and Openness to Experience. Ashton and Partners (2007). As noted by Rolle (2020), the six-factor structure was retrieved by Boies, Lee, Ashton, Pascal, and Nicol (2001) from the French, German, Dutch, Hungarian, and Italian personality lexicons. These languages are German (Angleitner & Ostendorf,

1989; Ostendorf & Angle), Dutch (De Raad, 1992; De Raad, Hendriks, & Hofstee, 1992), and French (Boies et al., 2001).

The Five-Factor Model of personality structure has been the predominant framework in personality research since the 1980s. This model, a variant of the "Big Five" factor structure identified in Goldberg's English-language lexical study (1983, 1990), has been extensively developed (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1985, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1985, 1997). However, recent cross-cultural studies have provided evidence supporting a six-dimensional personality structure known as the HEXACO model. This framework, introduced by Lee and Ashton (2004) and further discussed by Ashton and Lee (2005), offers an alternative perspective on personality structure.

According to Ashton and Lee (2005), this latter model differs from the Big Five and Five-Factor Model partly due to its rotational orientation and the definition of the contents of two components but also because it includes a sixth factor known as Honesty-Humility. The six parameters mentioned above are outstanding due to their faithfulness in recovery across languages and the variety of languages from which they have been collected. Germanic, Romance, and Slavic are three branches of the Indo-European language family, and Korean and Hungarian are two languages belonging to two other language families. Given these results, it appears likely that if academics had access to the vast cross-language evidence that was known 20 years ago, they would have adopted a six-factor approach. The Big Five model, however, has its detractors (such as Block, 1995; Waller, 1999), who contend, among other things, that the pool of lexical adjectives utilized to produce the Big Five was too small to yield a thorough description of personality. (Simms, 2007). Even with the critics and the new information, the Big Five personality model has stood the test of time.

According to Vries et al. (2009), interest in personality structure has recently returned. Recent research has focused heavily on the question of whether the Big Five, also known as the Five Factor Model (FFM), is comprehensive enough to include the complete spectrum of personality traits. Researchers have looked into personality traits that potentially go "beyond" the Big Five in an effort to answer this question (e.g., Paunonen & Jackson, 2000; Saucier & Goldberg, 1998). According to research by Paunonen, Haddock, Forsterling, and Keinonen (2003), some of these Big Five "outliers," including honesty, egotism, seductiveness, and risk-taking, have considerable predictive power outside Big Five measures, proving the value of looking beyond the Big Five. Researchers have suggested including the sixth personality.

Followership Traits, Styles, and Performance

To evaluate the effectiveness of followers' performance within an organization, it is crucial to consider both the specific aspect of followership being evaluated and the intended direction of the assessment (Pitron, 2007). Measuring different aspects of follower behavior is necessary to determine the influence of followers’ and leaders’ interactions on follower performance.

Amgheib (2016) posits that followers' work outcomes are crucial to accomplishing corporate goals. As a result, organizations place significant emphasis on ensuring that their staff members' performance receives heightened attention. Robbins and Judge (2009) define work attitude as an employee's assessment of their work environment, which can be either positive or negative. Studies have indicated that contented workers exhibit higher levels of engagement at work and are also more inclined to stay with their company (Hughes et al., 2009). For follower retention, organizational leaders must establish an ideal work environment.

Many studies (Amburgey, 2005; Emery & Barker, 2007; Kaltenbaugh, 2008; Madlock, 2008; Kruglanski et al., 2007, Van Dick et al., 2007; &Walumba et al., 2005) have looked at employee work satisfaction through the prisms of leadership style, reciprocal leader-follower relationships, organizational culture, and organizational commitment.

A worker's attitude toward their work is frequently seen as a gauge of job satisfaction (Oshagbemi, 1999). Employee job satisfaction is defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job performance" (Oshagbemi, 1999, p. 1). Additionally, Wanous and Lawler (1972) defined employee job satisfaction as the emotive response to the employee's evaluation of job performance in relation to their rightfully expected, wanted, or anticipated outcomes.

Happiness at work, in the opinion of Tewari (2009), is determined by how much a follower enjoys their work. Spector (1997) considered the emotional aspects of job satisfaction by considering additional elements of employee work life, resulting in a more comprehensive definition. Spector described work satisfaction as "...simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (p. 2). To foster organizational growth, it is crucial for leaders to strive to ensure their subordinates feel comfortable and well-adjusted in their roles.

According to a 2002 study by Judge, Heller, and Mount, "the absence of a framework describing the structure and nature of personality has impeded theoretical explanations of the dispositional source of job satisfaction" (p. 530). However, research has indicated a correlation between the personalities of leaders and followers and followers' job satisfaction (Bruk-Lee et al., 2009; DeRue et al., 2011). Mixed outcomes were seen in other auxiliary studies. According to one such study, followers' job satisfaction is positively correlated with their perception of the leader's

resemblance (Hrivnak, 2009). According to Oren, Tziner, Sharoni, Amor, and Alon's (2012) study, there is an antagonistic link between the Big Five personality similarities in leader-member dyads and the leader-member exchange, or LMX.

Followers' Demographic Factors and Performance

Age, gender, the family life cycle, education, income, years of service, and nationality are examples of demographic characteristics (Kara & Mkwizu, 2020). This section examines the research on the correlation between demographic factors—such as age, gender, level of education, and length of service—and organizational success. Eastham (2017) hypothesized, citing a number of authors, that follower job satisfaction has been associated with similarities between followers and leaders that go beyond personality traits, such as age, gender, ethnicity, and tenure (2005; Buitendach & De Whitte, 2005; Chen et al., 2011; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Wilkin, 2013).

Researchers such as Perrin and James et al. suggest that the younger workforce gets the job done, while other researchers argue that the more mature the follower, the better the work engagement and, thus, a greater contribution to organizational performance. Robert and Douglas (2020) note that common misconceptions exist regarding older employees, including beliefs that they are less productive, resistant to change, and generally less committed. However, contrary to these assumptions, prior studies have demonstrated that individuals aged 50 and above exhibit the highest levels of emotional and intellectual engagement in their work. This heightened engagement motivates them to maximize their performance and make valuable contributions to their organization's achievements (James et al., 2012; Towers Perrin, 2005).

According to Robert and Douglas (2020), an employee's likelihood of engagement may increase with age and accumulated work experience. Dalal et al. (2012) found that employees who had been in the same position for 10 to 20 years and were nearing retirement exhibited higher levels of engagement stemming from intrinsic motivation.

The higher level of workplace engagement observed among older employees may be attributed to their enhanced personal abilities, which develop through age and life experiences. These acquired skills provide a broader range of tools for addressing work-related challenges. Such resources can have a positive impact on job satisfaction, performance, and engagement (Bakker et al., 2008). More so, older workers are advantageous because of their expertise, professionalism, work ethic, and reduced turnover rates (Robert & Douglas, 2020). As people get older, resources acquired via experience help them be more engaged at work. Organizations can benefit significantly from this by improving their performance and effectiveness.

Ngao and Mwangi (2013) also state that gender frequently substantially impacts employee performance, performance evaluations, and decisions linked to human resources. In the workplace, the impact of gender on various outcomes is particularly significant (Nelson & Burke, 2002). The performance ratings of male and female employees by managers and supervisors may be influenced by gender preconceptions, leading to more negative evaluations of women's work-related behaviors (Maurer & Taylor, 1994; Nieva & Gutek, 1989). It is evident that sex-role stereotypes still exist in the workplace (Goldman et al., 2006) and are likely responsible for men's higher performance reviews than women's (Lyness & Heilman, 2006; Watkins et al., 2006).

McMillan-Capehar (2003) utilized the resource-based view of the firm to suggest that incorporating gender diversity in managerial and leadership roles can offer companies a competitive advantage. The research findings indicated a positive correlation between gender diversity and organizational performance, specifically when measured by return on equity. Furthermore, Frink et al. (2003) conducted two empirical studies at the organizational level to look into the relationship between women's performance and representation. Each study employed a distinct performance metric. The findings support the authors' claim that organizations perform better with high gender diversity, specifically when there are 50% more women than men. In a similar vein, Ngao & Mwangi (2013) explicate that the resource-based perspective of the organization can be used to determine the correlation between gender diversity and performance. This argument holds that a company can maintain a competitive advantage by utilizing its precious, unique, uncommon, and irreplaceable resources (Barney, 1991). According to an empirical study on the resource-based view of the company undertaken by Barney (2001), personnel competence and other socially and intangibly complex resources are a stronger source of long-term competitive advantage than operational scale and other physical resources. Market intelligence, creativity, originality, and enhanced problem-solving abilities are a few of the intangible and socially complicated resources that result from gender diversity (McMahan, Bell, & Virick 1998). The varying experiences of men and women (Nkomo & Cox, 1996) shed light on the demands that differ between male and female clients. When a leader plays his or her cards well, both genders bring unique intrinsic qualities and views to the table that benefit the organization.

Another demographic variable that affects follower success is education. The academic certifications or degrees a person has earned are referred to as their education level. Education level is a continuous variable; although, according to Ng and Feldman (2009), it is routinely quantified categorically in research investigations. Because bachelor's degrees are required for admittance into many higher-paying occupations (Howard, 1986; Trusty & Niles, 2004), we refer to people who possess them as "educated employees" in this context. Today, many employers seek employees with a minimum of a bachelor's degree.

According to the human capital theory, employees are more likely to be paid more for their skills and expertise on the labor market (Becker, 1964). Studies by Myers, Griffeth, Daugherty, and Lusch (2004), Singer and Bruhns (1991), and Strober (1990) have shown that education and work experience are the two forms of human capital that people are most likely to accrue over their careers. It should be noted, nevertheless, that in many cases, there is probably a negative association between work experience and educational attainment. More years of education will reduce the amount of time that can be used to gain work experience. On the other hand, early labor market entry often results in less formal education accumulated (Ng & Feldman, 2009).

More so, there is substantial evidence in the labor economics and organizational science literature linking an individual's educational attainment to positive career outcomes, including pay grade, number of promotions, opportunities for advancement, and job mobility (Cappelli, 2000; Howard, 1986; Lazear, 1981; Ng et al., 2005). Since most businesses view education as a gauge of a worker's productivity or skill levels (Benson, Finegold, & Mohrman, 2004), they commonly use it as a prerequisite in hiring decisions.

The final demographic factor for this study is the number of years of service for a follower. As stated by Othman et al. (2019), an employee's length of service is a significant factor in enhancing their ability to perform well at work. The degree of job performance increases as an employee works longer since a greater body of work experience should enhance one's performance.

A review of the service period literature suggested by Othman et al. (2019) found that most studies used work experience, or job tenure to measure service period (Quinones, Ford & Teachout, 1995). The length of the service period is one of the elements that measures the improvement of individual work performance. The longer the service period of an employee in the organization, the higher the level of individual work performance. Classroom learning and job learning are quite different. Work experience provides the best teacher to any follower.

According to the self-determination theory, motivation rises in a more self-directed work environment, which has a favorable impact on behavior and attitude (Othman et al., 2019). In contrast, it can be challenging for an organization to provide a self-directed work environment for inexperienced employees since they frequently lack the necessary skills for the activities they are assigned and are unable to relate to the workplace. Thus, Barrick et al. (2013) concluded that work motivation would lead to positive behavior in organizations where employees have more work experience. It is expected that the work experience an employee has should result in greater seriousness in their tasks, mature judgment, stability, reduced negative work behaviors such as absenteeism, and increased performance in the workplace (Uppal, Mishra & Vohra, 2014).

A study by Ramoo, Abdullah, and Piaw (2013) found that work experience is one factor that provides good work performance. The study was supported by

(Cvjetković, Djordjević, & Ćoćkalo, 2017), who indicated that experienced workers have a more extensive range of knowledge as well as delivering high-performance work organized. Undoubtedly, experienced workers are willing to improve their skills and have a strong organizational culture towards the organization.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the study's methods and procedures. It covers the research design, population, sample, research tool, data collection methods, data analysis techniques, and ethical considerations. Salkind (2012) postulates that research methodology provides the basis for scientific study. Kazdin (2021) also describes methodology as a way of thinking, solving problems, and approaching substantive questions. In essence, research methodology refers to the overall approach to conducting the research in a systematic way.

Research Design

According to Heppner et al. (2015), research design is a strategy or framework used to direct the conduct of the study to minimize bias, distortion, or random mistake. Gay et al. (2012) also suggest that the research design specifies the precise research techniques and conducts data analysis based on the study's research questions. Williman (2021) states that research uses different approaches that are typically divided into three categories: mixed, qualitative, and quantitative research methods.

This study utilized a quantitative approach. Quantitative research is a rigorous design that examines phenomena using precise measurements (Polit & Beck, 2012). Creswell and Guetterman (2019) describe quantitative research as a methodological approach in which numerical data are collected from a large sample and analyzed using statistical procedures (Thomas, 2023). A quantitative approach was appropriate

for statistically testing the hypothetical relationships between followership traits and styles, organizational performance, leadership personality, and demographic factors.

This approach assumed a positivist view of scientific research based on the assumption that knowledge of the social world can be obtained objectively (Hair et al., 2023; Sekaran & Bougie, 2020; Thomas, 2023). Thus, positivism presupposes that objective reality can be investigated without interference from the researcher's preconceived ideas or influences. Therefore, the positivist paradigm generates causal relationships that ultimately lead to predicting and controlling the phenomenon in question (Sekaran & Bougie, 2020; Park et al., 2020).

Furthermore, a correlational research strategy was utilized to ascertain the associations between the variables under investigation (Curtis et al., 2016). The objective of the correlational study was to provide a quantitative description of the degree of relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The influence of followership styles and attributes on organizational performance, as influenced by the leadership personality and followers' demographics, was thus investigated in this study.

Target Population and Sampling Techniques

The study's target population was Seventh-day Adventist denominational employees in Kenya, including regular and contractual employees within the East and West Kenya Union Conferences and the four shared institutions. According to the East-Central Africa Division 2022 Statistical report presented at the General Conference, 2022, the total number of active Seventh-day Adventist workers in Kenya is approximately 3,466 (Appendix E). Due to this large number, collecting data

from all church workers is unrealistic. Therefore, a representative sample of the target population was drawn.

Sample Size Determination

A key attribute of quantitative research is generalization (Khalid et al., 2012). Thus, it is critical to select a representative sample to draw inferences for the population. The more the sample is representative of the population, the higher the accuracy of the inferences. The results are generalizable when the findings obtained from the sample are equally true for the entire target population. A sample is said to be representative when the characteristics of the elements selected are like those of the entire target population (Bacon-Shone, 2020).

To ensure the validity of research findings and to facilitate accurate generalizations, it is crucial to establish an adequate sample size that minimizes sampling errors and biases. A larger sample size generally reduces sampling error; however, this reduction occurs at a diminishing rate, meaning that after a certain point, the benefits of increasing sample size become marginal (Taherdoost, 2016; Sekaran & Bougie, 2020).

In a quantitative research, sample size determination is a critical step, and several formulas exist to calculate the requisite sample size for a known population. These formulas frequently consider variables like the required confidence level, the projected percentage of the population of interest, and the researcher's acceptable margin of error. A known population's sample size can be determined using a variety of formulas. This study utilized Krejcie & Morgan's (1970) pre-calculated sample size table (Appendix D), derived from the following formula.

$$s = X^2 NP(1-P) \div d^2(N-1) + X^2 P(1-P).$$

s = required sample size

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

N = the population size.

P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

Based on the population size of 3,466, the minimum sample size required was 346 (Appendix D). In addition, 10% of the sample size was added to cater for attrition. Attrition assumes that some respondents may drop out of the study or not complete the survey questionnaire (Johnson & Christensen, 2020). Hence, a total of 381 workers were sampled to participate in the study. Also, the following inclusion criteria were applied when selecting the sample.

1. Ecclesiastical organizations must have Conference status.
2. Institutions must be 'owned' by both East and West Kenya Unions.
3. Followers must be regular or consistent contractual workers of the organization.
4. Followers must be able to read and write in English.

Sampling Technique

This study adopted a probability sampling technique to ensure an objective representative sample for generalizability. Specifically, multistage cluster sampling was used as a starting point. Multistage is a sampling technique that combines two or more probability techniques at different stages. (Mohsin, 2016). It is used when the population elements are spread over a wide geographical region, and obtaining a representative sample with only one technique is impossible. It can be described as sampling within the sample. This technique provided a representative sample from the

target population. Therefore, the sampling process outlined below was followed (Hair et al., 2023; Sekaran & Bougie, 2020):

1. The two Unions – East and West Kenya Union Conferences of Seventh-day Adventist church formed the sample clusters.
2. According to the East-Central Africa 2022 Statistical Report, the West Kenya Union Conference has five conferences, and the East Kenya Union Conference has four. Therefore, the nine Conferences represented the target population. The reason for choosing conferences rather than fields was that conferences have existed for a longer time and are more established, bigger, and even stabler. Further, four institutions, shared by the two Unions, were selected for the study.
3. Lastly, the study employed a proportionate random stratified sampling technique to randomly select the number of followers proportional to the size of the conferences and institutions. The proportionate stratified random sampling technique was appropriate for this study for two primary reasons. First, it provided a representative sample when the target population in the different organizations and institutions varied. Secondly, the sample frame was readily available and accessible. Table 3 shows the sampled participating organizations and the matching sample size from each entity.

Table 3

Sample Organizations of Study

East Kenya Union Conference	Popu-lation	Sample size (population for each entity/ Total population* sample size)	West Kenya Union Conference	Popu-lation	Sample Size (population for each entity/ Total population*sample size)
Central Kenya Conference	214	44	Central Nyanza Conference	115	24
Central Rift Valley Conference	182	38	Greater Rift Valley Conference	286	59
Nyamira Conference	67	14	Kenya Lake Conference	123	26
South Kenya Conference	100	21	Ranen Conference	200	42
Adventist Development and Relief Agency	10	2	Western Kenya Conference	110	23
Home Health Education Service	40	8	Africa Herald Publishing House	30	6
			University of Eastern Africa, Baraton	357	74
Total	613	127		1221	254

Instrument for Data Collection

According to Ediyanto et al. (2021), a research instrument is a tool used to collect original data. This study used a questionnaire because it elicits information from research participants based on the purpose and research questions (see sample questionnaire in Appendix C).

A questionnaire is a tool that consists of a predetermined set of questions to which respondents provide their answers, usually in the form of closed-ended alternatives (Sekaran & Bougie, 2020). Questionnaires are best suited for gathering huge amounts of quantitative data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2020; Thomas, 2023). They are relatively a less expensive technique to collect data from a large sample (Sekaran & Bougie, 2020). They also provide a structured framework for respondents to select their answers, facilitating statistical analysis. More so, the value of anonymity and confidentiality in questionnaires promotes more honest self-disclosure (Patten, 2014). The main disadvantage of using a questionnaire is its failure to capture detailed insights from respondents, potentially resulting in a loss of valuable information (Patten, 2014).

The questionnaire for this study was adapted from several existing tools and literature such as Kelley's followership styles (1992), Ertaş Çapan & Uzunçarşılı (2022), organizational obedience scale, the big five personality traits scale (Sutton, 2019), and job satisfaction (Martin, 2006). Apart from the demographic variables, respondents rated each question item using a rating scale (5-point Likert scale).

Instrument Validity and Reliability

Instrument Validity

Validity is the degree to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to be measuring (Sekaran & Bougie, 2020; Thomas, 2023). Estimating and reducing the error linked to measurements in research instruments requires validity (Roger, 2015).

The researcher established the face and content validity of the questionnaire. Apart from the researcher's advising team, an expert in quantitative studies and quantionnaire development vetted each question item to ensure that the research instrument covers all relevant parts of the study shown in the conceptual framework of the study (Price et al., 2015; Christensen & Johnson, 2020). In addition, a pilot study was conducted to determine the reliability of the instrument.

Instrument Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which a research instrument, such as a questionnaire gives the same result on different occasions (Sekaran & Bougie, 2020; Thomas, 2023). According to Khalid et al. (2012), the degree of homogeneity and reflection of the same underlying construct among scale or measurement device items constitutes internal consistency. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (Cronbach, 1951), which is used for multipoint-scaled items, is the most popular technique for assessing internal consistency.

After establishing the face and content validity of the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted at Kenya Coast Field in Mombasa and Better Living Hospital in Nairobi. These institutions have similar characteristics as the study sample and were not included in the main study study. During the pilot phase, 43 (28 from Kenya Coast Field and 15 from Better Living Hospital) questionnaires were completed and

returned, exceeding the 10% threshold of the intended target population as Viechtbauer et al. (2015) recommended.

Results of the reliability analysis showed in Table 4 shows that the itemss in the twelve scales had adequate discriminating power. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), Cronbach alpha values of 0.60 or higher indicate acceptable internal consistency.

Table 4

Cronbach's Coefficient Scores

Scales	Cronbach's coefficient (α)	No. of Items
Exemplary follower	.770	9
Conformist follower	.768	9
Pragmatic follower	.664	2
Alienated follower	.722	7
Passive follower	.604	5
Followership Traits [honesty]	.663	3
Followership Traits [competence]	.766	6
Followership Traits [good judgement]	.777	4
Followership Traits [work ethic]	.725	4
Personality	.835	8
Job Satisfaction	.902	10
Financial Sustainability	.684	6

Method of Data Collection

The data-collecting process commenced with official permission from the Adventist University of Africa (AUA) and approval from the East and West Kenya Union Conferences, enabling the researcher to undertake the study.

For data collection, the institutions and organizations involved worked with the researcher to set up suitable dates for gathering participants, typically during

workers' meetings arranged by the conferences. Participants were informed about the research's goal on the planned dates and requested to obtain informed consent before completing the questionnaire. Data was collected within a month, with each questionnaire taking an average of 15-20 minutes. The researcher covered all associated costs, including communication, printing, transportation, and the shipment of materials necessary for data collection.

Method of Data Analysis

The process of converting the collected data into valuable information is known as data analysis. Descriptive statistics were conducted to convey the respondents' demographic profile in a meaningful way. In this case, frequency distribution tables with percentages were presented. The following statistical methods were applied, considering the research questions:

1. For interval and ratio scaled data, the most popular descriptive statistics are the mean and standard deviation (Hair et al., 2023; Sekaran & Bougie, 2020). In order to answer research question one and provide a basic overview of the followers' characteristics (traits and styles), mean scores and standard deviations were used. According to Taylor-Powell (2003), the standard deviation is the average variation of the mean score from the average. When the standard deviation is high, it implies that the responses deviate greatly from the mean; when it is low, it suggests that the responses are similar to the mean. The interpretation of the mean ratings on the 5-point Likert scale was guided by Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5

Interpretation of 5-Point Likert Scale Measurement for Followership Style

Likert-Scale Description	Likert-Scale	Likert Scale interval	Interpretation of followership style
Never	1	1.00 - 1.80	Followership behavior does not occur at all.
Rarely	2	1.81 - 2.60	Followership behavior is rare, only in a few instances.
Sometimes	3	2.61 - 3.40	Followership behavior occurs sometimes, not frequently.
Often	4	3.41 - 4.20	Followership behavior happens frequently.
Always	5	4.21 – 5.00	Followership behavior occurs everytime.

Source: Nyutu, et al. (2021)

Table 6

Interpretation of 5-Point Likert Scale Measurement for Followership Trait

Likert-Scale Description	Likert-Scale	Likert Scale interval	Interpretation of followership style
Not true at all	1	1.00 - 1.80	Very low, trait is never exhibited.
Rarely true of me	2	1.81 - 2.60	Low, trait is rarely exhibited.
Somewhat untrue of me	3	2.61 - 3.40	Moderate, trait is sometimes demonstrated.
Mostly true of me	4	3.41 - 4.20	High, trait is often demonstrated.
Very True of me	5	4.21 – 5.00	Very high, trait is consistently demonstrated.

Source: Nyutu, et al. (2021)

2. To answer research question two, Pearson correlations were carried out. According to Gay et al. (2012), in a correlational study, scores on one variable are associated with scores on another, or scores on multiple variables are correlated with a single variable that is of major interest. Several correlation coefficients between +1.00 and –1.00 are obtained from data analysis (Fein et al., 2022; Nettleton, 2014). Positive values show that as one value rises, the other value rises as well; negative values show that as one value rises, the other value falls. The degree of correlation between the two variables increases with the value's proximity to 1. According to Faizi and Alvi (2023), Pearson *r* is suitable when the two variables that need to be correlated are presented as continuous data (i.e., ratio or interval). Table 7 presents the correlation coefficient range scores that are utilized to decipher the direction and intensity of relationships between the research variables.

Table 7

Coefficient Strength of Association Guideline

	Coefficient, *r*	
Strength of Association	Positive	Negative
Weak/Small	.10 to .30	-0.10 to -0.30
Medium/Moderate	.31 to .50	-0.31 to -0.50
Strong/High	.51 to 1.0	-0.51 to -1.0

Note: Adapted from Fein et al. (2022)

3. Stepwise multiple regression analyses were used to address research questions three and four to determine the influence of followership traits and styles on performance (Ong & Puteh, 2017; Liebscher, 2012; Pallant, 2015). Each independent variable's relative significance in predicting the dependent variable is

shown by the regression coefficients (Hair et al., 2021; Muijs, 2022; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

4. Moderated multiple regression analysis (Hayes, 2017) was conducted to assess the moderating effect of the respondents' demographic profile (research question five). A moderator variable is one that alters the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.
5. Research question six was analyzed using hierarchical multiple regression. Hierarchical regression is a type of regression model in which the predictors are entered in blocks and assessed at each step. The increment in explained variance (R^2change) is usually the focus of interest (Hajovsky & Reynolds, 2018). This statistical technique enables researchers to evaluate the relative contributions of each set of variables to the explanation of variance in the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2021; Richardson et al., 2015).

The researcher utilized the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS®) to analyze all collected data. The study's null hypotheses were evaluated at a significance level of 0.05 (5%) or lower (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). When the p-value was 0.05 or less, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the findings were considered statistically significant. As noted by Hair et al. (2023) and Muijs (2022), if the p-value exceeded 0.05, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Ethical Considerations

Research should be designed, reviewed, and conducted, and the results disseminated with scientific integrity and concordant with ethical considerations. Kaewkungwal & Adams' (2019) ethical considerations were duly followed in the research process outlined below.

Approvals, Clearance, and Permissions

Once the researcher successfully defended the proposal, several protocols were followed before proceeding to the field for data collection. The researcher sought ethics clearance from the AUA Institutional Scientific and Ethics Review Committee (AUA/ISERC/2024/001) and a research license from the National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation (NACOSTI/P/24/32611), see Appendix A. Also, the researcher requested permission and authorization from the leadership of the Seventh-day Adventist Union organizations and institutions in Kenya to conduct the study in their territories.

Informed Consent

Informed consent gives participants the information they need to make an informed decision about participating in the study, as noted by Sharma & Rani (2012). As a result, the participant's involvement in the research was made clear to them, and the researcher also briefed them on the study's goal and any possible dangers or benefits of participation. They had the chance to decide for themselves whether or not they wished to take part in the study. Thus, before delivering the questionnaire form, a consent form (Appendix B) was given to each research participant to read and sign.

Privacy and Confidentiality

The researcher maintained the privacy and confidentiality of each respondent. Data from all participants were anonymized, and no participants were identified by name or any other manner during or after the research study. Also, data collected were reported in aggregates. Jones (2019) suggests that by not requiring names or information that may identify the participants and encouraging the participants to fill

out the questionnaire in a safe place, the researcher endeavored to ensure that no harm befalls the participants in whatever way humanly possible.

Research Integrity

This research aimed to accurately and objectively report the research findings based on the research questions to fulfill the purpose of the research. Therefore, the research methods, data analyses and the results are reported in the study and the appendixes for verification and possible replication. Furthermore, the researcher attests to the originality of this research and acknowledges all the cited works in the study according to the APA style of citation as recommended by the research handbook for the School of Postgraduate Studies, Adventist University of Africa.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter 4 presents, analyzes, and interprets the results of the study gathered from the data collected. This chapter begins with an overview of the research setting, response rate, data screening, respondents' demographic profiles, and the results and discussions of the research questions/hypotheses. The findings are organized according to the sequence of the research questions outlined in chapter one. Based on the results, this chapter suggests a paradigm that advances scholarly work and enhances our understanding of followership.

Study Area Setting

The study's target population was Seventh-day Adventist denominational employees in Kenya. According to the East-Central Africa Division 2022 Statistical report presented at the General Conference, 2022, the total number of active Seventh-day Adventist workers in Kenya is approximately 3,466 (Appendix E).

The study area of this research covers the entire country of Kenya, which makes up the East Kenya Union Conference (EKUC) and the West Kenya Union Conference (WKUC). The East Kenya Union Conference is based in Nairobi, serving the Central, part of Rift Valley, part of Nyanza, and Coastal regions of Kenya. The four conferences under study in East Kenya Union Conference (EKUC) included the Central Kenya Conference (CKC), Central Rift Valley Conference (CRVC), Nyamira Conference (NC), and South Kenya Conference (SKC). According to the SDA Encyclopedia (2021), the Central Kenya Conference (CKC) was the second organized

conference in Kenya (1989), after the South Kenya Conference (SKC) was organized in 1981.

Based in Kisumu, the West Kenya Union Conference provides church services to parts of Kenya's political regions, including the Western, Nyanza, and Rift Valley areas. The Ranen Conference (RC), Kenya Lake Conference (KLC), Central Nyanza Conference (CNC), Greater Rift Valley Conference (GRVC), and Western Kenya Conference (WKC) are the five conferences that comprise the West Kenya Union Conference (WKUC).

The institutions under study included the four institutions shared by both the East and West Kenya Union Conferences. These institutions are shared in terms of management, such that the management board comprises the leaders from both unions. The institutions include the University of Eastern Africa, Baraton (UEAB) located in Eldoret, Africa Herald Publishing House (AHPH) based in Kendu Bay, Home Health Education Service (HHES) in Nairobi, and Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA), also based in Nairobi.

Response Rate

It is necessary to measure the respondents' response rate in order to ensure credible and trustworthy research. According to Frey (2018), "a response rate is the ratio of the number of participants in a study to the number of participants who were asked to participate" (p. 1). Inadequate data collection could lead to results that are not valid and reliable, which could result in wrong conclusions.

Out of the 381 questionnaires distributed to the study sample, 333 were duly filled out and returned. This brings the study's response rate to approximately 87%. A response rate of 70% or higher is considered high and excellent for findings to represent a study population and be generalizable (Booker et al., 2021; Ericson et al.,

2023). The high response rate in the study can be attributed to several factors. Firstly, the researcher made prior arrangements with the relevant organizations' leadership and was assisted by leaders who introduced her to the respondents before the data collection exercise. Moreover, the researcher took the time to explain the purpose and importance of the study to the potential respondents.

Data Screening

An essential step in performing quantitative data analysis is data screening. Before the data analysis process commenced, the researcher checked for errors and established the data's validity (Pallant, 2011; DeSimone et al., 2015). According to Mertler & Reinhart (2016), the goals of data screening are to verify the accuracy of the information gathered, appraise the way in which missing data is processed, analyze the impact of extreme values, and ensure that the data and analytic processes are adequate. As a result, the researcher screened the data to (1) ensure that it was accurate, (2) find any missing data or outliers, and (3) determine whether it was sufficient and appropriate for the planned statistical analyses before applying statistical techniques to the data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2020; Hair et al., 2023).

Missing Data

Some respondents opted not to fill out the entire questionnaire since they were aware that their participation was voluntary. Kwak and Kim (2017) suggest that nonresponses, dropouts, and knowledge loss among study participants may be the cause of missing values.

Little et al. (2014) suggest that missing data are not problematic per se, it depends on how they are treated. Therefore, to address the missing data in this research, the researcher applied the ‘listwise deletion’ method (Wang & Aronow, 2023; Hong et al., 2023) and omitted those respondents with the missing data.

Outliers

Outliers are exceptional values that abnormally fall outside the general pattern of a variable distribution (Kwak and Kim, 2017). These are "unexpected anomalous values that, in the case of data-oriented towards certain rare directions, exhibit a different pattern with respect to the rest of the data" (Greco et al., 2021, p. 454).

Outliers in a normal distribution can be found in a number of ways. One approach to detect outliers involves calculating the distance between a data point and the dataset's center. This method classifies points falling outside three Standard Deviations (SD) from the mean as outliers. However, this technique is considered flawed due to the statistical sensitivity of mean and SD to outliers. A more reliable alternative utilizes the median and quartile range, which are less affected by extreme values. Furthermore, box plots serve as an effective tool for outlier identification. The analysis results, following the removal of outliers from the final dataset, are illustrated in the box plots found in Appendix F.

Statistical Assumption Tests

Part of the researcher's responsibility in statistical analysis was to ensure that the data met certain assumptions for accurate analysis and conclusion. Therefore, the researcher assessed the data for normality of data distribution, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity, as presented below.

Normality of Distribution

Statistics tests require an evaluation of the data's normality because parametric testing relies on the assumption of normal data. To ensure accurate and dependable results, it is necessary to verify the assumption of normalcy when using statistical procedures like regression analysis and correlation. Therefore, several tests were conducted to check the normality of this current study. The normal distribution was

tested using skewness and kurtosis (Demir, 2022; Fein et al., 2022). When the mean is located in the middle of the distribution, there is no skewness because the distribution is symmetrical. When the mean departs from the distribution's center, the distribution is said to be non-symmetric (skewed) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The degree to which the data vary from or approach the mean is measured by the kurtosis. It speaks to the height or flatness of the distribution's form (Fein et al., 2022). If the skewness or kurtosis of the data falls between − 1 and + 1, the data distribution is deemed normal (Mishra et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2021). Table 8 indicates that all of the skewness and kurtosis values fall between -1 and +1, suggesting that the data set is likely normal. As a result, there was no discernible departure from normalcy in this investigation.

Table 8

Skewness and Kurtosis for Normality Test

Variables	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Exemplary follower	-.615	.136	-.318	.271
Conformist follower	.057	.135	.088	.269
Pragmatic follower	.536	.135	-.739	.270
Alienated follower	.634	.137	-.351	.273
Passive follower	.395	.137	-.318	.273
Honesty	-.972	.139	.222	.278
Competence	-.593	.137	-.561	.273
Good judgment	-.986	.140	-.344	.278
Work ethic	-.923	.139	-.303	.277
Leader personality	-.431	.139	-.399	.276
Job satisfaction	-.426	.140	-.407	.279
Financial sustainability	-.060	.138	-.730	.276

Furthermore, the residuals themselves were subjected to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, a goodness of fit analysis, to verify normality. When dealing with larger sample sizes (>50 samples), the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test is a better approach

(Mishra et al., 2019). Table 8displays the results of the normality tests for the variables using K-S with Lilliefors correction. The data set is considered regularly distributed if the p-value is big ($p < 0.05$). On the other hand, the "Sig." value will be less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$) level if the assumption of normalcy has been broken.

Table 9

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests

Standardized Residual (Job Satisfaction and Follower-style Predictors)	
N	296
Test Statistic	.065
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.004[c]
Standardized Residual (Job Satisfaction and Follower-trait Predictors)	
N	297
Test Statistic	.074
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001[c]
Standardized Residual (Financial Sustainability and Follower-style Predictors)	
N	296
Test Statistic	.054
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.035[c]
Standardized Residual (Financial Sustainability and Follower-trait Predictors)	
N	291
Test Statistic	.051
Asymp, Sig. (2-tailed)	.060[c]

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.
c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

Table 9 imply that only the residuals of the regression on financial sustainability by the follower-trait predictors follow a normal distribution, $p = .060 > .05$. The *p*-values of the residuals of follower-style and follower-trait predictors of job satisfaction and the residuals of follower-style predictors of financial sustainability were .004, .001, and .035, respectively, which are less than .05 indicating the distributions are not normal. The central limit theorem states that regardless of the shape of the data, if the sample size is large enough ($n > 100$), the data distribution

tends to be normal (Ghasemi & Zahedias, 2012; Mishra et al., 2019). This suggests that the distribution of residuals from large samples will near normality in accordance with the central limit theorem. Because of the huge sample size, breaking the normalcy assumption does not lead to bias or inefficiency in regression models.

Linearity of the Data

Another important preliminary assessment was to determine the linearity of the data collected. Linearity is the assumption that there is a straight-line relationship between two or more variables. Pearson's correlation and regression analyses are appropriate when there is a linear relationship between dependent and independent variables. The linearity assumption was tested with scatterplots shown in Appendix F. All scatterplots depict linear relationships.

Testing for Homoscedasticity

The Greek terms *homos*, which means "*the same*," and *skedastikos*, which means "*able to spread or scatter*," are combined to form the word *homoscedasticity*. It is predicated on the idea that the range of scores for one variable is roughly equal to the range of values for all other variables. When the error term, or random disturbance in the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, is constant for all values of the independent variables, the situation is said to be homoscedastic. A scatterplot of residuals vs anticipated values was created to test for homoscedasticity. The scatterplot indicates (see Appendix F) that there is no discernible pattern in the distribution, meaning the residual plots' points are dispersed randomly. The homoscedasticity assumption is met. This indicates that the estimates have the lowest variance among all unbiased estimators, they converge to the correct values as the sample size grows, and they closely match the population values.

Multicollinearity Test

Significant correlation between two or more predictor variables is referred to as multicollinearity. The researcher examined the tolerances and variance inflation factors (VIF) to detect potential signs of multicollinearity. Indicators of multicollinearity may include a tolerance value below 0.1 or a VIF exceeding 10 (tolerance <.10 or VIF >10) (Hair et al., 2021). Table 10 demonstrates that all tolerance values are greater than 0.1 and the VIF values are less than 10, with 0.579 being the lowest. This suggests that there were no instances of multicollinearity issues in the data.

Table 10

Multicollinearity Test

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)		
	Exemplary follower	.851	1.176
	Conformist follower	.957	1.044
	Pragmatic follower	.845	1.183
	Alienated follower	.738	1.355
	Passive follower	.800	1.249
	Honesty	.858	1.165
	Competence	.600	1.666
	Good judgment	.601	1.664
	Work ethic	.579	1.728
Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction			
Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	Exemplary follower	.849	1.178
	Conformist follower	.952	1.050
	Pragmatic follower	.889	1.125
	Alienated follower	.715	1.398
	Passive follower	.789	1.267
	Honesty	.879	1.138
	Competence	.664	1.506
	Good judgment	.640	1.562
	Work ethic	.606	1.649
Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability			

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Fernandez et al. (2016) posit that demographic data collection generally arises from a need to make data-driven decisions. The demographic characteristics of the respondents included gender, age, education, employment status, job position, and years of service. Table 11 summarizes all the collected demographic data.

Table 11

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Classification	Number(N)	Percentage
Gender	Male	239	71.9
	Female	77	23.5
	Missing	15	4.6
Age	18-25 years	11	3.4
	26-30 years	36	11.0
	31-44 years	119	36.4
	45-54 years	95	29.1
	55 years and older	50	15.3
	Missing System	16	4.9
Education	High school/secondary school	12	3.7
	College	28	8.6
	College Graduate	159	48.6
	Post-Graduate	117	35.8
	Missing System	11	3.4
Employment Status	Regular	200	61.2
	Contractual	111	33.9
	Missing System	16	4.9
Job Position	Departmental Head/Supervisor	57	17.4
	Treasury	34	10.4
	Secretariat	18	5.5
	Health worker	8	2.4
	Teaching staff	27	8.3
	Clergy	124	37.9
	Office Staff	20	6.1
	Missing System	39	11.9
Years of Service	Less than one year	19	5.8
	2-5 Years	69	21.1
	6-9 Years	45	13.8
	10-13 Years	56	17.1
	14-17 Years	32	9.8
	18-21 Years	31	9.5
	21-30 Years	41	12.5
	More than 31 Years	23	7.0
	Missing System	11	3.4

According to Table 11, the majority of the respondents, 235 (71.9%), were male, and 77 (23.5%) were female. Widanti (2023) asserts that gender equality has probably been one of the most important conversations we have had as a society over the last century. Despite gender being a common conversation, not many organizations, including the Seventh-day Adventist Church, have achieved the

required balance. Widanti (2023) further submits that it is essential to work towards gender equality since it is a fundamental value of the nation's development and is essential to its social and economic advancement. Stated differently, achieving gender equality is crucial for humanity to attain sustainable development and serves as a benchmark for assessing the advancement of social civilization.

According to the Office of Archives and Statistics Research [ASTR] (2021), there are more women in the world Adventist church than men. Also, in the East-Central Africa Division of Seventh-day Adventists, where Kenya falls, the number of females is 60% compared to 40% of males. Despite the higher representation of women within the Seventh-day Adventist Church in Kenya, the employment statistics reveal a disparity, with male employees constituting 71.9% of the workforce in the Seventh-day Adventist organizations and institutions involved in this study, compared to 23.5% female employees.

The data presented in Table 11 reveals that nearly 50% of the respondents, specifically employees aged 18 to 40 years, are young, suggesting that a significant portion of the workforce within Seventh-day Adventist organizations and institutions is both youthful and active. According to Table 11, 119 respondents (36.4%) were aged between 31 and 44 years, 95 respondents (29.1%) were aged between 45 and 54 years, and 50 respondents (15.3%) were over the age of 55. Additionally, there were 36 workers (11%) within the age range of 26 to 30 years. The study's lowest representation, comprising 11 participants (3.4%), was within the age bracket of 18 to 25 years. As the saying goes, the youth are the future leaders. Any organization with a youthful workforce has secured its future.

Table 11 also provides the followers' educational attainment. 159 people, or 48% of the study's respondents, had college degrees, indicating that not only could

they write and read English fluently but also had a good understanding of the subject matter and could, therefore, share their knowledge and understanding. A probable reason for the relatively high education of the respondents was a policy in the Seventh-dayAdventist church in Kenya that pushed clergy members to further their education by returning to school, in 2003. The move to take the clergy for further education is in sync with what Demozie and Dessie (2022) suggest: leaders who are qualified for their roles perform better than those who do not qualify for their roles.

This category was closely followed by 117 respondents holding post-graduate degrees at a rate of (35.8%) and college certificate holders were 28 (8.6%). The respondents with no college certificates stood at 12 (3.7%). The probable cause of the clergy with no college education is because the Adventist church contracts untrained clergy to help reach or shepherd flock in places where the clergy cannot access. These clergy are referred to as Global Mission Pioneers within the Adventist circles.

Regarding employment status, the majority of the respondents were regular employees at 200 (61.2%) and contractual employees at 111 (33.9%). A study conducted by Baqi and Indradewa (2021) indicates that there is no difference in employment status when it comes to employee job satisfaction as opposed to financial compensation. That means that the contractual employees can be as satisfied at their jobs just as much as the permanent employees. Financial compensation is what sets apart the permanent and contractual employees in any organization, including Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

The clergy comprised the majority of the respondents of the study, at 124 (37.9%), followed by the departmental heads and supervisors, at 57 (17.4%). This was closely followed by the people working at the treasury at 34 (10.4%), the teaching staff at 27 (8.3), office staff at 20 (6.1%), secretariat at 18 (5.5%), finally, the health

workers were the fewest respondents of the study at 8 (2.4%). One possible explanation for the high percentage of clergy respondents could be that a large proportion of Seventh-day Adventist employees are clergy. The possible reason for the lowest number of health workers respondents could be because there are few health facilities within the organizations and institutions under study. The other reason was that the health workers were busy, and not many of them could find the time to participate in the study.

On the years of service, majority of the respondents, 69 (21.1%), had worked for between 2-5 years. This could be due to the fact that the majority of the respondents are young people with little service record. However, majority of the respondents had work for at least 6 years in the Seventh-day Adventist church. Fifty-six respondents have worked for 10 -13 years (17.1%) followed next, 6-9 years (13.8%), 21-30 years (12.5%), 14-17 years (9.8%), and 18-21 years (9.5%). A few (7%) had worked for more than 31 years of service.

Results and Discussions

Research Question 1

What are the followership styles and traits of Seventh-day Adventist organizational employees in Kenya? This question sought to understand followers' different styles and traits in Kenya's Seventh-day Adventist church organizations and institutions. The descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) present the results in Tables 12 and 13 below.

Followership Styles

Table 12 summarizes the mean scores for the five types of followership styles in the Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya. Respondents were asked to use a five-point Likert scale (ranging from "Always" to "Never") to indicate their typical behavior in the workplace. The mean scores were interpreted based on guidelines from Nyutu et al. (2021); see Table 5. The findings in Table 12 indicate the different followership behaviors depicted by the respondents: exemplary followers (M = 4.33, SD = .47), conformists (M = 3.11, SD = .43), pragmatic (M = 2.49, SD = 1.25), passive (M = 2.34, SD = .74), and Alienated (M = 1.96, SD = .66).

Standard deviation indicates how much the responses typically deviate from the mean. A low standard deviation suggests that the responses are clustered closely around the mean, indicating a consensus among respondents (Fein et al., 2022). In this case, standard deviations ranging from 0.43 to 1.00 are relatively low, suggesting a consensus among respondents. However, a standard deviation of 1.25 suggests some response variability, particularly with the pragmatic followership style. This variability might be due to differing individual views of pragmatic followership.

Table 12

Followership Style

Styles	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Exemplary follower	323	4.33	.48	Behavior occurs everytime.
Conformist follower	326	3.11	.43	Behavior occurs sometimes, not frequently.
Pragmatic follower	325	2.49	1.25	Behavior is rare
Passive follower	316	2.34	.75	Behavior is rare
Alienated follower	317	1.96	.66	Behavior is rare

Exemplary followership fits into the 'behavior occurs every time' category. According to Kelley (1988), exemplary followers are highly engaged, active and independent minded. They think critically, actively participate, take initiative, and constructively challenge leadership when necessary, contributing positively to organizational goals. This suggests that Seventh-day Adventist denominational employees are consistently engaged in the organization's operations and are analytical thinkers who play a crucial role to the success of its institutions. Ganu and Razafiarivonvy (2023) define excellent followers as above-average performers who are genuinely committed to the organization's goal and values. Hence, if they believe the leader has deviated from the proper path, they will point out contradictions in his or her behavior or policies.

Interestingly, conformist followership is ‘sometimes’ exhibited in Seventh-day Adventist organizations. This means that at times, members of an organization may hesitate to go against their leaders' opinions and follow orders without questioning. Undeniably, obedience and a clear chain of command are essential principles in faith-based organizations such as the Seventh-day Adventist Church (Karakostas & Zizzo,

2016). However, this kind of followership can hinder independent thinking and the generation of new ideas, ultimately leading to blind obedience and conformity (Ertas Capan & Uzuncarsili, 2022). The respondents' acknowledgment of exhibiting occasional conformist followership behavior indicates their acceptance of personal responsibility and critical thinking in their actions within the organization. This is an important point of reflection for the management of Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya, as it shows the potential for fostering a culture of critical thinking and empowerment among employees.

Table 12 also shows the respondents are ‘rarely’ pragmatic, passive, or alienated followers. Thus, employees do not often engage in these behaviors, suggesting that exemplary followership is the predominant style among employees. These findings can also be explained from a Christian perspective, which emphasizes giving our utmost effort in everything we do as if it were for the Lord rather than for people (Col 3:23).

Followership Traits

Table 13 indicates the followership traits of the followers in the Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya and their strengths.

Table 13

Followership Traits

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Good judgment	305	4.70	.37	Very high. Follower consistently makes the right choices
Work ethic	308	4.68	.36	Very high. Follower consistently adheres to the work policy
Competence	317	4.49	.44	Very high. Follower consistently delivers on the assigned duties every time
Honesty	306	4.35	.65	Very high. Follower consistently demonstrates honesty in all situations.

In contrast, the traits associated with followership yielded nearly identical mean results. Specifically, good judgment exhibited a mean of 4.7 with a standard deviation of 0.37, work ethic had a mean of 4.6 and a standard deviation of 0.35, competence showed a mean of 4.4 with a standard deviation of 0.43, and honesty recorded a mean of 4.3 with a standard deviation of 0.64.

The previously indicated follower style (exemplary follower) may account for the high demonstration of good characteristics. The majority of the followers displayed good follower behavior. Some acknowledged characteristics of excellent followers are competence, honesty, autonomy, critical thinking, sound judgment, and a strong work ethic. These attributes are all positive. Ganu and Razafiarivony (2023) opined that organizations today require followers who think through directives, assess potential implications, and determine the best course of action. As a result, followers collaborate to attain a common goal, particularly one that is aligned with the vision of the leader.

Research Question 2

Is there a significant relationship between leader personality and organizational performance measured by a) workers' job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya? Pearson's correlation is appropriate for analyzing the relationship between two continuous variables (Hair et al., 2023; Muijs, 2022).

Table 14 shows a moderately significant positive association between leadership personality and one organizational performance metric, employee job satisfaction, with a coefficient of $r=0.44$ ($p<0.001$). However, the association between leadership personality and another organizational success metric, financial sustainability is relatively weak ($r=0.27$, $p<0.001$). As a result, the null hypothesis

which asserts that leadership personality does not influence organizational performance, is rejected because the Pearson correlation tests show a substantial association between the three variables.

Table 14

Relationship between Leader Personality and Organizational Performance

		Job satisfaction	Financial sustainability
Leader Personality	Pearson Correlation	.439**	.271**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	293	296

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

Quality, productivity, and performance of employees are determined by workplace contentment and discontent (Gazi, 2020). A positive attitude toward employment is reflected in job satisfaction. Kiarie et al. (2017) elucidated the importance of the relationship between a leader's personality and the job satisfaction of followers, as well as the financial sustainability of the organization. They proposed that human potential constitutes the most valuable organizational resource in the contemporary corporate world and emphasized the necessity for each organization to have a leader with a strong personality.

Furthermore, Kiarie et al. (2017) posited that there is a strong correlation between employees' job satisfaction and a leader's responsiveness. A flexible boss who responds quickly to issues clears up uncertainty among staff members and boosts job satisfaction. Because it affects important employee-related factors like absenteeism and turnover, employee job satisfaction is essential to an organizational performance.

Job satisfaction among employees and an effective leader's disposition are two elements that are seen to be essential to an organization's success. A competent leader

gives the group direction and guides followers toward achieving objectives. Similarly, happy workers are more inclined to put in extra effort and support the company's goals (Kiarie et al., 2017).

Research Question 3

Which followership styles best predict organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya? This question aimed to identify the followership styles that best predict organizational performance. Table 15 displays the results of the multiple regression analysis examining followership styles and organizational performance first measured by the followers' job satisfaction. Table 16 displays the results of multiple regression analyses examining the followership styles and organizational performance measured by financial sustainability of the Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

Table 15

Regression Analysis of Followership Styles and Job Satisfaction

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.355[a]	.126	.123	.53889
2	.424[b]	.180	.174	.52304
3	.458[c]	.210	.202	.51422

a. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower
b. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated
c. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated, Pragmatic

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	12.026	1	12.026	41.412	.000[b]
	Residual	83.345	287	.290		
	Total	95.372	288			
2	Regression	17.131	2	8.565	31.310	.000[c]
	Residual	78.241	286	.274		
	Total	95.372	288			
3	Regression	20.012	3	6.671	25.227	.000[d]
	Residual	75.360	285	.264		
	Total	95.372	288			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational performance-job satisfaction
b. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower
c. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated
d. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated, Pragmatic

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.224	.290		7.664	.000		
	Exemplary	.427	.066	.355	6.435	.000	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	3.121	.350		8.920	.000		
	Exemplary	.320	.069	.267	4.648	.000	.872	1.146
	Alienated	-.229	.053	-.248	-4.320	.000	.872	1.146
3	(Constant)	3.113	.344		9.051	.000		
	Exemplary	.295	.068	.246	4.332	.000	.861	1.161
	Alienated	-.279	.054	-.301	-5.136	.000	.805	1.242
	Pragmatic	.085	.026	.181	3.301	.001	.923	1.083

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance- Job satisfaction

The regression results using the stepwise method indicated that the model explained 20.2% and was a significant predictor of workers' job satisfaction, F (3, 285) = 25.227, $p < .001$. Exemplary follower ($\beta = .295$, $p < .001$), alienated ($\beta = -.279$, $p < .001$), and pragmatic ($\beta = .085$, $p = .001$) contributed significantly to the model. In contrast, conformist ($\beta = .093$, $p = .081$) and passive ($\beta = .045$, $p = .438$)

followership did not contribute significantly, such that 12.3% of the variance in the workers' job satisfaction is accounted for by exemplary follower style, 5.1% by alienated style, and 2.8% by pragmatic style.

The β values of the significant predictor variables imply that the followers who are exemplary, less alienated, and pragmatic tend to be more satisfied in their jobs. The final predictive model for job satisfaction among Seventh-day Adventist workers is represented as $Y = .295X_1 - .279X_2 + .085X_3 + 3.113$, where X_1 is exemplary followership style, X_2 is alienated followership style, and X_3 is pragmatic followership style.

Based on the findings above, the null hypothesis which proposed that follower styles and organizational success in Kenyan Seventh-day Adventist organizations do not significantly correlate is rejected. A quantitative study on followership types and job satisfaction among US K–12 teachers was carried out by Mimick (2018). The outcomes matched those of this investigation. The findings of his study revealed that while educators exhibiting an excellent followership style report better levels of job happiness, followers who adhere to the norm had statistically significant mean job satisfaction rates that were lower than those of all other follower types. Hinić and Brulić (2017) also corroborated the findings of this study by noting that pragmatists (39.8%) and exempalry followers (58.7%) were the most common kinds of followership. While pragmatists placed more weight on extrinsic aspects of work, exempalary followers attributed greater value to intrinsic qualities and reported a higher job satisfaction rate. Active engagement is connected with both work aspects and job satisfaction, while independent thinking is correlated with intrinsic features of work and job satisfaction. The findings also indicate that a higher level of engagement was predictive of a higher level of job satisfaction, especially when combined with

economic contentment. The other empirical study that supports these findings was conducted by Favara (2009), who found that there is a statistically significant relationship between exemplary followers and job satisfaction.

Regression on Financial Sustainability

Table 16 below displays the results of the multiple regression analysis examining followership styles and financial sustainability.

Table 16

Regression Analysis of Followership Styles and Financial Sustainability

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.384[a]	.148	.145	.70836
2	.409[b]	.167	.161	.70150

a. Predictors: (Constant), Alienated
b. Predictors: (Constant), Alienated, Passive follower

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	25.319	1	25.319	50.458	.000[b]
	Residual	146.016	291	.502		
	Total	171.335	292			
2	Regression	28.626	2	14.313	29.086	.000[c]
	Residual	142.709	290	.492		
	Total	171.335	292			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance-Financial sustainability
b. Predictors: (Constant), Alienated
c. Predictors: (Constant), Alienated, Passive follower

Coefficients[a]

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.598	.130		35.337	.000		
	Alienated	-.455	.064	-.384	-7.103	.000	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	4.831	.157		30.724	.000		
	Alienated	-.385	.069	-.326	-5.600	.000	.849	1.178
	Passive follower	-.159	.061	-.151	-2.593	.010	.849	1.178

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance-Financial sustainability

The negative B-values, alienated followers (ß=-.385, p <.001) and passive followers (ß=-.159, p <.01) indicate inverse relationships. This suggests that a decrease in alienation and passivity among followers is associated with improved

financial sustainability of organizations. The model predicts the financial sustainability of the organization by 16.1% (F (2, 290) = 29.086, p <.001).

As demonstrated in Table 16, the followership styles of exemplary and conformist were excluded. This finding implies that followers who are less alienated and passive serve as key predictors of an organization's financial sustainability.

Research Question 4

Which follower traits best predict organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya? This question aimed to identify followership traits that best predict organizational performance. Table 17 presents the findings of a multiple regression analysis that investigates the relationship between followership traits and follower job satisfaction. In contrast, Table 18 illustrates the results concerning followership traits and organizational financial sustainability.

Table 17

Regression Analysis of Followership Traits and Job Satisfaction

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.371[a]	.138	.134	.52803

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.624	1	11.624	41.689	.000[b]
	Residual	72.771	261	.279		
	Total	84.395	262			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance-Job satisfaction
b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence

Coefficients[a]

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.728	.374		4.623	.000		
	Competence	.529	.082	.371	6.457	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance-Job satisfaction

The follower trait that best predicts job satisfaction of followers according to the model summary of Table 17 above is competence (adj. r^2 = 13.4). Thus, compentence is a significant predictor of followers' job satisfaction, F (1, 261) = 27.9, ß=.529, *p*<.00.1). Empirical research has repeatedly shown that competence is a multidimensional construct that includes knowledge, skills, talents, attitudes, personality characteristics, reasons, and qualities (Edward & Kaban, 2022; Cascio, 2013; Dessler, 2011). Turner et al. (2017) relate competence to quality orientation, arguing that people with high levels of competence emphasize quality in their work. According to quality orientation theory, competent individuals' behaviors revolve around the pursuit of excellence and the constant delivery of high-quality results. Thus, competence is more than just a measure of capability; it is inextricably linked to a commitment to sustaining high standards and ongoing progress in performance.

Kumar et al. (2019) also contend that competency is a critical answer to organizational and human resource concerns, particularly when it comes to low employee satisfaction and performance. Their study backs up the findings, showing that competence as a follower trait is the most important predictor of employee work happiness. Improving individual competencies within the workforce can address the difficulties of poor worker satisfaction, resulting in better organizational outcomes.

Gani (2018) examined the effects of competence, work motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment on the performance of 176 professors at a private Islamic university in Makassar, Indonesia. The results revealed that competence has a favorable and considerable impact on lecturers' performance, along with motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Gani's (2018) findings support the results of the current study, which states that competence—especially as a follower trait—is a significant predictor of job satisfaction. This

reinforces the argument that enhancing competence within the workforce is essential for improving both individual and organizational outcomes.

In an effort to better understand the variables influencing Muslim workers' job satisfaction and performance in the context of hospitality management, Saban et al. (2020) conducted a study. The study aimed to assess how these outcomes were affected by Islamic work culture, competency, compensation, and work ethic. According to Saban et al. (2020), Islamic work ethic, competence, remuneration, and work culture among Muslim employees working in the hotel business are significant indicators of job satisfaction and employee performance.

Based on the findings above, the null hypothesis, which stated that there is no significant correlation between follower traits (that is, competence) and job satisfaction, is rejected. In contrast, the null hypothesis that claims that followership traits such as honesty, good judgment, and work ethic have no significant relationship with job satisfaction is accepted.

Also, Table 18 shows that the follower trait that most effectively predicts financial sustainability is good judgment. This is indicated by an adjusted R^2 of .040. Thus, the good judgement of followers' trait significantly contributes to financial sustainability, $F (1, 266) = 11.989$, $p < .001$; ß = .455.

Table 18

Regression Analysis of Followership Traits and Financial Sustainability

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.208[a]	.043	.040	.75958

a. Predictors: (Constant), Good judgment

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.918	1	6.918	11.989	.001[b]
	Residual	153.474	266	.577		
	Total	160.391	267			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance-Financial sustainability
b. Predictors: (Constant), Good judgment

Coefficients[a]

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.566	.623		2.512	.013		
	Good judgment	.455	.131	.208	3.463	.001	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Performance- Financial sustainability

Research Question 5

Do followers' demographic attributes moderate the link between followership styles/traits and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya? A moderated regression analysis was carried out for the investigation and Tables 19 and 20 show the results.

Table 19

Demographic Influence on Follower Styles and Job Satisfaction

Coefficients[a]					
Model 1	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Interaction between exemplary follower style and gender	-.202	.162	-.677	-1.245	.214
Interaction between pragmatic follower style and gender	.035	.065	.095	.543	.587
Interaction between alienated follower style and gender	.058	.113	.098	.519	.604
Interaction between exemplary follower style and age group	-.034	.032	-.059	-1.054	.293
Interaction between pragmatic follower style and age group	.012	.033	.021	.357	.721
Interaction between alienated follower style and age group	-.010	.031	-.018	-.314	.753
Interaction between exemplary follower style and education	-.037	.032	-.064	-1.161	.247
Interaction between pragmatic follower style and education	-.028	.034	-.047	-.813	.417
Interaction between alienated follower style and education	-.041	.027	-.084	-1.503	.134
Interaction between exemplary follower style and employment status	-.171	.145	-.626	-1.173	.242
Interaction between pragmatic follower style and employment status	-.094	.056	-.246	-1.667	.097
Interaction between alienated follower style and employment status	-.027	.104	-.048	-.262	.793
Interaction between exemplary follower style and years of service	-.014	.031	-.025	-.452	.652
Interaction between pragmatic follower style and years of service	-.004	.033	-.007	-.122	.903
Interaction between alienated follower style and years of service	.019	.032	.034	.615	.539

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Table 20

Demographic Influence on Follower Styles and Financial Sustainability

Coefficients[a]					
Model 1	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Interaction between alienated follower style and gender	-.127	.138	-.163	-.922	.357
Interaction between passive follower style and gender	-.141	.133	-.213	-1.061	.290
Interaction between alienated follower style and age group	-.041	.038	-.058	-1.074	.284
Interaction between passive follower style and age group	.007	.044	.009	.165	.869
Interaction between alienated follower style and education	-.031	.035	-.047	-.866	.387
Interaction between passive follower style and education	-.019	.039	-.028	-.496	.620
Interaction between alienated follower style and years of service	-.021	.039	-.029	-.551	.582
Interaction between passive follower style and years of service	-.017	.042	-.022	-.392	.696
Interaction between alienated follower style and employment status	.064	.128	.086	.498	.619
Interaction between passive follower style and employment status	.132	.130	.218	1.015	.311

a. Dependent Variable: Financial Sustainability

According to the findings presented in Tables 19 and 20, the null hypothesis, which posits that followers' demographic characteristics do not affect the relationship between followership and organizational performance, is accepted. Thus, demographic factors such as age and gender do not influence the connection between followership styles and a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability within Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

These findings confirm a study conducted by Nguyen et al. (2020), who investigated the impact of various intervening variables, such as age, gender, and education level, on job satisfaction. Their study found that none of the intervening variables had a significant impact on job satisfaction, indicating that these demographic factors do not play a decisive role in determining how satisfied

employees are with their jobs. Eastham (2017) researched the relationship between follower and leader similarities, which went beyond personality qualities and included factors such as age, gender, and tenure, as well as how they affected job satisfaction. The study found that demographic similarities could be linked to job satisfaction, which contradicts the findings of this study. One study that had both supporting and conflicting results to this study was conducted by Reuben (2017). His study investigated the effect of gender disparities on job satisfaction. The results showed that gender had no significant effect on job satisfaction. However, job satisfaction was positively connected with respondents' age and experience, implying that these qualities may contribute to higher satisfaction levels in the workplace.

Both Asadi et al. (2008) and Tella et al. (2007) conducted empirical research that demonstrated how demographic parameters such as age, gender, and experience affect overall job satisfaction. According to their research, these variables greatly impact employees' satisfaction with their jobs. Furthermore, they discovered a substantial relationship between length of service experience and job happiness, implying that more experienced employees report higher satisfaction levels. These results were contrary to the findings of this study.

Gazi et al.'s (2021) findings were also different from the researcher’s findings. According to their proposal, the following elements—remuneration, status, advancement, security, working conditions, employer behavior, open communication, workplace autonomy, rewards for hard work, connections with coworkers, and participation in decision-making—are markers of job satisfaction. Aside from this, factors that significantly impact job satisfaction include an employee's age, education, experiences, and marital status.

Research Question 6

Does leadership personality moderate the relationship between followership styles/traits and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya? Research question six was addressed in two parts. First, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate the moderating effect of leadership personality on the relationship between followership styles and job satisfaction. The moderation analyses were carried out in three steps (models), as shown in Table 21.

Table 21

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of the Moderating Role of Personality in Followership Styles and Job Satisfaction

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.575	.404		6.376	<.001
	Exemplary follower	.289	.068	.242	4.249	<.001
	Conformist follower	.147	.072	.112	2.045	.042
	Pragmatic follower	.067	.027	.145	2.473	.014
	Alienated follower	-.279	.059	-.296	-4.732	<.001
	Passive follower	.069	.047	.089	1.480	.140
2	(Constant)	1.385	.417		3.319	.001
	Exemplary follower	.199	.065	.167	3.071	.002
	Conformist follower	.095	.068	.072	1.399	.163
	Pragmatic follower	.063	.025	.137	2.511	.013
	Alienated follower	-.198	.056	-.210	-3.515	<.001
	Passive follower	.069	.043	.089	1.591	.113
	Leader Personality	.379	.058	.357	6.585	<.001
3	(Constant)	1.216	3.187		.382	.703
	Exemplary follower	-.298	.479	-.250	-.621	.535
	Conformist follower	-.131	.587	-.100	-.223	.824
	Pragmatic follower	.138	.205	.300	.671	.503
	Alienated follower	1.301	.439	1.382	2.961	.003
	Passive follower	-.043	.333	-.055	-.128	.898
	Leader Personality	.452	.754	.426	.600	.549
	Product of exemplary follower & personality	.112	.117	.690	.961	.337
	Product of conformist follower & personality	.044	.134	.212	.328	.743
	Product of passive follower & personality	.031	.078	.179	.396	.692
	Product of alienated follower & personality	-.357	.104	-1.541	-3.425	<.001
	Product of pragmatist follower & personality	-.018	.047	-.170	-.371	.711

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
R^2	.22	.32	.38
F	15.31	21.94	14.82
df1	5	1	5
df2	276	275	270
Change in R^2	.217	.107	.053
Change in F	15.31	43.36	4.57

Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

The first model (Model 1) included the five followership styles as predictors, with job satisfaction as the dependent variable. This model was statistically significant, explaining 22% of the variance in job satisfaction ($R^2 = .22$, $p < .001$). The second regression model (Model 2) included leader personality as an additional independent variable (predictor), with job satisfaction as the dependent variable. The model remained significant with a moderate increase in the change in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .107$; $F(1, 275) = 43.363$, $p < .001$). In the third model, the moderation effects, also known as interaction variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Hefner, 2017; Hair et al., 2021), were computed as products of the independent variables (followership styles), and the moderator variable (leader personality) was entered into the equation (Model 3).

Incorporating the interaction term resulted in a change in R^2, $\Delta R^2 = .053$, $\Delta F(1, 270) = 8.14$, $p < .001$, indicating that leadership personality significantly moderated the relationship between followership styles and job satisfaction. This finding supports the presence of a moderating effect. However, a careful examination of Table 21 reveals that leadership personality only mediates the relationship between alienated followership style and job satisfaction ($\beta = -.357$, $SE = .104$, $p < .001$). The negative interaction coefficient suggests that leadership personality has a significant negative moderating effect on the relationship between alienated followership and job satisfaction. Hence, the stronger the leaders' personality, the weaker the relationship between alienated followership and job satisfaction.

Thuo, Kahuthia, and Gachuru (2024), who conducted their research in Kenya, found that leadership personality traits—particularly those associated with transformational leadership—can positively impact organizational performance. Their study, which examined the influence of leadership style on the Kajiado County Government, highlighted that effective leadership characterized by strong

competencies, employee empowerment, and inclusive decision-making significantly enhanced organizational performance.

Elewa (2016) investigated how similar personalities of followers and leaders affected their performance and job satisfaction. According to the study, followers tended to perform better and express greater satisfaction with their supervisors when they and leaders had similar personality traits. This suggests that organizational outcomes can be positively impacted by personality alignment. According to this study, personality alignment of both the leader and follower is crucial in realizing organizational performance.

The second part in addressing research question six was to examine if leadership personality traits moderated the relationship between followership styles and financial sustainability among Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

Table 22 presents the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

As seen in Table 22 (Model 3), the interaction effects of leaders' personality and various followership styles- exemplary follower (β = -.237, SE = 174, p = .174), conformist follower (β = -.006, SE = 182, p = .975), pragmatic follower (β = -.084, SE = 072, p = .243), alienated follower (β = -.044, SE = 156, p = .776), and passive follower (β = -.002, SE = 117, p = .987) on financial sustainability (Model 3) were not statistically significant. This indicates that a leader's personality does not significantly moderate the relationship between followership styles and financial sustainability.

Table 22

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Leader Personality Role in Followership Styles and Financial Sustainability

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.331	.554		9.631	<.001
	Exemplary follower	.013	.094	.008	.137	.891
	Conformist follower	-.159	.099	-.091	-1.613	.108
	Pragmatic follower	-.017	.036	-.026	-.454	.650
	Alienated follower	-.413	.080	-.339	-5.180	<.001
	Passive follower	-.144	.065	-.138	-2.224	.027
2	(Constant)	4.466	.599		7.459	<.001
	Exemplary follower	-.058	.095	-.036	-.611	.542
	Conformist follower	-.194	.097	-.111	-1.992	.047
	Pragmatic follower	-.019	.036	-.030	-.527	.599
	Alienated follower	-.360	.080	-.295	-4.511	<.001
	Passive follower	-.147	.064	-.141	-2.318	.021
	Leader Personality	.283	.082	.199	3.434	<.001
3	(Constant)	-1.069	4.622		-.231	.817
	Exemplary follower	.908	.714	.564	1.272	.205
	Conformist follower	-.161	.786	-.092	-.205	.837
	Pragmatic follower	.343	.308	.549	1.112	.267
	Alienated follower	-.197	.657	-.162	-.301	.764
	Passive follower	-.130	.498	-.125	-.262	.793
	Leader Personality	1.630	1.101	1.147	1.481	.140
	Product of exemplary follower & personality	-.237	.174	-1.086	-1.362	.174
	Product of conformist follower & personality	-.006	.182	-.020	-.031	.975
	Product of pragmatic follower & personality	-.084	.072	-.595	-1.170	.243
	Product of alienated follower & personality	-.044	.156	-.149	-.284	.776
	Product of passive follower & personality	-.002	.117	-.008	-.017	.987

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
R^2	.177	.210	.220
F	11.88	12.25	6.97
df1	5	1	5
df2	277	276	271
Change in R^2	.177	.034	.010
Change in F	11.88	11.79	.703

Dependent Variable: Financial Sustainability

Table 23 also presents the hierarchical multiple regression analysis examining the moderating effect of leadership personality on the relationship between followership traits and financial sustainability. As seen in Table 23 (Model 3), the interaction effects of leaders' personality and various followership traits— honesty (β = .000, SE = 158, p = .999), competence (β = -.250, SE = 295, p = .398), good judgement (β = -.188, SE = 357, p = .600) and work ethics (β = -.366, SE = 358, p = .307), on financial sustainability (Model 3) were not statistically significant. This indicates that a leader's personality does not significantly moderate the relationship between followership traits and financial sustainability.

Table 23

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Leader Personality Role in Followership Traits and Financial Sustainability

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.142	.742		1.538	.125
	Honesty	.056	.082	.045	.691	.490
	Competence	.024	.144	.013	.169	.866
	Good judgment	.382	.165	.176	2.319	.021
	Work ethic	.090	.176	.040	.512	.609
2	(Constant)	.713	.735		.969	.333
	Honesty	.029	.080	.023	.365	.715
	Competence	-.098	.144	-.051	-.680	.497
	Good judgment	.307	.162	.142	1.893	.059
	Work ethic	.094	.172	.042	.546	.586
	Leader Personality	.339	.094	.233	3.593	<.001
3	(Constant)	-.548	5.324		-.103	.918
	Honesty	.015	.671	.012	.022	.982
	Competence	.939	1.227	.489	.765	.445
	Good judgment	1.102	1.482	.508	.744	.458
	Work ethic	-1.410	1.478	-.623	-.954	.341
	Leader Personality	.626	1.306	.429	.479	.632
	Honesty x Personality	.000	.158	.001	.001	.999
	Competence x Personality	-.250	.295	-1.096	-.847	.398
	Judgement x Personality	-.188	.357	-.791	-.525	.600
	Ethic x Personality	.366	.358	1.489	1.023	.307

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
R^2	.050	.096	.101
F	3.43	5.45	3.19
df1	4	1	4
df2	259	258	254
Change in R^2	.050	.045	.006
Change in F	3.43	12.91	.419

Dependent Variable: Financial Sustainability

Table 24 also presents the hierarchical multiple regression analysis examining how leadership personality moderates the relationship between followership traits and job satisfaction of Seventh-day Adventist employees in Kenya. As seen in Table 24 (Model 3), the interaction effects of leaders' personality and various followership traits— honesty (β = .180, SE = 104, p = .085), competence (β = .018, SE = 192, p = .975), good judgement (β = .406, SE = 232, p = .082) and work ethics (β = -.009, SE = 231, p = .968), on financial sustainability (Model 3) were not statistically significant. This indicates that a leader's personality does not significantly moderate the relationship between followership traits and job satisfaction.

Table 24

Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Leader Personality Role in Followership Traits and Job Satisfaction

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.513	.503		3.005	.003
	Honesty	.080	.057	.088	1.410	.160
	Competence	.440	.107	.309	4.129	<.001
	Good judgment	.216	.116	.139	1.871	.063
	Work ethic	-.160	.124	-.097	-1.287	.199
2	(Constant)	1.000	.472		2.118	.035
	Honesty	.052	.053	.057	.982	.327
	Competence	.271	.102	.190	2.658	.008
	Good judgment	.144	.107	.093	1.342	.181
	Work ethic	-.172	.115	-.105	-1.493	.137
	Leader Personality	.424	.064	.392	6.652	<.001
3	(Constant)	12.143	3.430		3.541	<.001
	Honesty	-.690	.442	-.753	-1.562	.119
	Competence	.192	.805	.135	.239	.812
	Good judgment	-1.508	.967	-.972	-1.560	.120
	Work ethic	-.115	.958	-.070	-.120	.904
	Leader Personality	-2.327	.840	-2.151	-2.770	.006
	Honesty x Personality	.180	.104	1.215	1.732	.085
	Competence x Personality	.018	.192	.108	.094	.925
	Judgement x Personality	.406	.232	2.344	1.746	.082
	Ethic x Personality	-.009	.231	-.052	-.040	.968

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
R^2	.150	.276	.314
F	11.29	19.40	12.79
df1	4	1	4
df2	256	255	251
Change in R^2	.150	.126	.039
Change in F	11.29	44.25	3.55

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Based on the findings presented in Tables 21 to 24, the null hypothesis, which posited that leadership personality does not moderate the relationship between followership styles/traits and organizational performance—measured by a) job

satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya is accepted, except in the case of the alienated followership style and job satisfaction.

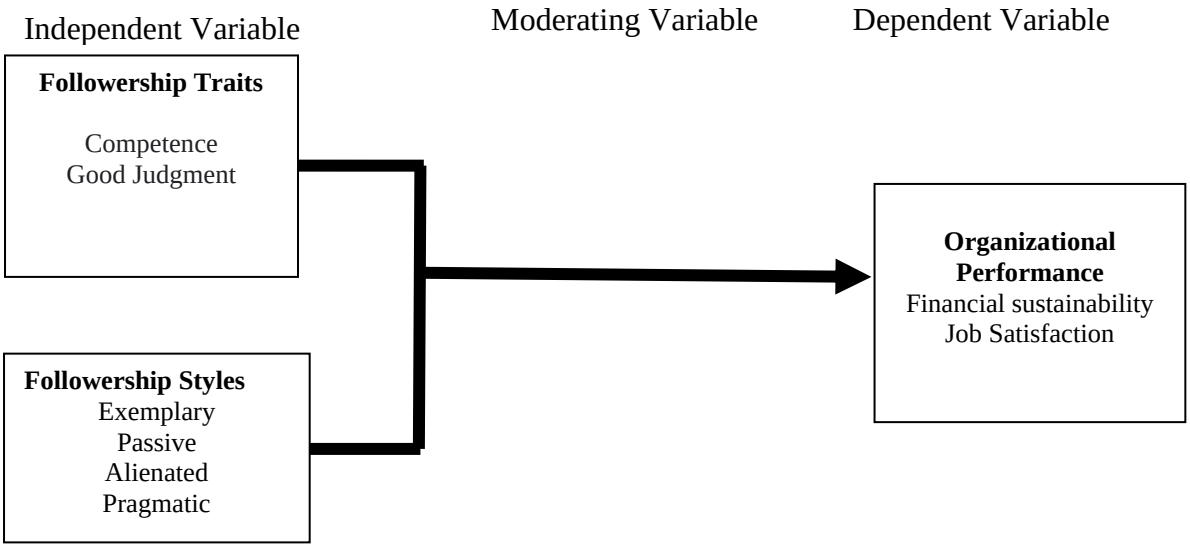
Dulebohn and his associates explain that the relationship between followership and leadership can be explained well using the Leader-Member exchange theory. They argue that relationships between leaders and followers, which are impacted by traits like competence, conscientiousness, and agreeableness have an impact on organizational results (Dulebohn et al., 2012). In contrast, Meindl et al. (1985) opined that although a lot of research emphasizes the advantages of transformational leadership qualities, several studies question the direct correlation between organizational performance and leadership personality. The "romance of leadership" idea, for example, contends that organizations frequently credit charismatic leaders with success, even when other elements are more important. This viewpoint suggests that the apparent influence of a leader's personality on output might be exaggerated (Meindl et al., 1985). This demonstrates the complexity of organizational performance, which may be impacted by a number of contextual factors, followership attributes, leadership style, and organizational effectiveness. Positive correlations are therefore frequently observed, although they are not always applicable and may not be true in all circumstances.

Proposed Conceptual Framework

Based on the findings of this study, Figure 3 below illustrates the proposed conceptual framework. This refined framework reflects a more focused model that explains the followership constructs that are relevant to job satisfaction and financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

Figure 2

Proposed Conceptual Framework Based on the Results of the Study



The model shows that there is a correlation between specific followershp styles, followership traits and organizational outcomes such of job satisfaction and organizational financial sustainability. Competence and good judgment are important attributes that promotes organizational performance.

Effective followers use their composite knowledge, skills, talents, and other traits to contribute to the overall productivity of the organization. Follower competencies extend beyond individual tasks to encompass broader organizational goals, fostering innovation, adaptability, and collaborative problem-solving within teams. Good judgment, as a crucial aspect of follower competencies, involves not only making sound decisions but also recognizing when to seek additional input or expertise. It requires a balance of analytical thinking and intuition, allowing

employees to assess situations holistically and consider potential long-term consequences of their choices. These competencies can be cultivated and through training and mentoring in the church organizations.

In organizational settings, people typically fall into two categories—leaders and followers. The success of any organization hinges not only on the effectiveness of the leaders but also significantly on how well their followers engage with them. Teamwork serves as a driving force in Seventh-day Adventist organizations. This implies that leaders and followers must work together in a synergistic relationship to support each other, share responsibilities, and rely on each other's experiences, knowledge and skills to ensure job satisfaction and sustainable financial performance.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a summary, conclusions, and recommendations from the study entitled " Followership Traits and Styles effect on Organizational Performance in Seventh-day Adventist Organizations in Kenya: The Moderating Role of Follower Demographics and Leadership Personality."

Summary

Organizational performance has traditionally been attributed to leadership, with a disproportionate emphasis on leadership styles and attributes. However, the critical role of followership in achieving organizational success has often been overlooked. Thereore, this study investigated the relationship between followership styles, traits, leadership personality, demographic factors, and the performance of followers within Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya. Specifically, the following research questions were raised and addressed.

1. What are the traits and styles of followers in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?
2. Is there a significant correlation between leadership personality and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?
3. Which followership styles best predict organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?

4. Which follower traits best predict organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?
5. Do followers' demographic attributes moderate the link between followership styles/traits and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?
6. Does leadership personality moderate the relationship between followership and organizational performance measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya?

A quantitative correlational research design was employed to assess the relationships between the variables. A sample of 381 regular and contractual staff members from nine conferences, including the East and West Kenya Union Conferences and four shared institutions, participated in the study through a self-administered questionnaire. The key findings are summarized as follows:

Seventh-day Adventist denominational workers largely display exemplary followership behaviors (M= 4.33, SD =.48).

The key followership traits of the followers in the Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya include good judgement (M= 4.70, SD =.37), work ethic (M= 4.68, SD =.36), competence (M= 4.49, SD =.44), and honesty (M= 4.35, SD =.65) in ascending order.

The study revealed a positive significant association between leadership personality and employee job satisfaction ($r=0.44$, $p<0.001$); and financial sustainability ($r=0.27$, $p<0.001$).

Exemplary follower (β = .295, $p < .001$), alienated (β = -.279, $p < .001$), and pragmatic (β = .085, $p = .001$) are significant predictors of job satisfaction. In constrast, alienated followers (ß=-.385, p <.001) and passive followers (ß=-.159, p <.01) suggest inverse relationships with financial sustainability of organizations. Followership trait (competence) is a significant predictor of followers' job satisfaction, ß=.529, p <.00.1. Also, the follower trait that most effectively predicts financial sustainability is good judgment (ß = .455, p < .001).

Demographic factors such as age and gender do not influence the connection between followership styles and a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability within Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya.

Leadership personality does not moderate the relationship between followership styles/traits and organizational performance—measured by a) job satisfaction and b) financial sustainability in Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya is accepted, except in the case of the alienated followership style and job satisfaction.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the study highlights the crucial role of followership on the functioning of organizations. Just as leadership styles and attributes have effect on organizational performance, followership styles and traits also impact the success of an organization.

While the function of leaders has dominated organizational research, this study highlights followers' critical yet often overlooked impact on organizational performance. The findings indicate that followers significantly contribute to fostering organizational success, suggesting that a comprehensive understanding of organizational dynamics must include the role of followership. Research has traditionally focused on leadership styles, traits, and behaviors, often relegating

followers to a passive role. However, this study reinforces the notion that followers are not merely subordinates; they are active participants in the organizational performance. As Kelley (1992) posits, effective followership involves engagement, initiative, and responsibility, which collectively enhance organizational effectiveness. This perspective shifts the paradigm from a leader-centric approach to a more integrated view that recognizes the symbiotic relationship between leaders and followers.

Empowering followers is essential for enhancing organizational productivity and achieving shared objectives. Empowerment gives followers the autonomy, resources, and encouragement they need to take control of their roles. When followers feel supported and capable, they tend to show higher levels of engagement and commitment, directly influencing organizational performance. As highlighted by Maynard et al. (2020), empowered employees display greater job satisfaction, creativity, and a proactive attitude toward problem-solving, which fosters a more innovative and successful organization.

To unlock the potential of followers, leaders must actively cultivate an engaged and supportive followership. This involves building an organizational culture that values contributions from all levels, encourages open communication, and recognizes follower input. Contemporary leadership theories, such as transformational leadership, highlight the significance of motivating and inspiring followers, leading to increased engagement and higher performance (Tafvelin et al., 2019). By fostering this environment, leaders create a climate where followers feel empowered to take initiative and make meaningful contributions toward achieving organizational objectives.

In conclusion, this study underscores the importance of recognizing followers as active contributors to organizational performance, particularly within Seventh-day Adventist organizations and institutions. By empowering followers and cultivating an engaged workforce, leaders can significantly enhance organizational outcomes. Embracing the value of followership not only fosters a more inclusive organizational culture but also drives productivity, innovation, and ultimately, greater organizational success.

Recommendations

1. Training programs should be organized for organizational members to recognize the significance of followership styles and traits within organizations.
2. Followership should be deliberately incoperated and taught in leadership programs and courses at educational institutions.
3. Employees must be trained to exercise effective followership to support leadership and improve organizational performance.
4. To improve organizational performance, executives should assess the followership traits and styles of potential personnel when hiring new team members.

Suggestions for Future Research

This study provides a foundation for the importance of followership and therefore justifies further research in this area. Future research could expand beyond Seventh-day Adventist organizations in Kenya and include other factors that make followers effective. Further research could explore both leadership and followership personalities and how they impact organizational performance. A Comparative study of followership behaviors across different countries and cultures should be conducted to determine their influence on performance.

Further studies are essential to validate and build upon the findings of this research in Africa. Replication studies with larger sample sizes, diverse populations, and varied methodologies could help establish the reliability and generalizability of the results. These additional studies will contribute to a more robust body of evidence, ultimately informing policy decisions and practical applications in the relevant domain.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Correspondences

Introduction Letter

Adventist University of Africa
Mbagathi 00503, Nairobi, Kenya

DATE: 22 January, 2024.

TO WHOM THIS MAY CONCERN:

Dear Sir/Madam,
RE: INTRODUCTION LETTTER FOR DATA COLLECTION – MADAM KNOLLYNE OINDIH GAI:

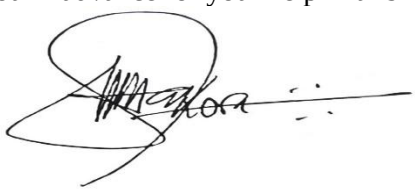
I wish to take this opportunity to introduce **Knollyne O. Gai** to your offices for the purposes of data collection for academic purposes.

Madam Knollyne is our PhD in leadership student who has now reached the stage of going to the field for data collection. And as a Ph.D. level student, one of the requirements of finalizing her studies at the Adventist University of Africa (AUA), is to write an academic research paper which is purely for academic purposes.

Her research topic is entitled: **"*Followership Traits and Styles Effective on Organizational Performance in Seventh-day Adventist Organizations in Kenya: The Moderating Role of Follower Demographics and Leadership Personality*".** The research is to be conducted in the East and West Kenya Union Conferences, in Kenya from January 2024.

It is, therefore, with this in view that AUA is requesting permission from your esteemed offices to allow this researcher to conduct her research assignments within her area of interest as stated above.

The Adventist University of Africa will greatly appreciate any support and/or assistant accorded to the researcher in the light of the purposes stated above.
Thanking you in advance for your help in this regard.



Prof. Musa Nyakora, PhD.,
Professor of Organizational Leadership and Program Coordinator of MA and PhD in Leadership Programs, Adventist University of Africa,
P.O Private Bag Mbagathi – Ong'ata Rongai, 00503 Nairobi –Kenya.

ADCOM MINUTES

Dear Knollyne,

Good afternoon.
As promised, here is the action you requested for

KNOLLYNE OINDIH GAI **PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA** **24ADCOM-1290**	**Voted:** To grant Knollyne Oindih Gai a PhD. student at AUA to collect data in East Kenya Union Conference sampled entities as follows; 1. Central Kenya Conference 2. Central Rift Valley Conference 3. Nyamira Conference 4. South Kenya Conference 5. Home Health Education Services 6. Adventist Development and Relief Agency

Blessings.
Deborah Ogochi

Dear Leaders,

Good afternoon.

Below is an action voted by WKUC ADCOM yesterday, January 31, 2024.

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT PhD RESEARCH - KNOLLYNE GAI 24WKUCADCOM-54	**Voted:** To approve Knollyne Gai's request to conduct her PhD research at West Kenya Union territory in the following Conferences and Institutions: - (i) Greater Rift Valley Conference (ii) Western Kenya Conference (iii) Central Nyanza Conference (iv) Kenya Lake Conference (v) Ranen Conference (vi) University of Eastern Africa, Baraton (vii) Africa Herald Publishing House

Kindly accord Knollyne the necessary assistance.

Thank you.

Eddah Yego
Administrative Assistant, Secretariat
West Kenya Union Conference
Kanyakwar Grounds, Off Kakamega Road
P.O BOX 7747, Kisumu – 40100
Mobile: +254723925665
Website: wku.adventist.org
E-mail: yegoe@wku.adventist.org

"And let us not be weary in well doing: for in due season, we shall reap, if we faint not." Galatians 6:9

OFFICE OF DIRECTOR OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN AFRICA, BARATON
P.O. Box 2500, Eldoret, Kenya

29 February 2024

TO WHOMSOEVER IT MAY CONCERN

Re: GATHERING OF RESEARCH DATA

Ms. Knollyne Oindih Gai is a Ph.D. Candidate – School of Post Graduate Studies, Department of Leadership at Adventist University of Africa and is conducting a study on ***"Followership Traits and Styles Effect on Organizational Performance in Seventh-Day Adventist Organizations in Kenya: The Moderating Role of Follower Demographics and Leadership Personality"*** She has chosen UEAB as one of the sites of her study.

Our university provides an environment that facilitates research. I am therefore requesting you to please participate in her study by filling in the questionnaire provided.

This letter serves as authorization for her to gather her research data from selected respondents at UEAB. Your participation in this study is highly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

F. Ramesh

Prof. Ramesh Francis
Director of Graduate Studies and Research

UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN AFRICA, BARATON
DIRECTOR
29 FEB 2024
GRADUATE STUDIES

ISERC Approval Letter

Adventist University of Africa

Developing Leaders for Service

A Private Chartered University Accredited by Commission for University Education, Kenya

17th January, 2024

Knollyne Oindih
School of Postgraduate Studies
Adventist University of Africa

Reference: AUA/ISERC/14/12/2023

Dear Knollyne Oindih

RE: FOLLOWERSHIP TRAITS AND STYLES EFFECT ON ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN SEVENTH-DAY ADVENTIST ORGANIZATIONS IN KENYA: THE MODERATING ROLE OF FOLLOWER DEMOGRAPHICS AND LEADERSHIP

This is to inform you that the Adventist University of Africa Institutional Scientific Ethics Review Committee (AUA-ISERC) has reviewed and approved your above research proposal. Your application approval number is AUA/ISERC/2024/001. The approval period is **17th January 2024 – 16th January 2025.**

This approval is subject to compliance with the following requirements;

i. Only approved documents (including informed consent and study instruments) will be used.
ii. All changes including (amendments, deviations, and violations) are submitted for review and approval by AUA-ISERC.
iii. Death and life-threatening problems and serious adverse events or unexpected adverse events whether related or unrelated to the study must be reported to AUA-ISERC within 72 hours of notification.
iv. Any changes, anticipated or otherwise that may increase the risks or affect the safety or welfare of study participants and others, or affect the integrity of the research must be reported to AUA-ISERC within 72 hours.
v. Submission of a request for renewal of approval at least 60 days prior to the expiry of the approval period. Attach a comprehensive progress report to support the renewal.
vi. Submission of an executive summary report within 90 days upon completion of the study to AUA-ISERC.

Prior to commencing your study, you are expected to obtain permissions or any other clearances needed.

Yours Sincerely

Josephine Ganu, Ph.D.
Chair, Institutional Scientific Ethics Review C'ttee
ethics@aua.ac.ke

ADVENTIST UNIVERSITY OF AFRICA
ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE
PRIVATE BAG MBAGATHI - 00503,
NAIROBI - KENYA

Research License

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: 127234

Date of Issue: 18/January/2024

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Ms.. Knollyne Achieng Oindih of Adventist University of Africa, has been licensed to conduct research as per the provision of the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 (Rev.2014) in Bungoma, Homabay, Kisii, Kisumu, Migori, Nairobi, Nakuru, Nandi, Nyamira on the topic: FOLLOWERSHIP TRAITS AND STYLES EFFECT ON ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN SEVENTH-DAY ADVENTIST ORGANIZATIONS IN KENYA: THE MODERATING ROLE OF FOLLOWER DEMOGRAPHICS AND LEADERSHIP PERSONALITY for the period ending : 18/January/2025.

License No: NACOSTI/P/24/32611

127234

Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

See overleaf for conditions

APPENDIX B

Consent Form

You are being requested to take part in a followership research project. This study aims to determine how follower behavior and organizational performance are related.

In order to participate in the study, you will be asked to fill out a questionnaire with 6 *(six)* items/sections. Finishing the questionnaire should take approximately *(15-20)* minutes.

It is entirely optional for you to take part in this study. Your consent to participate in the study is shown by your signature at the bottom of this form. This Form differs from the questionnaire, so your identity won't be made public. You won't write your name on the questionnaire either. The data won't be accessible to anyone but the researcher and advisors. A password-protected computer will be used to store all data.

If you do not want to participate in the study, do not begin filling out the questionnaire or participating in other research activities. If you start to fill out the questionnaire and decide you do not want to participate, stop filling it out and give it to the researcher. Not participating is not penalized, and your questionnaire will not be used.

If you participate, you will contribute to knowledge about establishing the impact the followers have in achieving organizational performance, which may help to add to the existing knowledge on the contribution of the followers in organizational performance especially in the Adventist church setting. There are no identifiable risks in participation.

The researcher will answer any questions that you have about the study, and you should ask them now.

Please get in touch with the AUA Institutional Ethics Review Committee Chair if you have complaints or issues regarding this study:

Prof. Josephine Ganu, Ph.D.

ganuj@aua.ac.ke

Thank you.

(Knollyne Oindih Gai, Ph.D. Candidate in Leadership)

By signing below, I agree to participate in this research.
Signature _____ Date _____

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire

Section A.
Below are a few questions that seek information about yourself. Please mark the appropriate places that best apply to you.

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

GENDER:

___ (1) Male ___ (2) Female

AGE:

___ (1) 18-25 years ___ (2) 26-30 years ___ (3) 31-44 years

___ (4) 45-54 years ___ (5) 55 years and older

EDUCATION:

___ (1) High School/Secondary School Graduate ___ (2) College

___ (3) College Graduate ___ (4) Post-Graduate

EMPLOYMENT STATUS

___ (1) Regular. ____ (2) Contractual

JOB POSITION:

___ (1) Departmental Head/Supervisor ___ (2) Treasury

___ (3) Secretariat___ (4) Office Staff

___ (5) Health Worker ___ (6) Teaching Staff

___ (7) Clergy

YEARS OF SERVICE

(1) ___less than years (2) ___ 2-5 years (3) ___6-9 years (4) ___10-13 years. (5) ___ 14-17 years (6) ___ 18-21 years

___ (7) 21-30 years ____(8) more than 31 years

Section B [Followership Styles]

Instructions: Think about how you typically behave in the workplace in relation to leaders in an organizational setting. Respond honestly to the following statements using the scale below:

1 = Never
2 = Rarely
3 = Sometimes
4 = Often
5 = Always

Statements	**Circle your response**				
Exemplary follower (5)					
1. I look for new ways to support my supervisor to achieve organizational goals.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I understand my supervisor's goals and so I work hard to help meet them.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I look for opportunities to positively impact the organization's objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I provide helpful advice when my leader/supervisor needs someone to confide in.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I ask multiple questions to understand issues during meetings in my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I offer ideas to improve how work is done in my department to serve the best interest of the organization	1	2	3	4	5
7. I take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond my job.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am a valuable asset to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I think carefully and then express my opinion about critical issues to my leaders.	1	2	3	4	5
Conformist (4) "yes people" of the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
1. I hesitate to act against the opinions of my boss.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I reserve constructive feedback from my leader to avoid conflict.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel it is important to comply with my boss's demands so I don't look bad.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I do what I'm told at my workplace, I don't get involved.	1	2	3	4	5
5. It is my duty to obey instructions to the end without questioning them.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I believe that employees should do what their managers say, even if they don't know why.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I agree with my supervisor's major suggestions and ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I compromise, particularly on issues that are minor to you but important to others.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I volunteer for extra work assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
Pragmatic (3) - middle of the road	1	2	3	4	5

1. The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I work harder when I know my supervisor will see the results.	1	2	3	4	5
Alienated (2)	1	2	3	4	5
1. I used to care a lot about my work, but now other things are more important.	1	2	3	4	5
2. *I feel this organization cares about me as a person.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have distanced myself from my work due to mistreatment.	1	2	3	4	5
4. *I feel the senior leaders of this organization demonstrate integrity.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I keep my best ideas to myself.	1	2	3	4	5
6. *I get involved in organizational activities and functions.	1	2	3	4	5
7. *I seek information to familiarize myself with changes/ initiatives happening in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
Passive Follower (1)	1	2	3	4	5
1. I limit my work according to the scope of my job description.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I feel relieved when I leave my workstation.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My opinions do not count at work.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I daydream when am at work.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I don’t feel connected to the events in my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5

Section C [Followership Traits]

Directions: Place yourself in the role of an employee when responding to the items below. For each statement below, circle the number that indicates the degree to which you feel the statement is true.

1 – Not true at all
2 – Rarely true of me
3– Somewhat untrue of me
4 – Mostly true of me
5 – Very True of me

Statements	**Circle your response**				
Honesty					
1. When someone asks me to keep something confident, I always do so completely.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have a reputation among my friends and coworkers for keeping my word.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My coworkers say that my behavior is consistent with my values.	1	2	3	4	5
Competence	1	2	3	4	5
1. I am able to cope well with the physical demands of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am able to cope well with the mental demands of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have the needed knowledge to do my work well.	1	2	3	4	5

4. I have the needed skills to do my work well.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I seek feedback in order to strengthen my effectiveness on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I regularly develop my competencies to increase my value in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5
Good Judgment	1	2	3	4	5
1. I am dependable (e.g., self-disciplined, reliable, and organized).	1	2	3	4	5
2. I share information and knowledge to assist my colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I share information and knowledge to assist my leaders.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I understand my role and contribution to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
Work Ethic	1	2	3	4	5
1. I do my best to contribute to the development of my organization	1	2	3	4	5
2. Attention to detail is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I can do my job with less supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I complete work in a timely manner.	1	2	3	4	5

Section D
Personality

Instruction: Below are a number of characteristics that may or may not describe your leader's personality. The term 'leader' refers to the one whom you directly report to in your workplace. For example, *do you agree that your leader is a dependable person*? Please describe your leader by indicating the extent to which you agree or disagree with statements using the scale below.

Strongly Disagree = 1
Disagree = 2
Neither Agree nor Disagree = 3
Agree = 4
Strongly Agree = 5

I see my Leader as Someone Who is . . .	**Circle your response**				
1. A dependable person— a reliable leader	1	2	3	4	5
2. Organized— plan things well and follows through with them.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Kind and sympathizes with others' feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Concerned about others.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Gets nervous easily	1	2	3	4	5
6. Open-minded—tolerate opposing views.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Daring-- likes to try new things and thinks outside the box.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Very outgoing—sociable.	1	2	3	4	5

Section E
Job Satisfaction

Instructions: Think about your current job. How satisfied are you when the day ends? Here is the measurement scale to answer the following questions.

1. Very Dissatisfied
2. Dissatisfied
3. Neutral
4. Satisfied
5. Very Satisfied

	Job Satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5
1	Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am encouraged to develop new and better ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My job makes good use of my skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills at my workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I am involved in the decisions that affect your work.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Generally, my current job/work environment empowers me to accomplish my work in an effective manner.	1	2	3	4	5
7	My work allows time for extra-curricular activities.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I get recognized by my leaders for a job well done.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I am given access to resources to do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I am satisfied with my chances for career advancement.	1	2	3	4	5

Section F
Financial Sustainability

Instructions: Rate the financial health of your organization using the scale below**.** Tick "***DK*****"** if you don't know.

Very True	True	Somewhat true	Slightly true	Not true at all	NOT APPLICABLE
5	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**DK**

My institution . . .	Circle your response					
*My organization relies on external sources or higher organizations to survive.	1	2	3	4	5	DK
I receive my full salary on time every month.	1	2	3	4	5	DK
*The institution often faces cash shortage to run operations smoothly.	1	2	3	4	5	DK
My organization is able to provide the needed materials and resources I need for my work.	1	2	3	4	5	DK
*My organization struggles to pay debt obligations on time.	1	2	3	4	5	DK
The financial situation in this institution is good.	1	2	3	4	5	DK

APPENDIX D

Krejcie & Morgan Precalculated Sample Size Determination

Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

N	*S*	*N*	*S*	*N*	*S*
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

Note.—*N* is population size. *S* is sample size.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. Educational and Psychological Measurement, *30*(3), 607–610.

APPENDIX E

ECD Secretary 2022 Statistical Report

Secretary's Statistical Report—Annual

Organization Reporting: **East-Central Africa Division** Submitted by: **Lydia Sibanda** **For Year: 2022**

Date Sent: March 24, 2023 Date Received: Secretariat Authorization

1	22a	22b	23a	23b	24	25a	25b	26a	26b	27	29	30	28	31	32	33	34	28a	28b	28c
	DENOMINATIONAL EMPLOYEES														Total Active Employees			Literature Evangelists		
Organization	Ministerial Credential	Commis-sioned Minister Credentia	Comm. Ministry of Teaching	Administr ative Ministrie s	Missionar y Credential	Ministerial License	Commis-sioned Minister License	Comm. Ministry of Teaching License	Administr ative Ministries License	Missionar y License	All Other Employees (anyone without a credential/license)	Total Active Employ ees	Literat ure Evan-gelists	Honora ry/ Emerit us Creden tial Only	Enter Here All Emplo yees Who Are Full Time	Enter Here All Emplo yees Who Are Part Time	Enter Here All Emplo yees Who Are Casual Worker s	Full Time		
																		Cred-ential and Licen se	Intern s/ Other	Part Time
	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT	FT PT Casu al									
WEST KENYA UNION CONFERENCE	19 0	2 0	120 0	15 0	298 0	6 0	1 0	46 0	7	19 0	130 40 3	**706**	**0**	**189**	663	40	3			
Central Nyanza Conference	38 0	2 0	0 0	2 0	10 0	12	0 0	0 0	0 0	3 0	43 5 0	**115**	**126**		110	5	0	16	110	0
Greater Rift Valley Conference	134 0	3 0	14 0	3 0	6 0	37 0	3 0	82 0	1 0	3 0	0 0 0	**286**	**104**		286	0	0	21	65	18
Kenya Lake Conference	36 0	7 0	0 0	1 0	25 0	33 0	13 0	0 0	0 0	8 0	0 0 0	**123**	**86**		123	0	0	25	61	0
Lake Victoria Field	41 0	6 0	0 0	1 0	9 0	44 0	0 0	3 0	2 0	1 0	6 0 0	**113**	**126**		113	0	0	16	101	9
North Rift Valley Field	18 0	0 0	2 0	4 0	2 0	38 0	16 0	2 0	8 0	7 0	26 0 0	**123**	**62**		123	0	0	6	43	13
Ranen Conference	37 0	0 0	15 0	8 0	39 0	36 0	0 0	0 0	1 0	64 0	0 0 0	**200**	**10**		200	0	0	2	0	8
South East Nyanza Field	35 0	3 0	4 0	3 0	8 0	2 0	17 0	7 0	4 0	0 0	35 0 7	**125**	**102**		118	0	7	17	72	13
South West Nyanza Field	14 0	15 0	8 0	1 0	2 0	18 0	11 0	13 0	0 0	6 0	3 0 0	**91**	**35**		91	0	0	4	30	1
Southern Kenya Lake Field	14 0	1 0	0 0	3 0	9 0	13 0	2 0	7 0	0 0	4 0	0 0 0	**53**	**0**		53	0	0	0	0	0
West Rift Valley Field	17 0	0 0	0 0	2 0	4 0	26 0	0 0	0 0	1 0	16 0	0 0 0	**66**	**25**		66	0	0	25	0	0
Western Kenya Conference	22 0	22 0	1 0	3 0	6 0	3 0	2 0	0 0	0 0	6 0	45 0 0	**110**	**45**		110	0	0	9	14	22
TOTALS	**425 0**	**61 0**	**164 0**	**46 0**	**418 0**	**268 0**	**65 0**	**160 0**	**24 0**	**137 0**	**288 45 10**	**2,111**	**721**	**189**	**2,056**	**45**	**10**	**141**	**496**	**84**

Secretary's Statistical Report—Annual

Organization Reporting: East-Central Africa Division

Submitted by: Lydia Sibanda

Secretariat Authorization

For Year: 2022

Date Sent: March 24, 2023

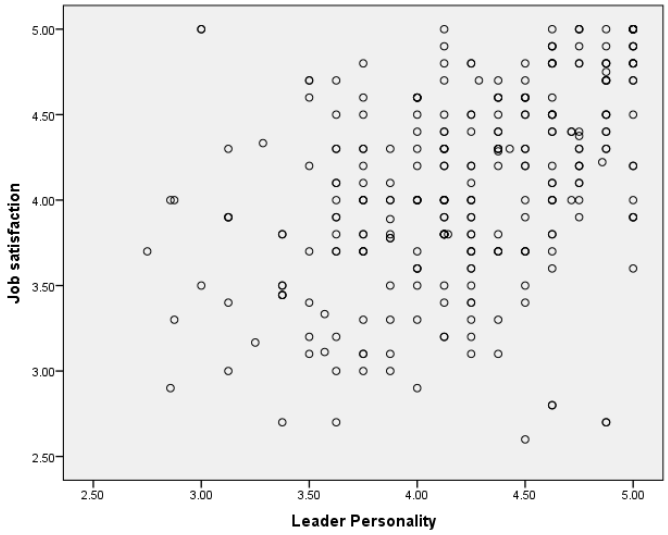
Date Received:

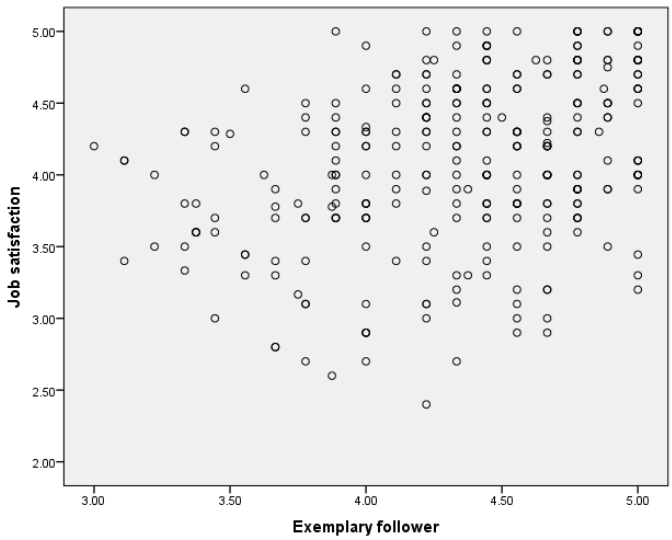
1	22a		22b		23a		23b		24		25a		25b		26a		26b		27		29			30	28	31	32	33	34	28a	28b	28c
	DENOMINATIONAL EMPLOYEES																										Total Active Employees			Literature Evangelists		
Organization	Ministerial Credential		Commis-sioned Minister Credenti al		Comm. Ministry of Teaching Credential		Administr ative Ministries Credenti al		Missionary Credential		Ministerial License		Commis-sioned Minister License		Comm. Ministry of Teaching License		Administra tive Ministries License		Missionar y License		All Other Employees (anyone without a credential/license)			Total Active Employ ees	Literat ure Evan-gelists	Honor ary/ Emeritu s Crede ntial Only	Enter Here All Employ ees Who Are Full Time	Enter Here All Emplo yees Who Are Part Time	Enter Here All Employ ees Who Are Casual Worker s	Full Time		Part Time
	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	Casu al						Cred-ential and Licen se	Intern s/ Other	
EAST KENYA UNION CONFERENCE	7		4		0		0		63		0		0		21		0		0		7	14	0	**116**	**0**	**285**	102	14	0			
Central Kenya Conference	47		8		30		2		13		15		8		83		0		2		0	2	4	**214**	**306**		208	2	4	241	0	65
Central Rift Valley Conference	44		8		4		1		9		43		40		29		0		2		2		0	**182**	**83**		182	0	0	83	0	0
East Nairobi Field	44		4		0		2		11		51		0		41		3		3		104		4	**267**	**50**		263	0	4	13	37	0
Kenya Coast Field	19		16		1		1		9		13		12		2		0		4		0		0	**77**	**44**		77	0	0	15	29	0
North East Kenya Field	54		1		0		0		1		3		24		0		0		4		28		3	**118**	**45**		115	0	3	14	31	0
Nyamira Conference	36		7		0		1		7		2		9		0		0		5		0		0	**67**	**86**		67	0	0	86	0	0
Nyamira West Field	27		20		0		2		4		4		2		0		0		1		0		0	**60**	**56**		60	0	0	11	7	38
South Kenya Conference	31		0		0		1		19		46		0		0		0		3		0		0	**100**	**82**		100	0	0	74	0	8
South Narobi Kajiado Field	19		0		0		1		2		19		2		0		0		5		0		0	**48**	**31**		48	0	0	5	18	8
South Rift Valley Field	17		1		4		2		2		2		28		15		2		4		16		0	**93**	**31**		93	0	0	4	17	10
South-East Kenya Field	37		9		0		0		2		0		16		0		0		4		0		0	**68**	**82**		68	0	0	67	0	15
																								0	**0**		0	0				
																								0	**0**		0	0	0			
TOTALS	**382**	**0**	**78**	**0**	**39**	**0**	**13**	**0**	**142**	**0**	**198**	**0**	**141**	**0**	**191**	**0**	**5**	**0**	**37**	**0**	**157**	**16**	**11**	**1,410**	**896**	**285**	**1,383**	**16**	**11**	**613**	**139**	**144**
																												1,410			896	

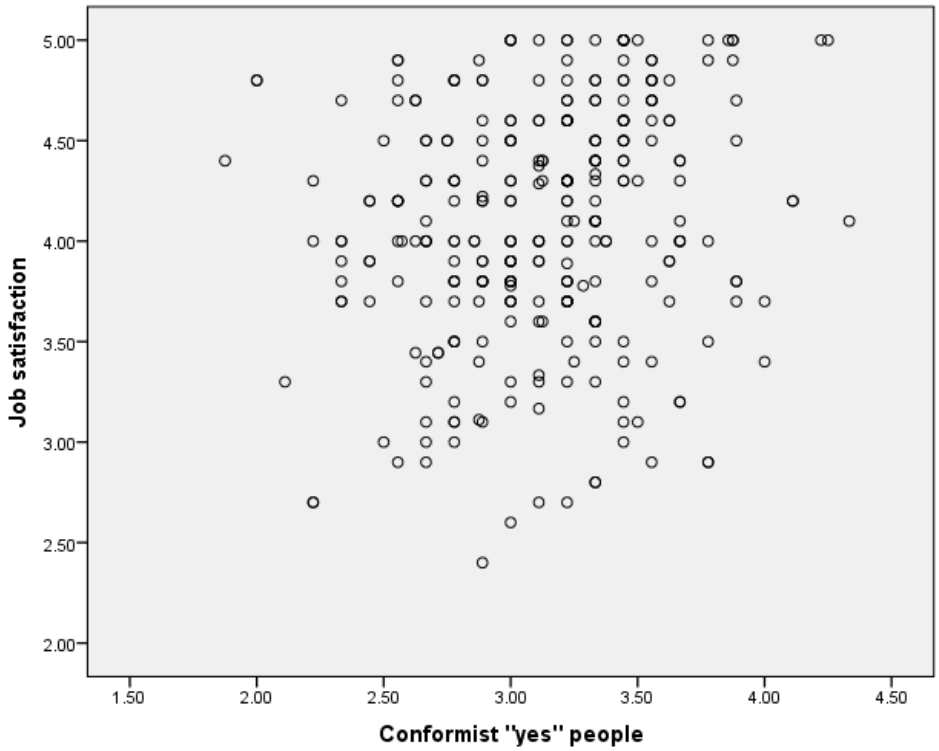
APPENDIX F

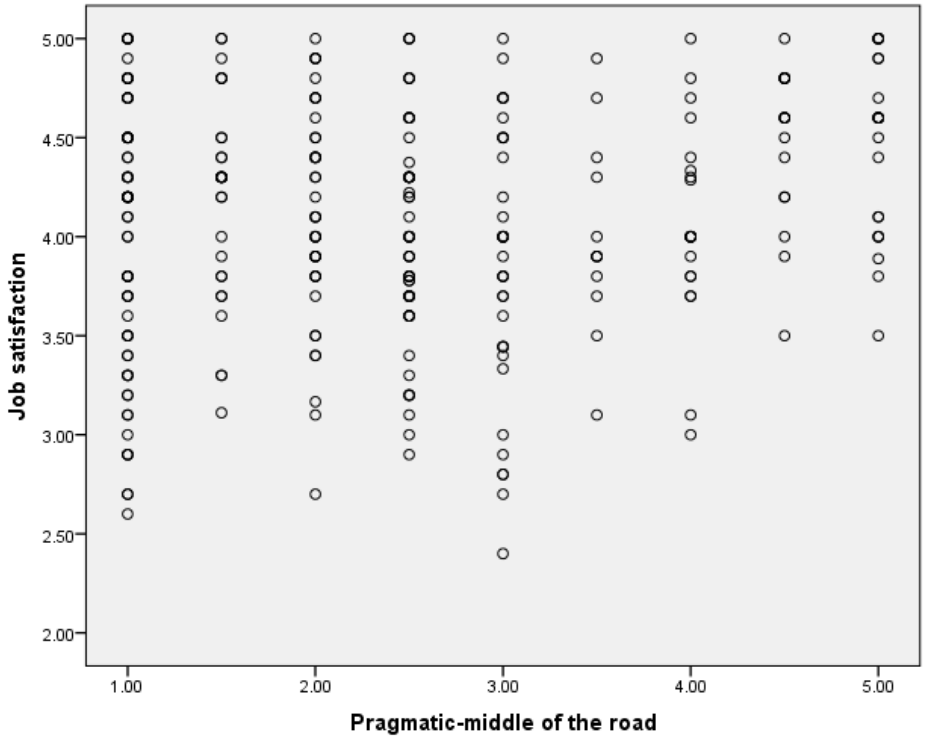
Statistical Data

Testing Multiple Linear Regression Assumptions






Job satisfaction
5.00
4.50
4.00
3.50
3.00
2.50
2.00
1.50
2.00
2.50
3.00
3.50
4.00
4.50
Conformist "yes" people


Job satisfaction
5.00
4.50
4.00
3.50
3.00
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2.00
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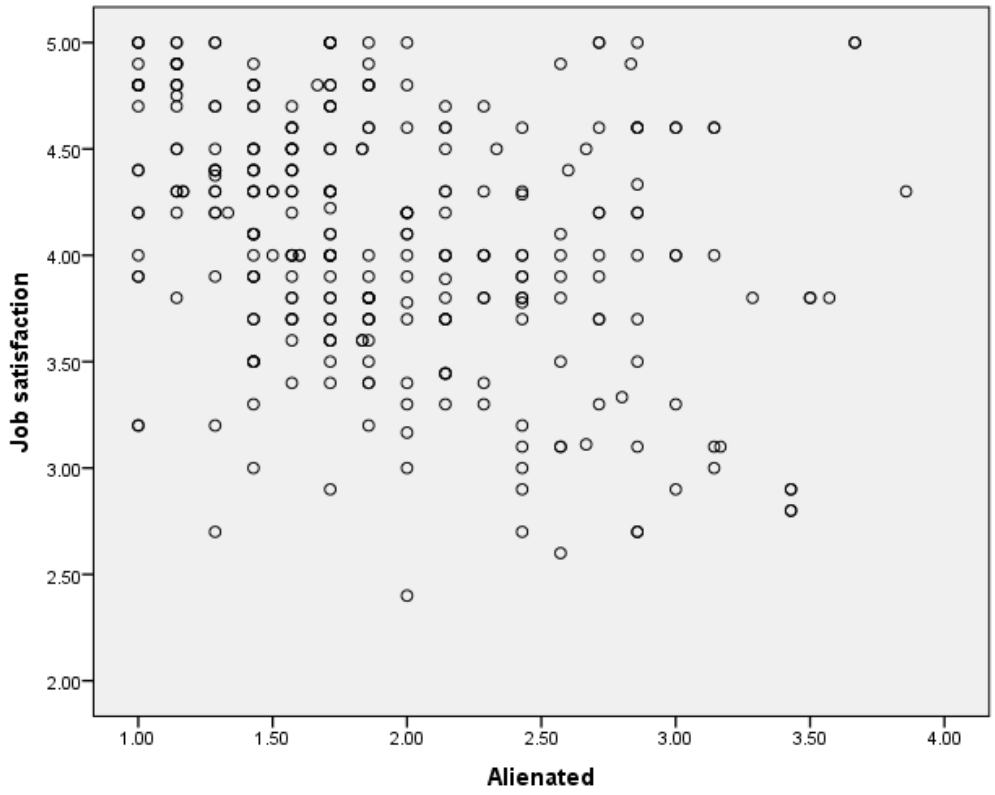
2.00
3.00
4.00
5.00
Pragmatic-middle of the road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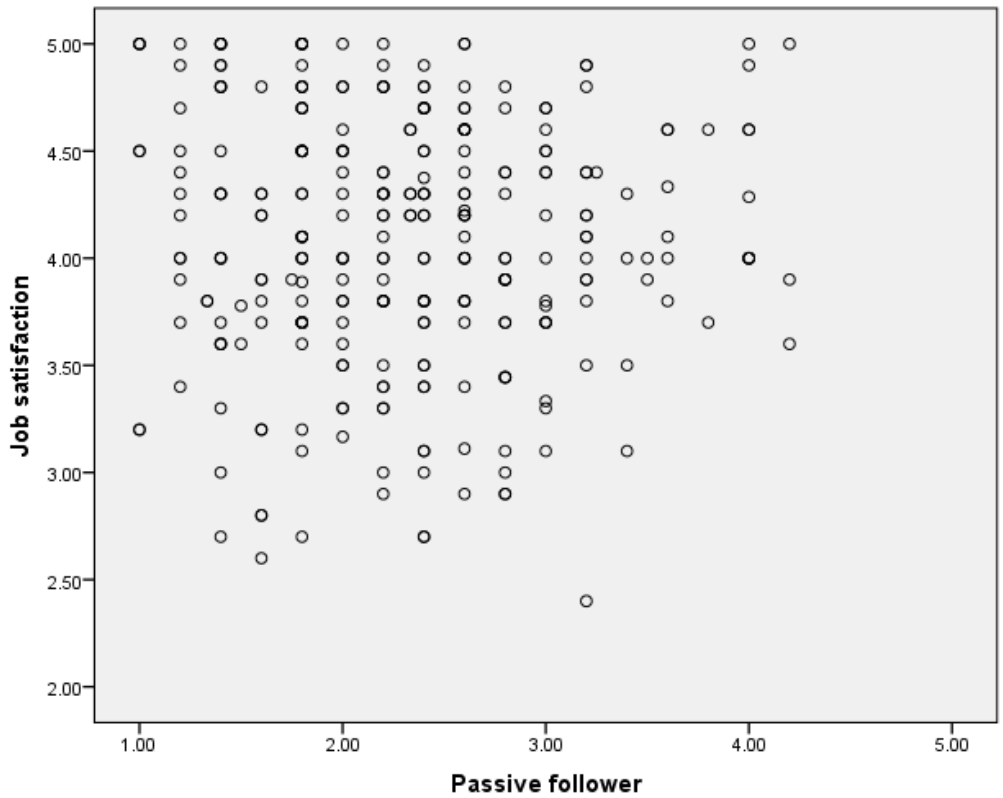
4.50
4.00
3.50
3.00
2.50
2.00
1.00
1.50
2.00
2.50
3.00
3.50
4.00
Alienated


Job satisfaction
5.00
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3.50
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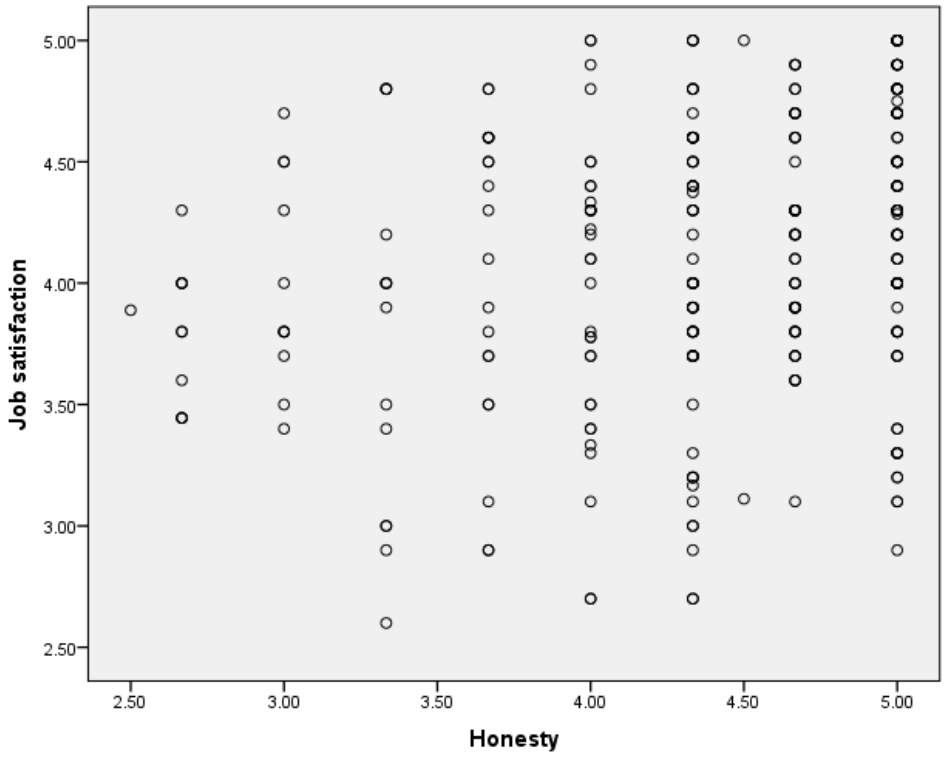
4.00
5.00
Passive follower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3.00
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2.50
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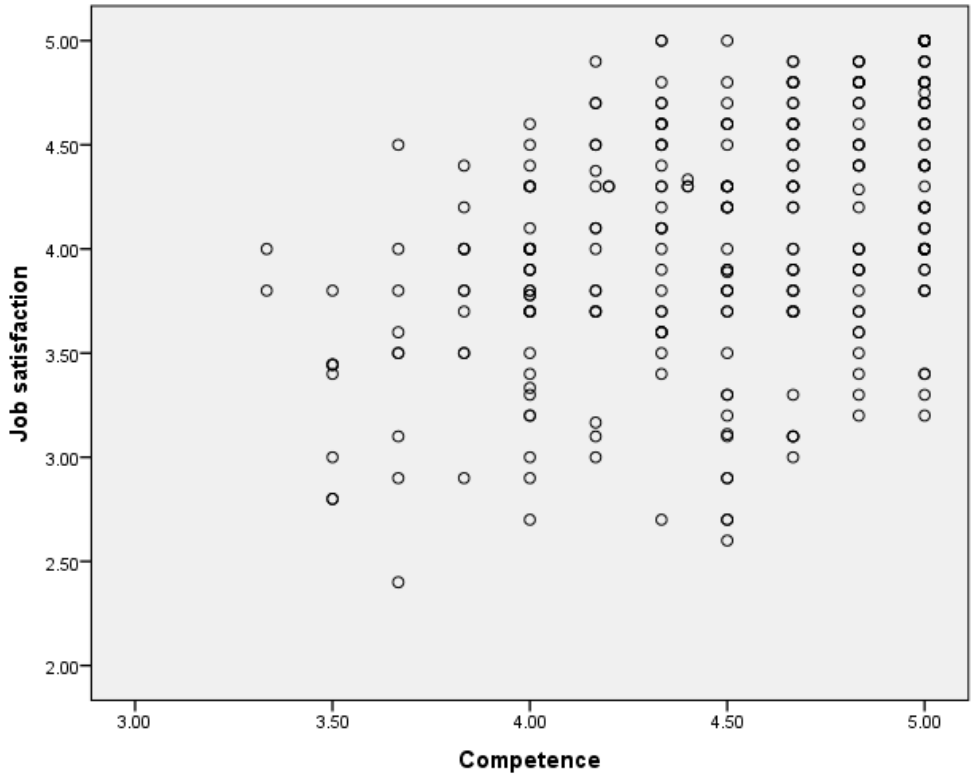
3.50
4.00
4.50
5.00
Honesty


Job satisfaction
5.00
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2.00
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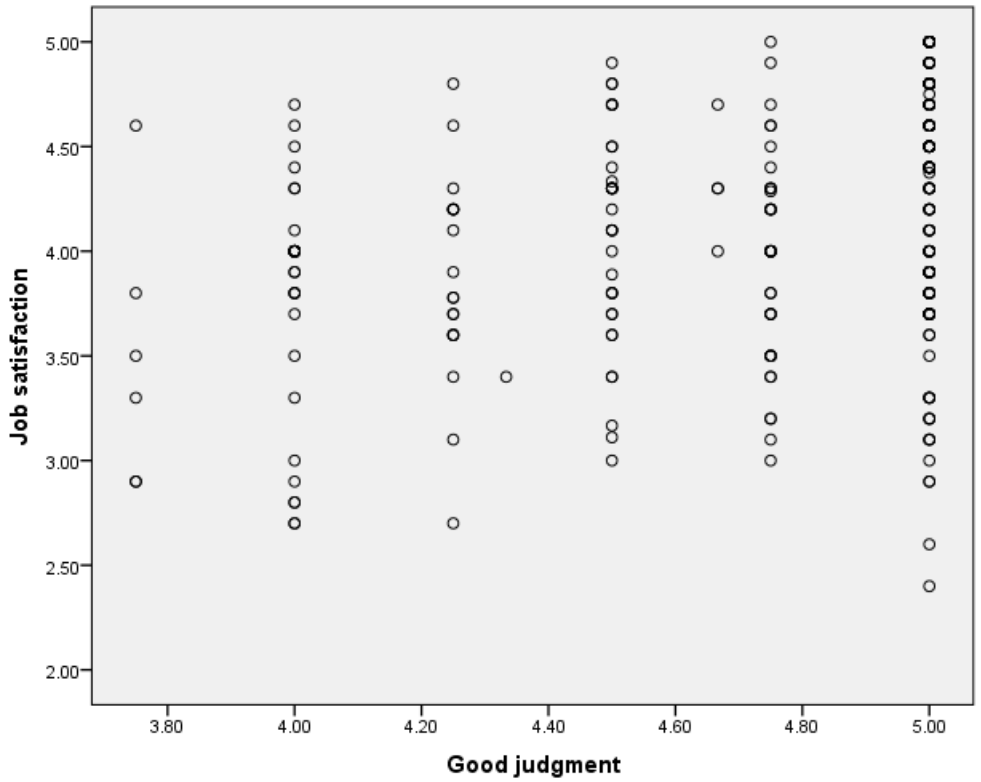
4.50
5.00
Competence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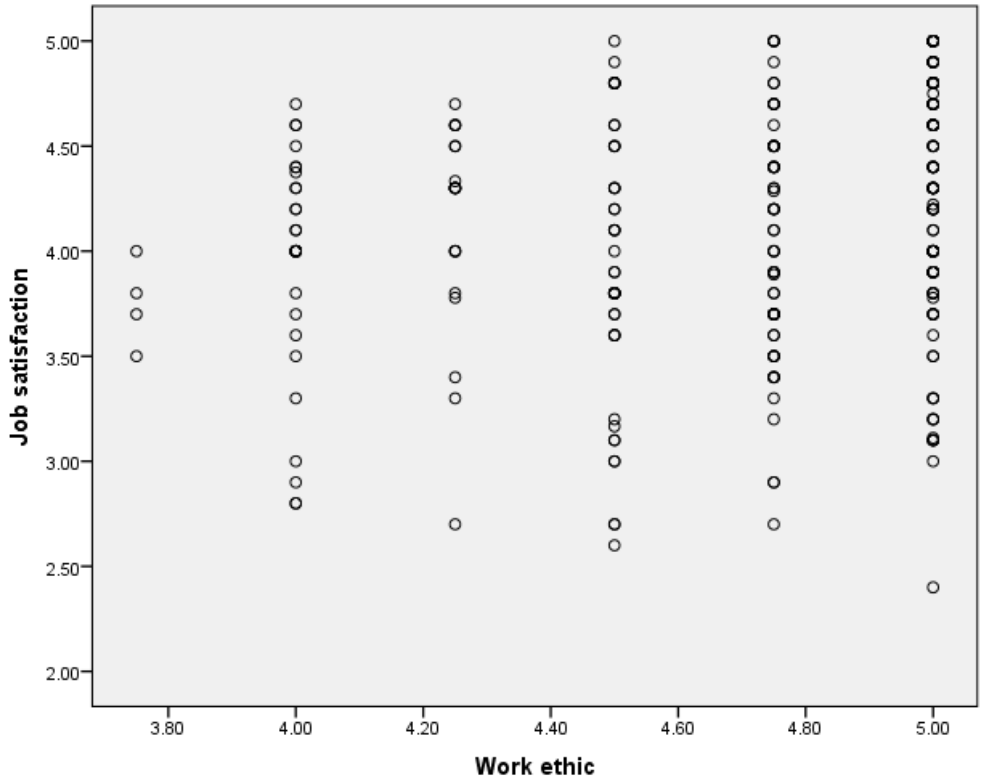
4.80
5.00
Good judgment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4.00
3.50
3.00
2.50
2.00
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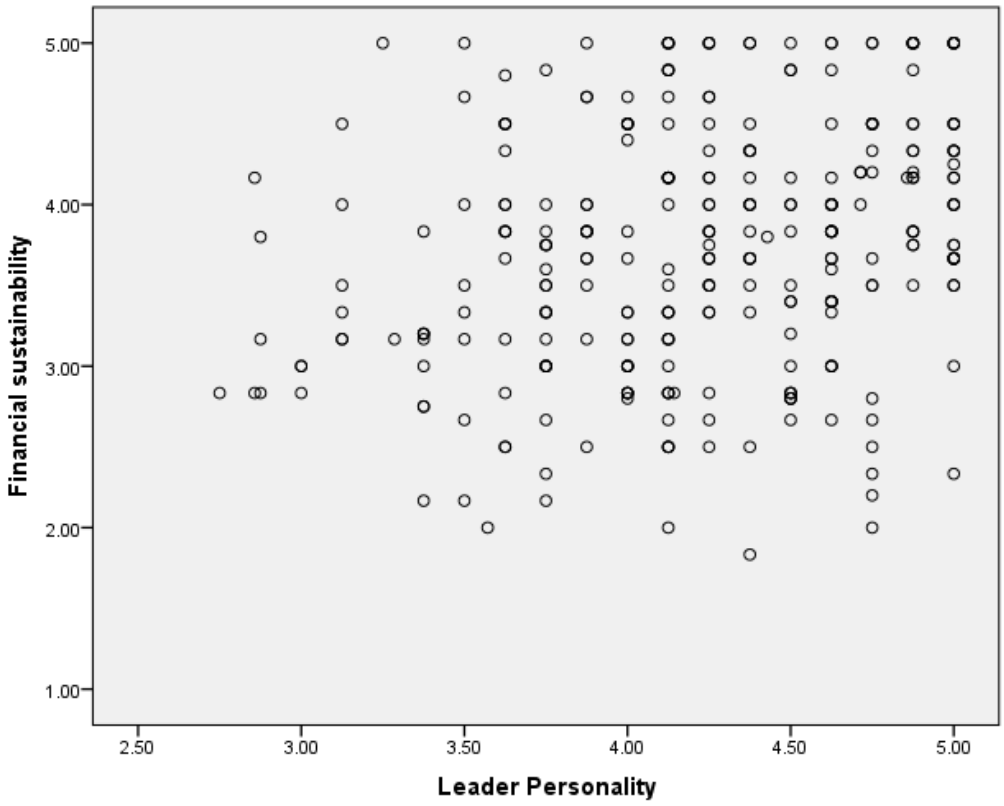
4.00
4.20
4.40
4.60
4.80
5.00
Work ethic


Financial sustainability
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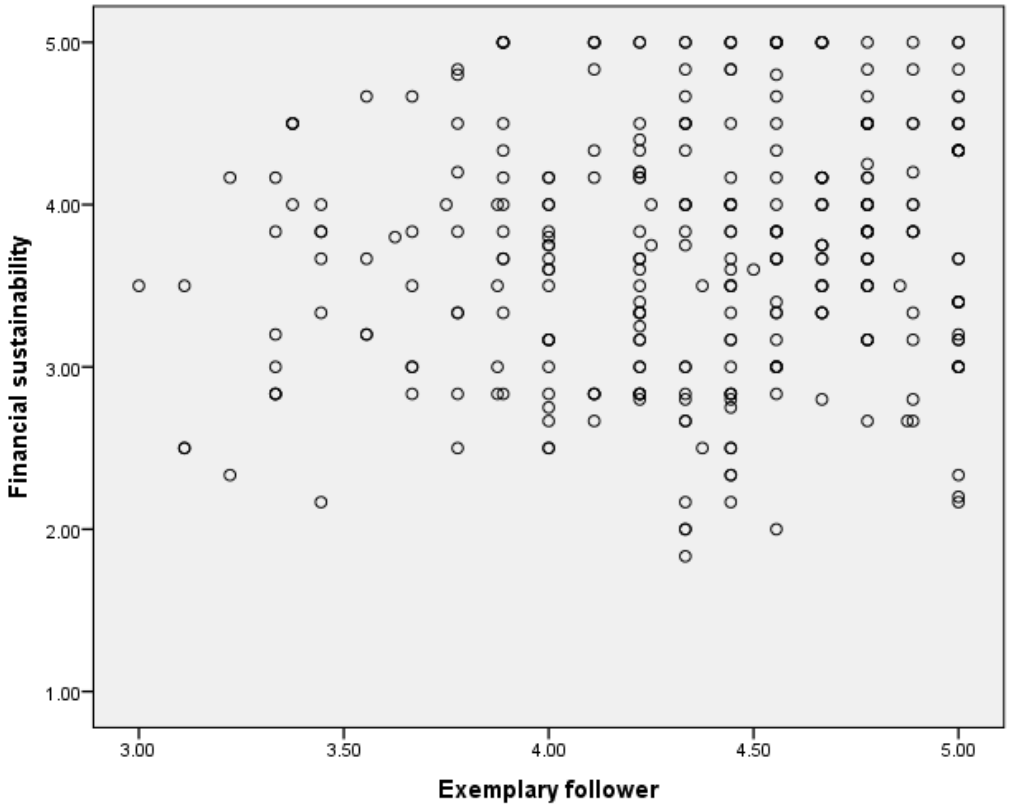
3.00
2.00
1.00
2.50
3.00
3.50
4.00
4.50
5.00
Leader Personality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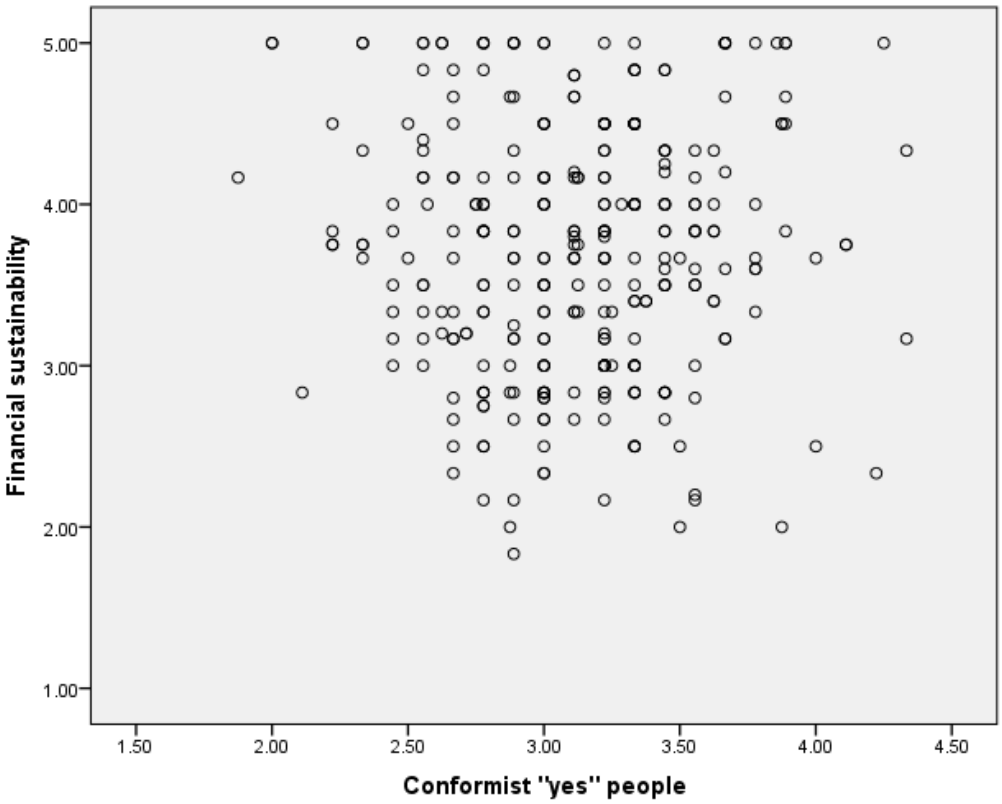
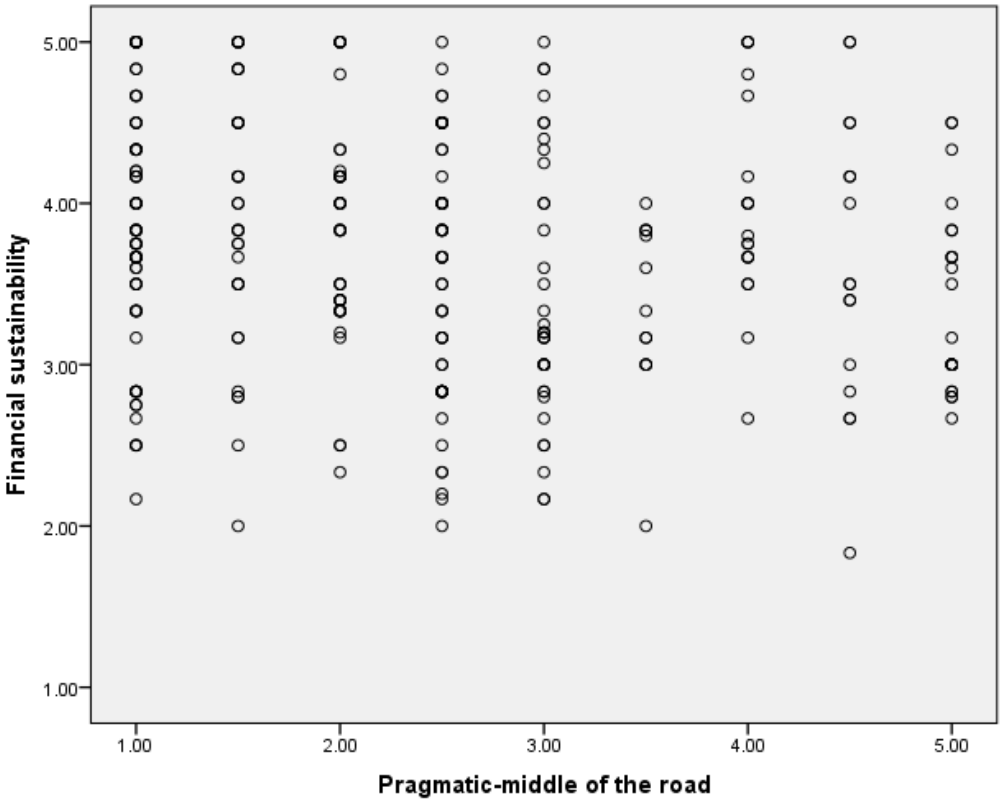
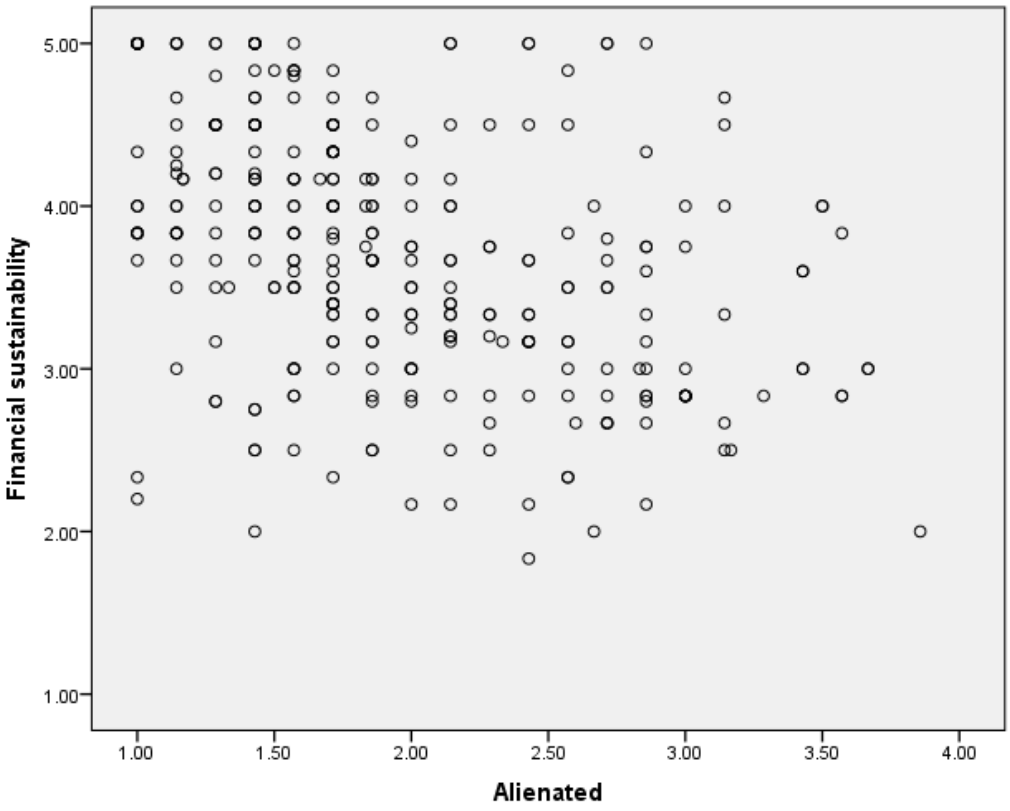
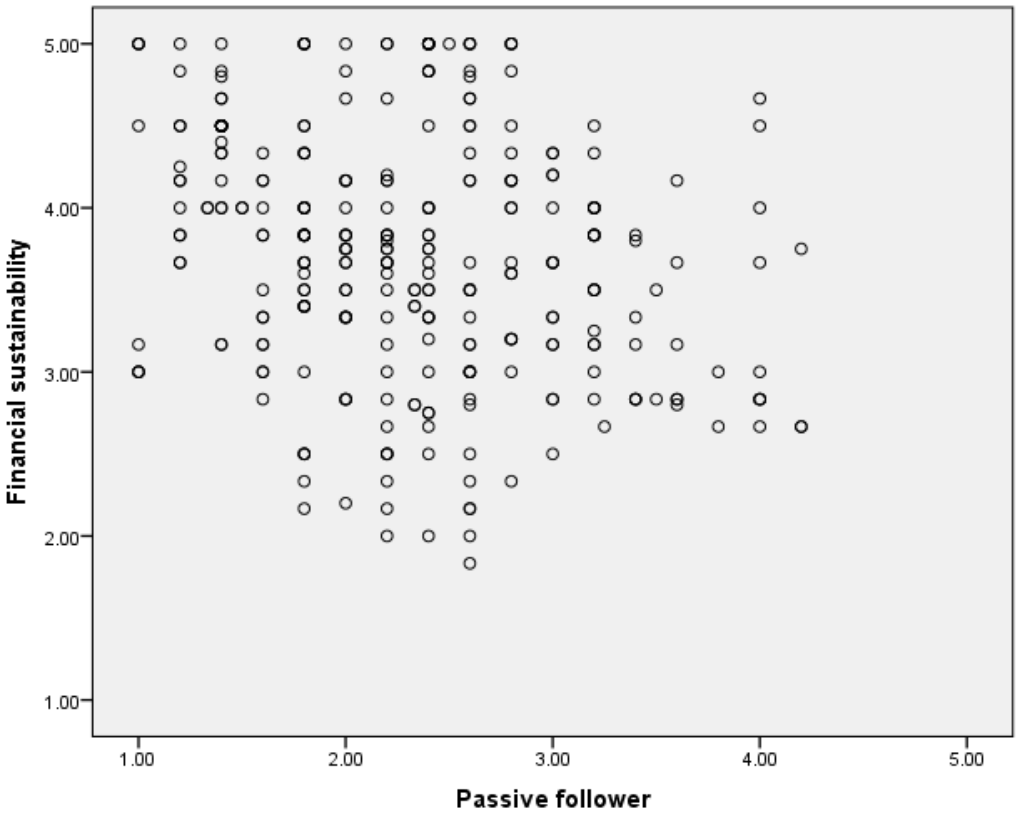
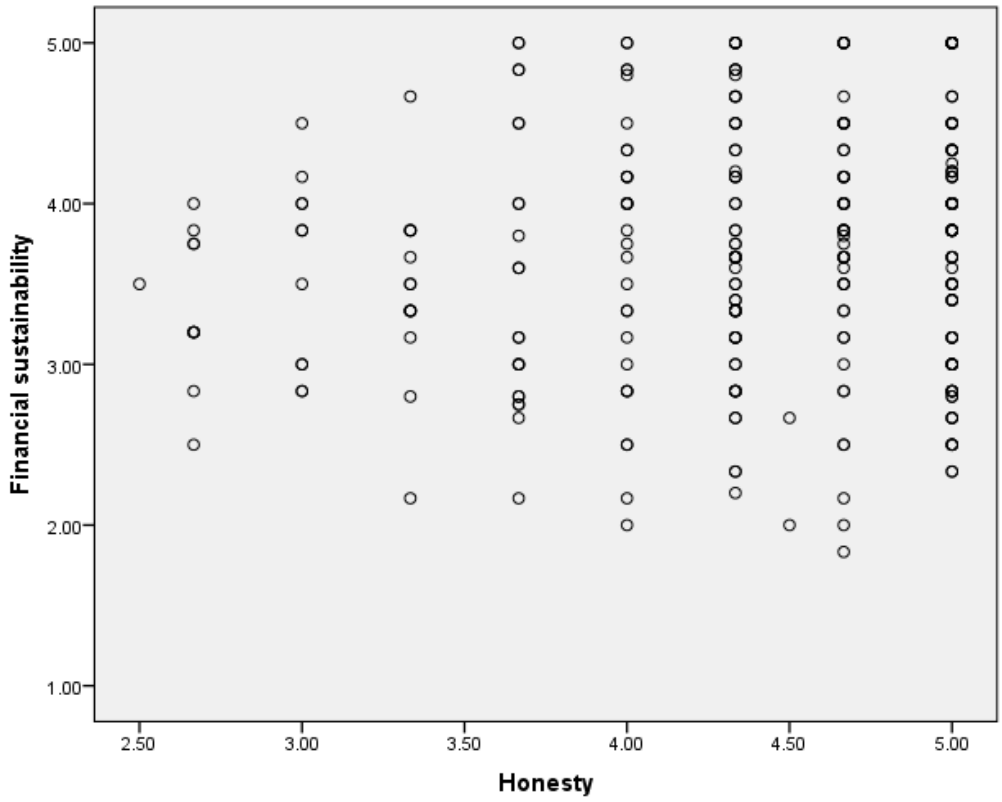
1.00
3.00
3.50
4.00
4.50
5.00
Exemplary follower

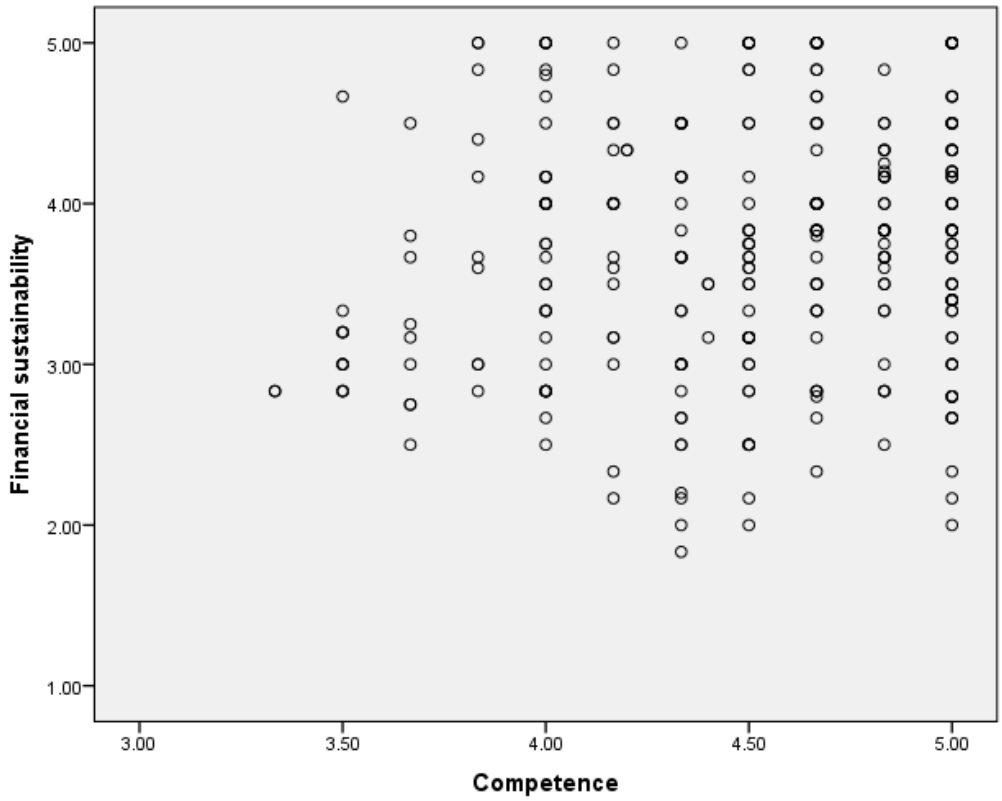

Financial sustainability
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
1.50
2.00
2.50
3.00
3.50
4.00
4.50
Conformist "yes" people

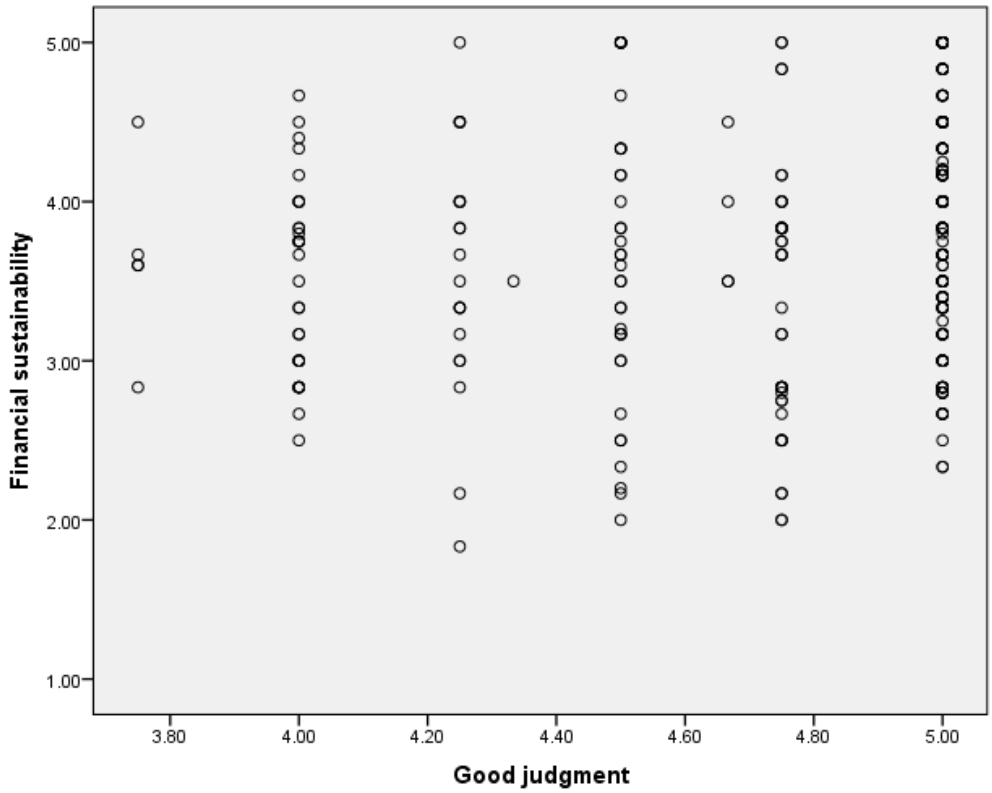

Financial sustainability
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
1.00
2.00
3.00
4.00
5.00
Pragmatic-middle of the road

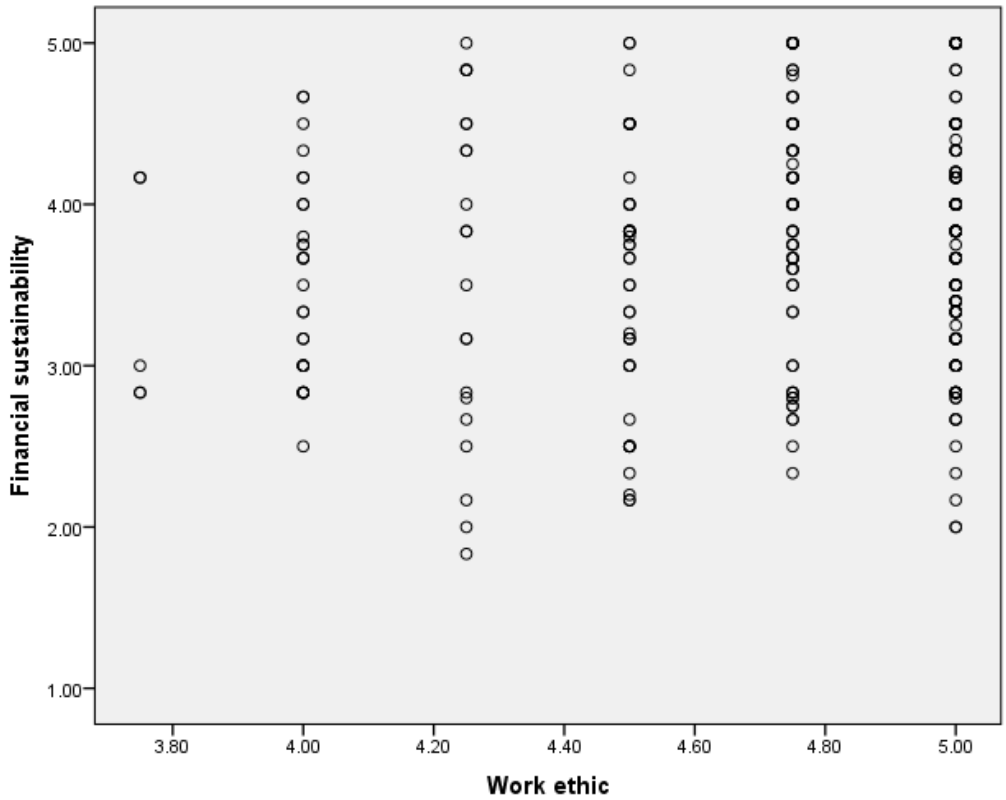

Financial sustainability
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
1.00
1.50
2.00
2.50
3.00
3.50
4.00
Alienated


Financial sustainability
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
1.00
2.00
3.00
4.00
5.00
Passive follower


Financial sustainability
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
2.50
3.00
3.50
4.00
4.50
5.00
Honesty


Financial sustainability
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
3.00
3.50
4.00
4.50
5.00
Competence


Financial sustainability
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
3.80
4.00
4.20
4.40
4.60
4.80
5.00
Good judgment


Financial sustainability
5.00
4.00
3.00
2.00
1.00
3.80
4.00
4.20
4.40
4.60
4.80
5.00
Work ethic

Normality of Distribution

Job Satisfaction

Residuals of Follower-style Predictors of Job Satisfaction

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Standardized Residual (Job Satisfaction and Follower-style Predictors)
N		296
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	.0126178
	Std. Deviation	1.00282584
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.065
	Positive	.045
	Negative	-.065
Test Statistic		.065
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.004[c]

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.
c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

Residuals of Follower-trait Predictors of Job Satisfaction

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Standardized Residual (Job Satisfaction and Follower-trait Predictors)
N		297
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	-.0334642
	Std. Deviation	1.00894418
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.074
	Positive	.060
	Negative	-.074
Test Statistic		.074
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.001[c]

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.
c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

Financial Sustainability

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Standardized Residual (Financial Sustainability and Follower-style Predictors)
N		296
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	-.0027415
	Std. Deviation	.99401670
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.054
	Positive	.040
	Negative	-.054
Test Statistic		.054
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.035[c]

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.
c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Standardized Residual (Financial Sustainability and Follower-trait Predictors)
N		291
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	.0095577
	Std. Deviation	.99555152
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.051
	Positive	.051
	Negative	-.051
Test Statistic		.051
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.060[c]

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.
c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

Multicollinearity

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.692	.404		6.658	.000		
	Exemplary follower	.280	.068	.233	4.101	.000	.851	1.176
	Conformist "yes" people	.133	.072	.099	1.850	.065	.957	1.044
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	.075	.027	.159	2.784	.006	.845	1.183
	Alienated	-.283	.056	-.306	-5.011	.000	.738	1.355
	Passive follower	.045	.046	.057	.979	.328	.800	1.249

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.514	.504		3.006	.003		
	Honesty	.078	.057	.084	1.364	.174	.858	1.165
	Competence	.471	.105	.330	4.471	.000	.600	1.666
	Good judgment	.196	.115	.125	1.695	.091	.601	1.664
	Work ethic	-.168	.125	-.101	-1.348	.179	.579	1.728

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.225	.548		9.539	.000		
	Exemplary follower	.014	.093	.009	.148	.883	.849	1.178
	Conformist "yes" people	-.130	.097	-.073	-1.331	.184	.952	1.050
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	-.018	.036	-.028	-.500	.617	.889	1.125
	Alienated	-.386	.075	-.327	-5.148	.000	.715	1.398
	Passive follower	-.160	.064	-.152	-2.518	.012	.789	1.267

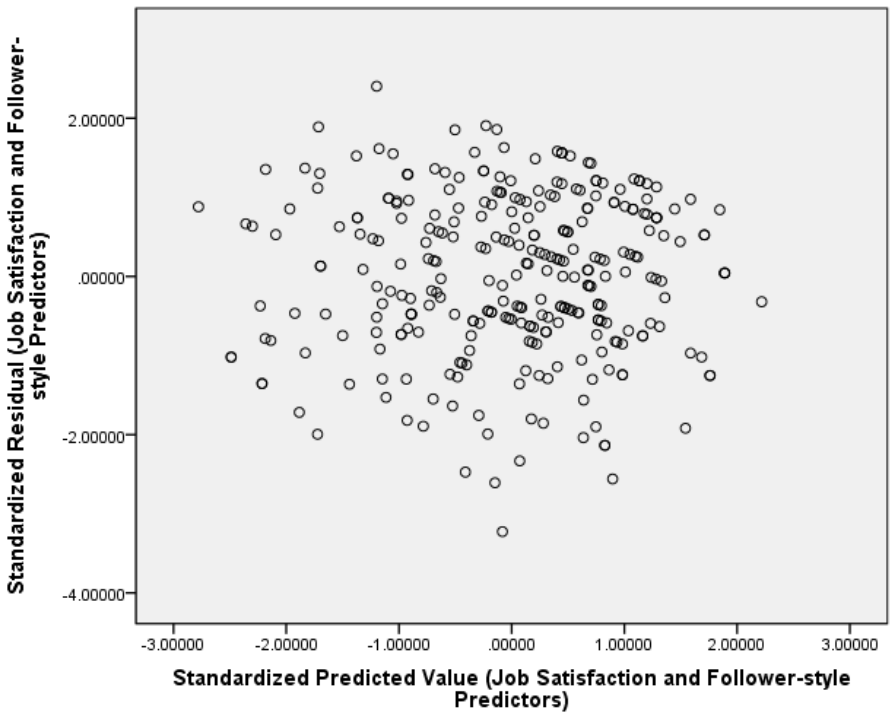
a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

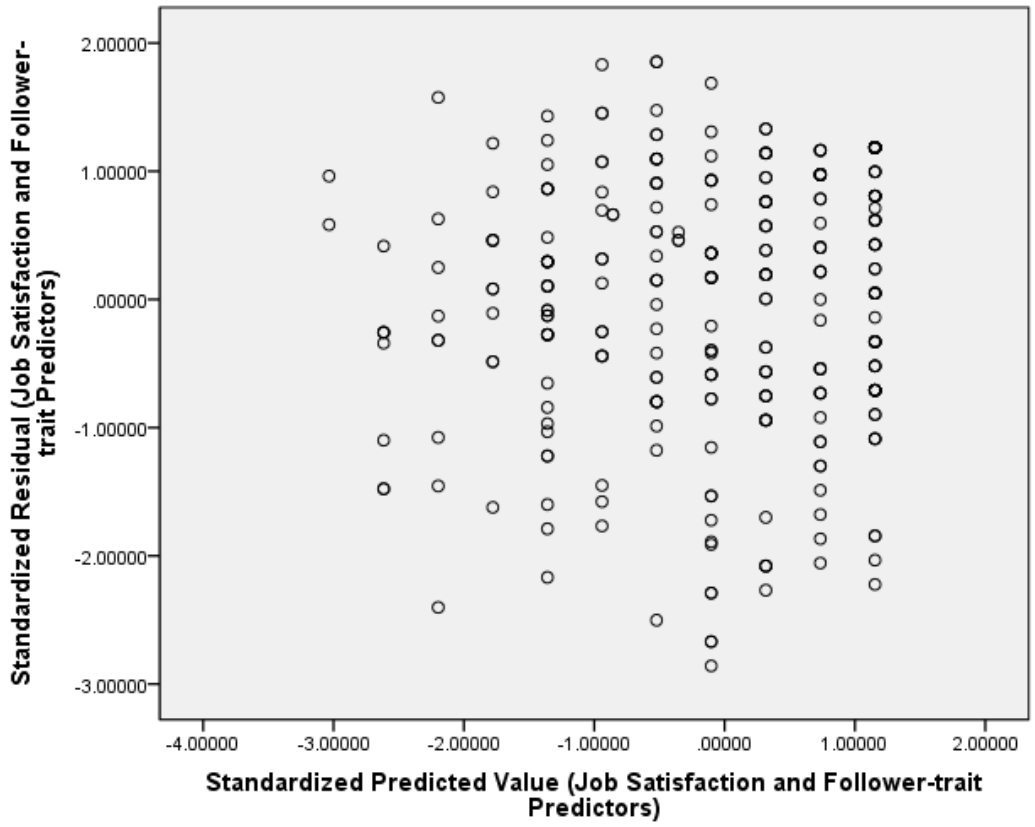
Coefficients[a]

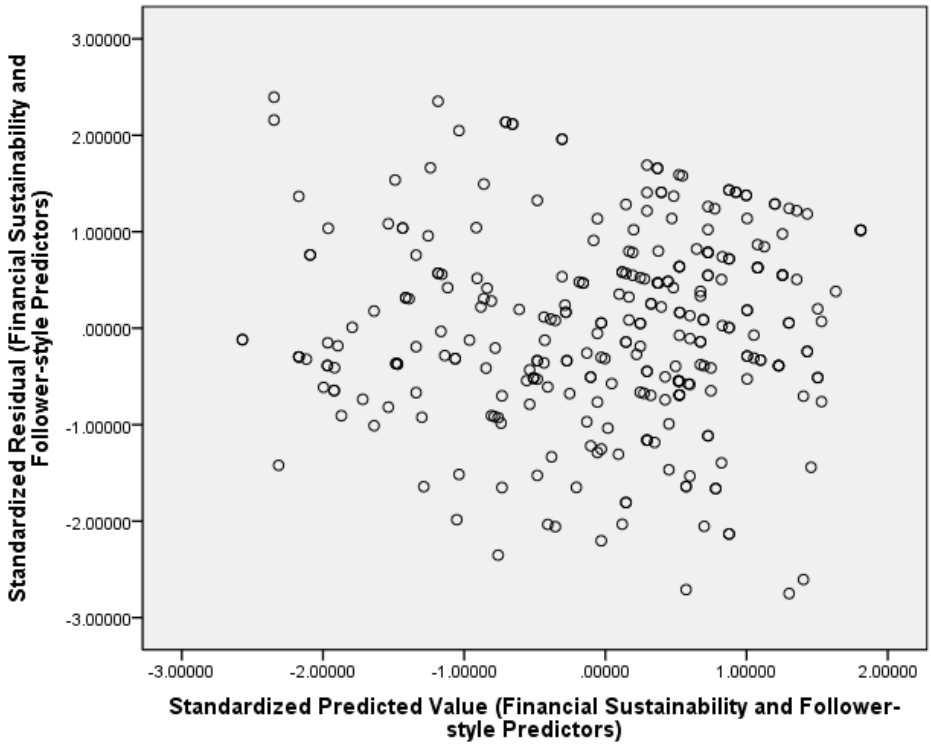
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.078	.743		1.450	.148		
	Honesty	.070	.082	.055	.854	.394	.879	1.138
	Competence	.028	.142	.014	.196	.845	.664	1.506
	Good judgment	.348	.165	.159	2.117	.035	.640	1.562
	Work ethic	.119	.176	.052	.674	.501	.606	1.649

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

Homoscedasticity






Standardized Residual (Financial Sustainability and Follower-style Predictors)
3.00000
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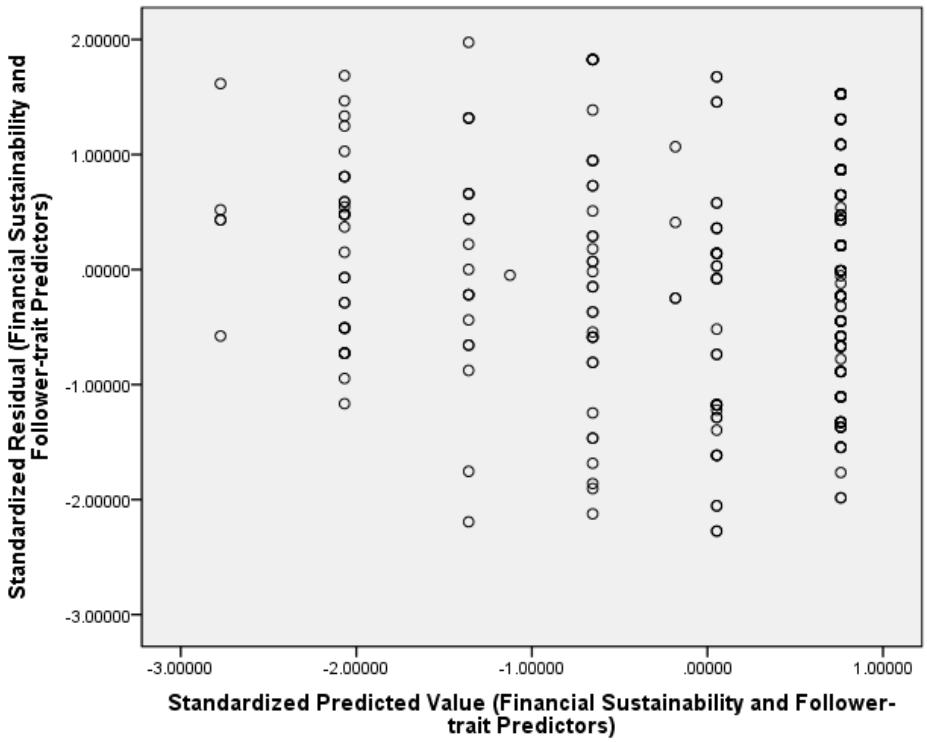
.00000
-1.00000
-2.00000
-3.00000
-3.00000
-2.00000
-1.00000
.00000
1.00000
2.00000
Standardized Predicted Value (Financial Sustainability and Follower-style Predictors)


Standardized Residual (Financial Sustainability and Follower-trait Predictors)
2.00000
1.00000
.00000
-1.00000
-2.00000
-3.00000
-3.00000
-2.00000
-1.00000
.00000
1.00000
Standardized Predicted Value (Financial Sustainability and Follower-trait Predictors)

Reliability

Reliability (Exemplary Follower)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.770	9

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I look for new ways to support my supervisor to achieve organizational goals	34.74	15.119	.521	.738
I understand my supervisor's goals and I work hard to help meet them	34.68	15.458	.465	.747
I look for opportunities to positively impact the organization's objectives	34.62	15.965	.455	.749
I provide helpful advice when my leader/supervisor needs someone to confide in	34.83	15.304	.452	.749
I ask multiple questions to understand issues during meetings in my workplace	35.22	14.669	.426	.756
I offer ideas to improve how work is done in my department to serve the best interest of the organization	34.75	14.866	.562	.732
I take the initiative to take out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond my job	34.78	15.592	.457	.748
I am a valuable asset to this organization	34.47	16.899	.330	.764
I think carefully and then express my opinion about critical issues to my leaders.	34.87	15.258	.423	.754

Reliability (Conformist – "yes" people in the organization)

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	269	80.8
	Excluded[a]	64	19.2
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.768	9

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I hesitate to act against the opinion of my boss	26.03	40.913	.231	.780
I reserve constructive feedback from my leader to avoid conflict	25.82	37.259	.487	.741
I feel it is important to comply with my boss's demands, so I don't look bad	26.46	35.242	.587	.724
I do what I'm told at workplace, I don't get involved	26.51	35.228	.572	.726

It is my duty to obey instructions to the end without questioning them	26.30	35.743	.580	.725
I believe that employees should do what their managers say, even if they don't know why	26.90	35.632	.560	.728
I agree with my supervisor's major decisions and ideas	25.59	40.556	.406	.753
I compromise, particularly on issues that are minor to me but important to others	26.23	38.715	.355	.762
I volunteer for an extra work assignment	25.19	42.363	.267	.769

Reliability (Pragmatic – Middle of the Road) – 1 statement deleted

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	315	94.6
	Excluded[a]	18	5.4
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.664	2

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear	2.67	2.338	.501	.
I work harder when I know my supervisor will see the results	2.29	1.825	.501	.

Reliability (Alienated)

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	291	87.4
	Excluded[a]	42	12.6
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.722	7

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I used to care alot about my work, but now other things are more important	11.72	19.429	.340	.717
*I feel this organisation care for me as a person	11.66	18.792	.417	.696
I have distanced myself from work due to mistreatment	12.01	18.428	.549	.662
*I feel the senior leaders of this organisation demonstrate integrity	11.57	19.646	.385	.702
I keep my best ideas for myself	11.42	18.059	.454	.686
*I get involved in organisational activities and function	12.18	20.067	.509	.679
*I seek information to familiarize myself with change/ innitiatives happening in this organisation	12.14	20.717	.454	.691

Reliability (Passive Follower) – 1 statement deleted

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	295	88.6
	Excluded[a]	38	11.4
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.604	5

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I limit my work according to the scope of my job description	8.85	12.454	.197	.636
I feel relieved when I leave my workstation	9.12	11.965	.267	.598
My opinions don't count at work	9.72	10.544	.489	.478
I daydream (gaze blankly) when at work	10.24	11.483	.396	.530
I don't feel connected to the events in my work place	10.18	10.855	.483	.485

Reliability (Honesty) – 2 statements deleted

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	316	94.9
	Excluded[a]	17	5.1
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.663	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
When someone ask me to keep something confident, I always do so completely	8.50	3.171	.430	.638
I have a reputation among my friends and coworkers for keeping my words	8.41	3.106	.556	.454
My coworkers say that my behavior is consistent with my values	8.36	3.749	.451	.601

Reliability (Competence)

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	312	93.7
	Excluded[a]	21	6.3
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.766	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I am able to cope well with the physical demands of my work	22.47	6.269	.501	.734
I am able to cope well with the mental demands of my work	22.54	5.972	.514	.732
I have the needed knowledge to do my work well	22.23	6.273	.678	.698
I have the needed skills to do my work well	22.25	6.161	.594	.711
I seek feedback in order to strengthen my effectiveness on the job	22.41	6.461	.402	.761
I regularly develop my competencies (Skills) to increase my value in the workplace	22.36	6.521	.423	.754

Reliability (Good Judgment)

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	309	92.8
	Excluded[a]	24	7.2

	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.777	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I am dependable (e.g., self-discplined, reliable and organised)	13.89	2.399	.495	.765
I share information and knowledge to assist my colleagues	13.94	2.116	.696	.662
I share information and knowledge to assist my leaders	14.08	2.111	.534	.755
I understand my role and contribution to this organization	13.88	2.357	.625	.705

Reliability (Work Ethic) – 1 statement deleted

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	314	94.3
	Excluded[a]	19	5.7
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.725	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
I do my best to contribute to the development of my organization	13.83	1.879	.600	.614
Attention to details is important to me	13.92	1.854	.539	.649
I can do my job with less supervision	13.73	2.089	.626	.622
I complete work in a timely manner	14.07	1.966	.364	.771

Reliability (Personality) – 2 traits deleted

Case Processing Summary

	N	%

Cases	Valid	302	90.7
	Excluded[a]	31	9.3
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.835	8

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
A dependable person - Reliable leader	28.80	22.069	.631	.809
Organized - plan things well and follows through with them	28.89	21.657	.670	.804
Kind and sympathizes with others' feelings	28.93	21.128	.669	.803
Concerned about others	28.85	21.899	.658	.806
Emotionally stable, not easily upset	29.30	22.403	.419	.836
Open-minded - tolerate opposing views	29.25	20.880	.535	.822
Daring - Likes to try new things and thinks outside the box	29.09	22.228	.492	.825
very outgoing - sociable	29.11	21.223	.528	.822

Reliability (Job Satisfaction)

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	295	88.6
	Excluded[a]	38	11.4
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.902	10

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job	35.75	45.189	.589	.897
I am encouraged to develop new and better ways of doing things	35.64	43.318	.713	.890
My job makes good use of my skills and abilities	35.65	44.527	.611	.895

I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills at my workplace	35.79	42.658	.688	.890
I am involved in the decisions that affect my work	36.02	43.816	.555	.898
Generally, my current job/work environment empowers ne to accomplish my work in an effective mannner	35.82	42.585	.710	.889
My work allows time for extra-curriculum activities	36.45	42.269	.518	.904
I get recognized by my leaders for a job well done	36.02	39.438	.777	.884
I am given access to resources to do my job well	35.96	40.348	.762	.885
I am satisfied with my chances for career advancement	36.07	40.539	.701	.889

Reliability (Financial Sustainability)

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	232	69.7
	Excluded[a]	101	30.3
	Total	333	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.684	6

Item-Total Statistics

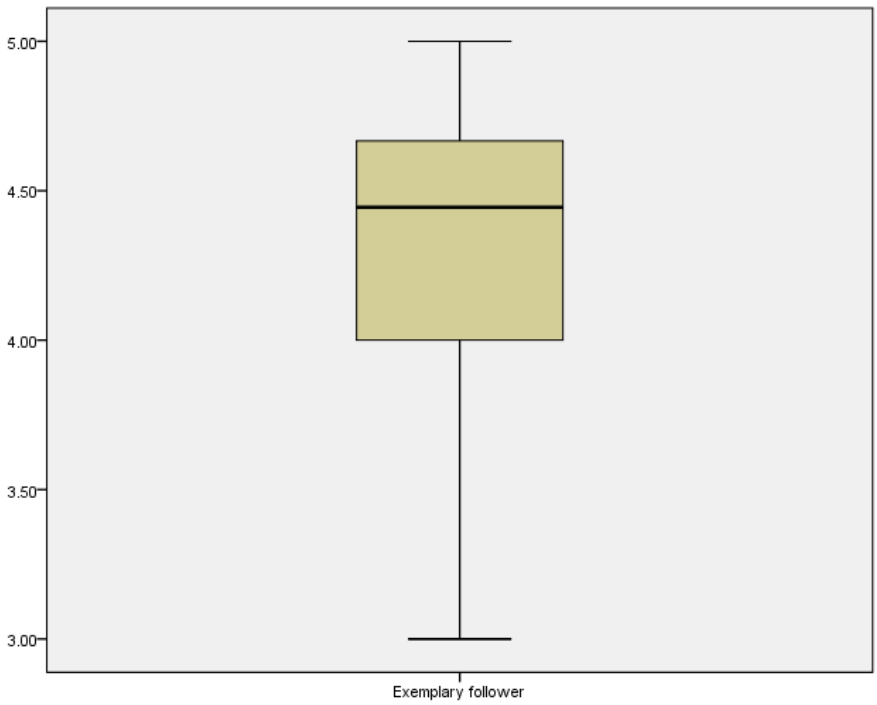
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
*My organization relies on external sources or higher organization to survive	18.45	18.231	.282	.694
I receive my full salary on time every month	17.85	18.775	.367	.658
*The institution often faces cash shortages to run operations smoothly	18.63	15.973	.600	.578
My organization is able to provide the needed materials and resources I need for my work	18.51	18.026	.429	.639
*My organization struggles to pay debt obligations on time	18.76	16.478	.470	.623
The financial situation in this institution is good	18.59	19.005	.367	.658

OUTLIERS

Exemplary Follower

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Exemplary follower	Mean		4.3322	.02661
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.2799	
		Upper Bound	4.3846	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.3548	
	Median		4.4444	
	Variance		.229	
	Std. Deviation		.47830	
	Minimum		3.00	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.00	
	Interquartile Range		.67	
	Skewness		-.615	.136
	Kurtosis		-.318	.271

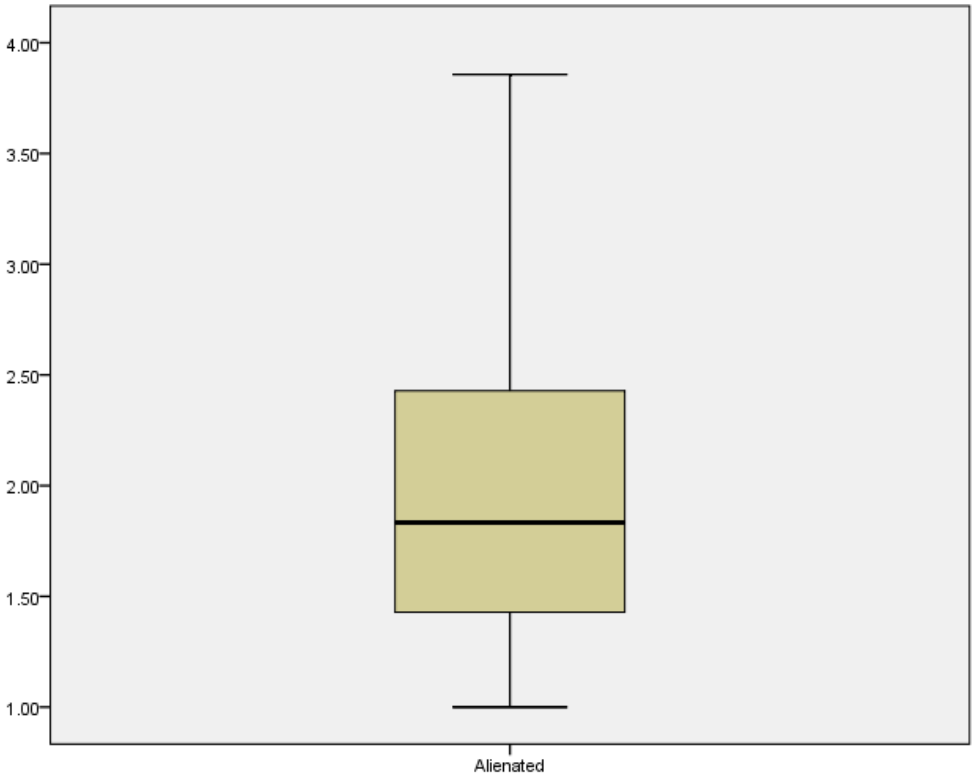


ALIENATED

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Alienated	Mean		1.9576	.03705
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	1.8847	
		Upper Bound	2.0305	

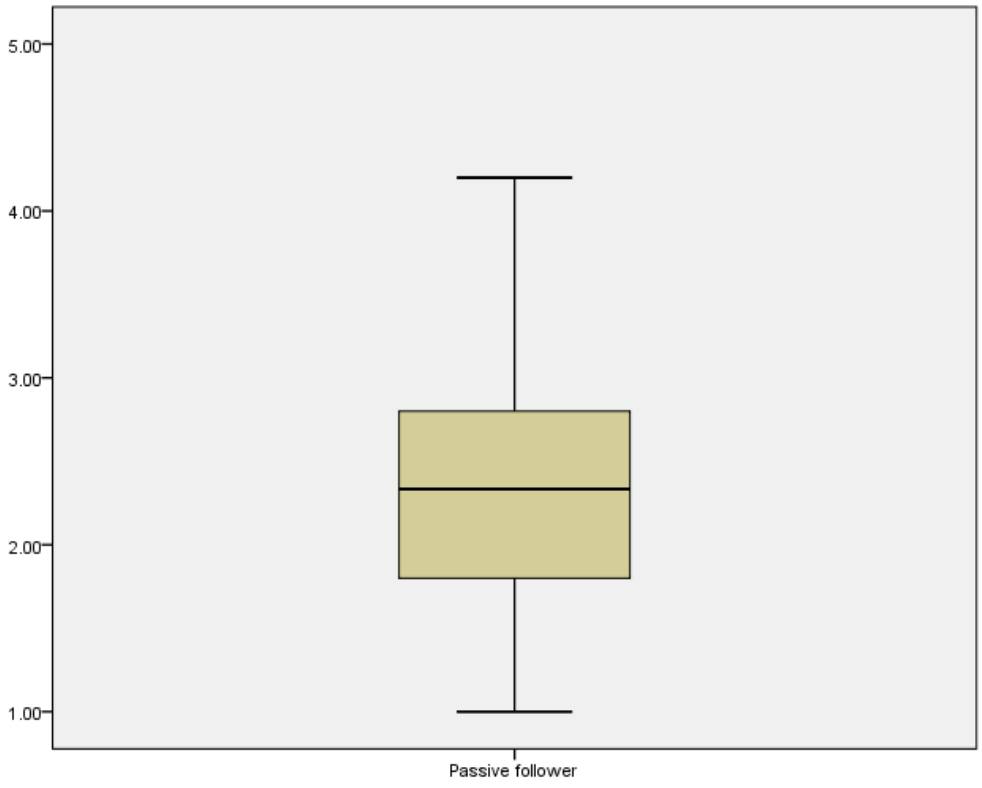
	5% Trimmed Mean	1.9272	
	Median	1.8333	
	Variance	.435	
	Std. Deviation	.65971	
	Minimum	1.00	
	Maximum	3.86	
	Range	2.86	
	Interquartile Range	1.00	
	Skewness	.634	.137
	Kurtosis	-.351	.273



PASSIVE FOLLOWER

Descriptives

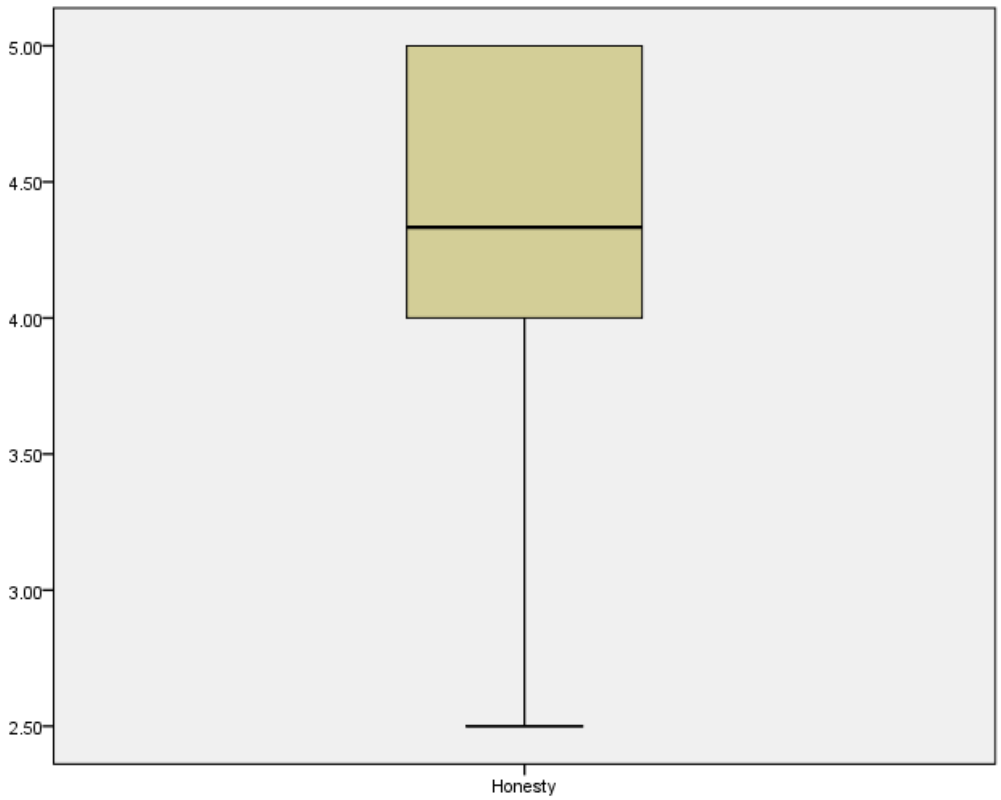
			Statistic	Std. Error
Passive follower	Mean		2.3436	.04213
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.2607	
		Upper Bound	2.4265	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.3193	
	Median		2.3333	
	Variance		.561	
	Std. Deviation		.74886	
	Minimum		1.00	
	Maximum		4.20	
	Range		3.20	
	Interquartile Range		1.00	
	Skewness		.395	.137
	Kurtosis		-.318	.273



HONESTY

Descriptives

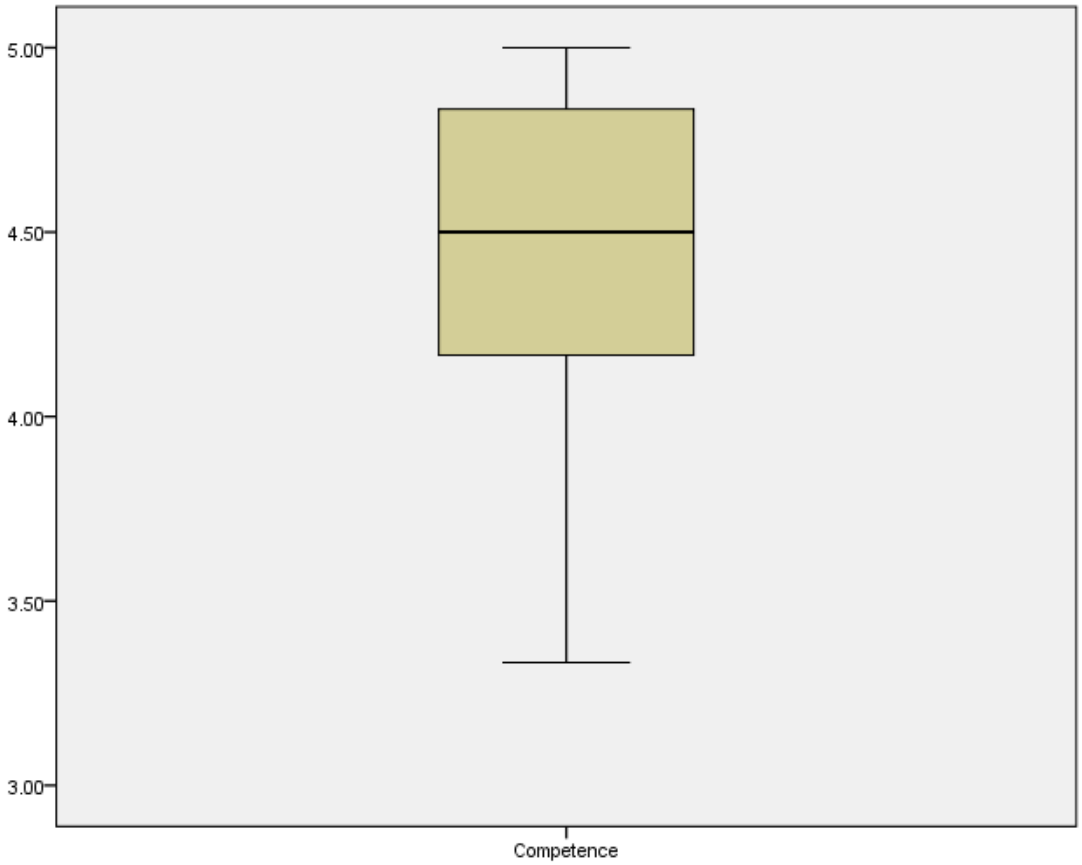
			Statistic	Std. Error
Honesty	Mean		4.3502	.03694
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.2775	
		Upper Bound	4.4229	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.4031	
	Median		4.3333	
	Variance		.417	
	Std. Deviation		.64612	
	Minimum		2.50	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.50	
	Interquartile Range		1.00	
	Skewness		-.972	.139
	Kurtosis		.222	.278



COMPETENCE

Descriptives

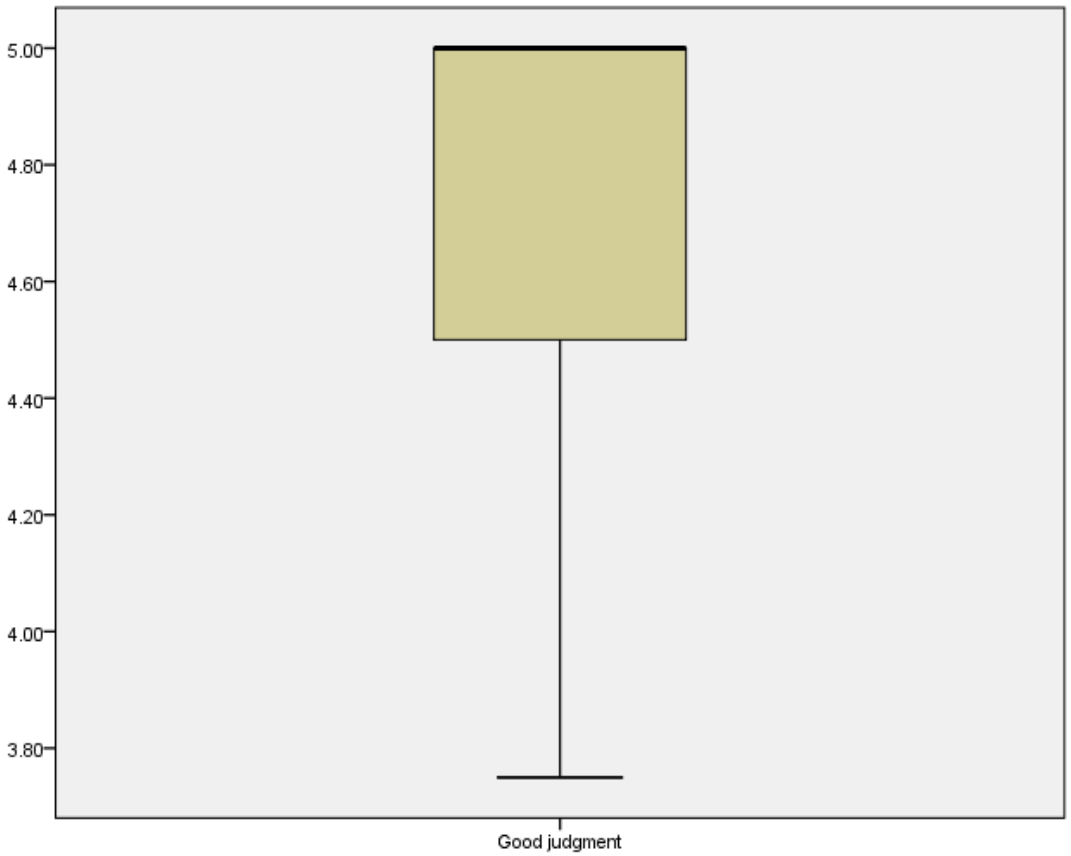
			Statistic	Std. Error
Competence	Mean		4.4887	.02456
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.4404	
		Upper Bound	4.5371	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.5148	
	Median		4.5000	
	Variance		.191	
	Std. Deviation		.43737	
	Minimum		3.33	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		1.67	
	Interquartile Range		.67	
	Skewness		-.593	.137
	Kurtosis		-.561	.273



GOOD JUDGMENT

Descriptives

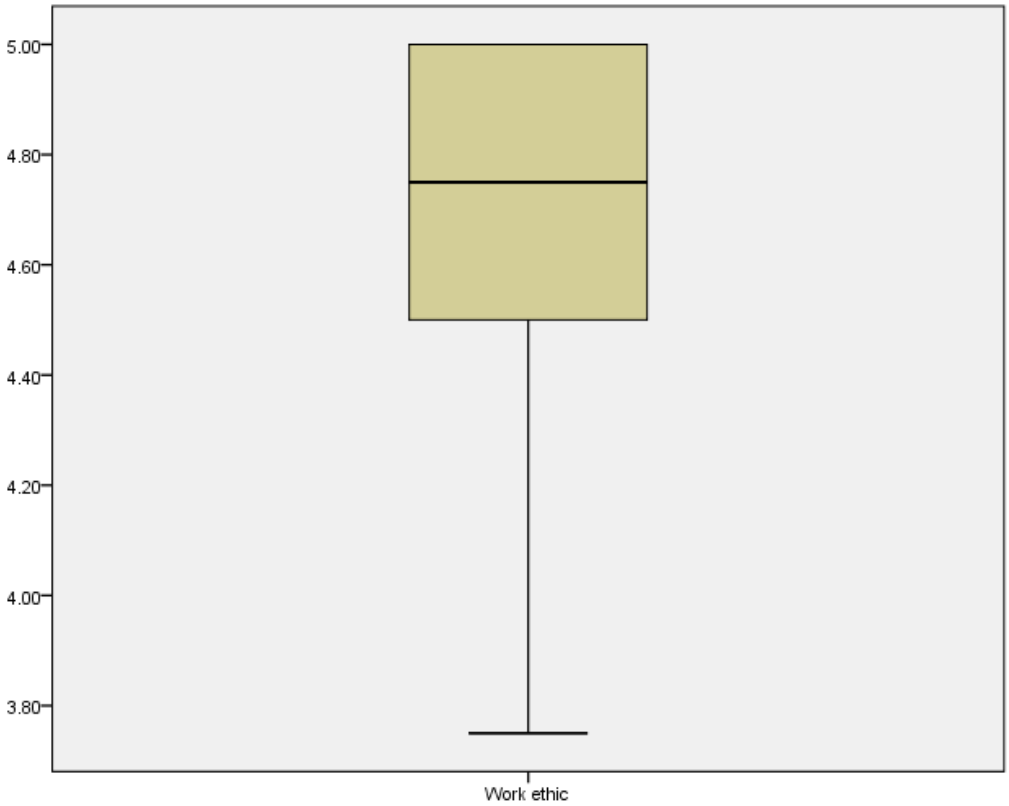
			Statistic	Std. Error
Good judgment	Mean		4.7049	.02134
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.6629	
		Upper Bound	4.7469	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.7332	
	Median		5.0000	
	Variance		.139	
	Std. Deviation		.37261	
	Minimum		3.75	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		1.25	
	Interquartile Range		.50	
	Skewness		-.986	.140
	Kurtosis		-.344	.278



WORK ETHIC

Descriptives

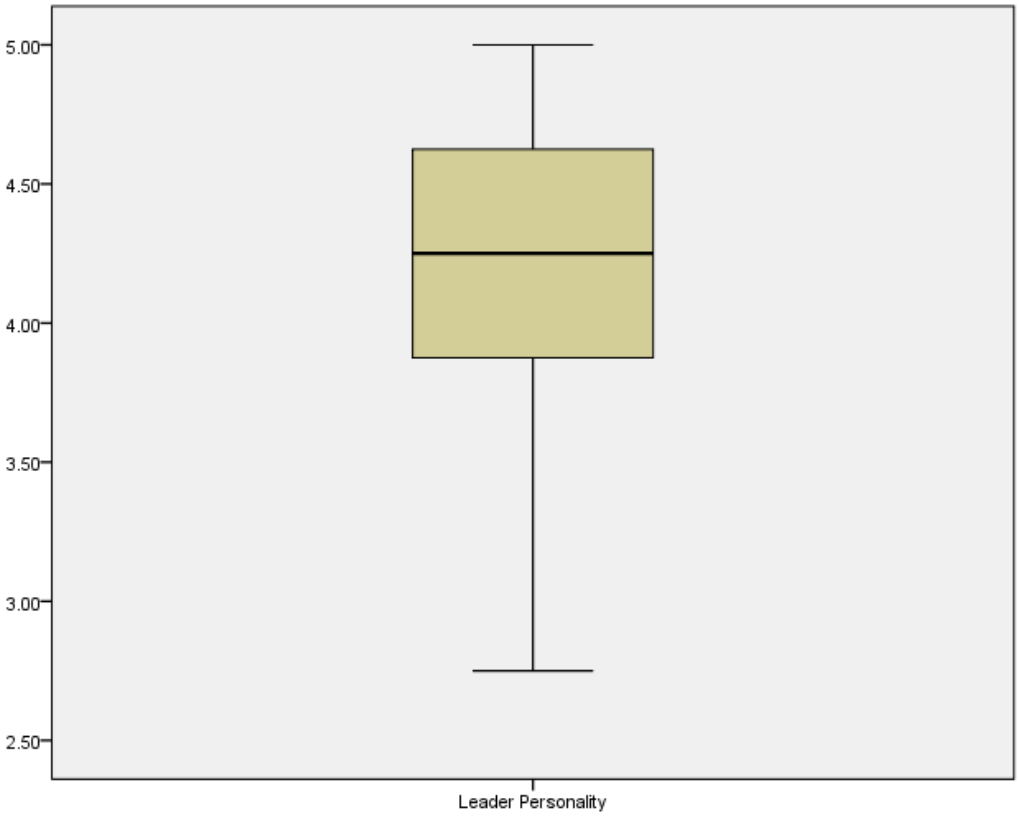
			Statistic	Std. Error
Work ethic	Mean		4.6859	.02032
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.6459	
		Upper Bound	4.7259	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.7110	
	Median		4.7500	
	Variance		.127	
	Std. Deviation		.35663	
	Minimum		3.75	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		1.25	
	Interquartile Range		.50	
	Skewness		-.923	.139
	Kurtosis		-.303	.277



LEADER PERSONALITY

Descriptives

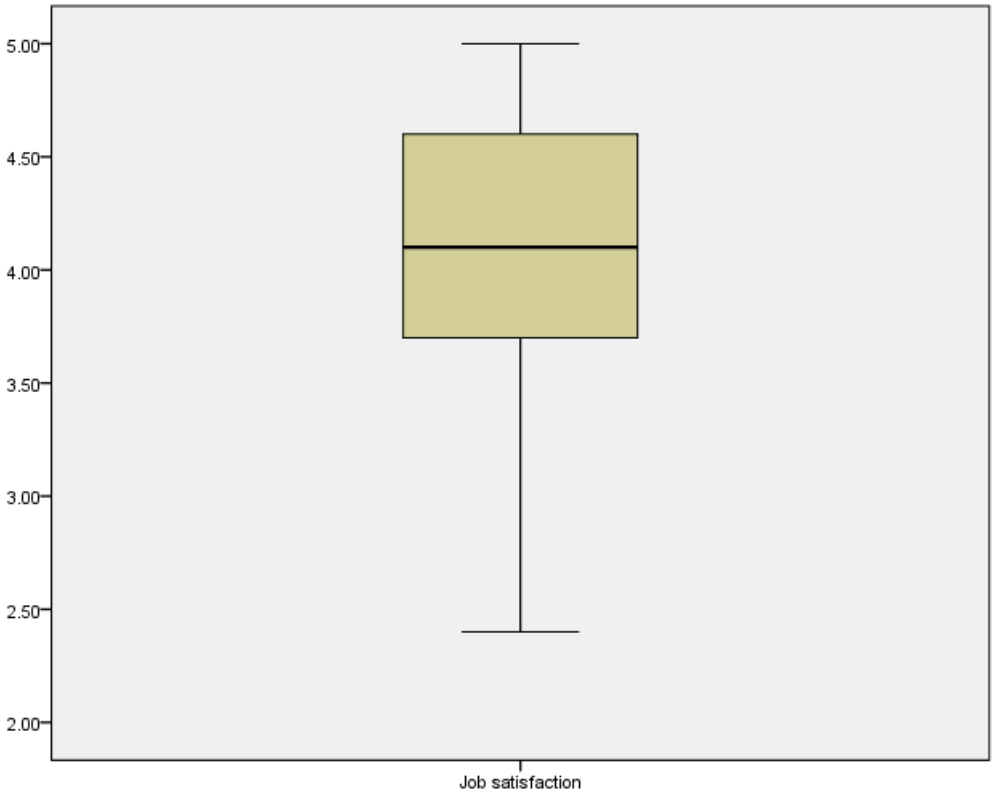
			Statistic	Std. Error
Leader Personality	Mean		4.2104	.03044
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.1505	
		Upper Bound	4.2703	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.2339	
	Median		4.2500	
	Variance		.286	
	Std. Deviation		.53507	
	Minimum		2.75	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.25	
	Interquartile Range		.75	
	Skewness		-.431	.139
	Kurtosis		-.399	.276



JOB SATISFACTION

Descriptives

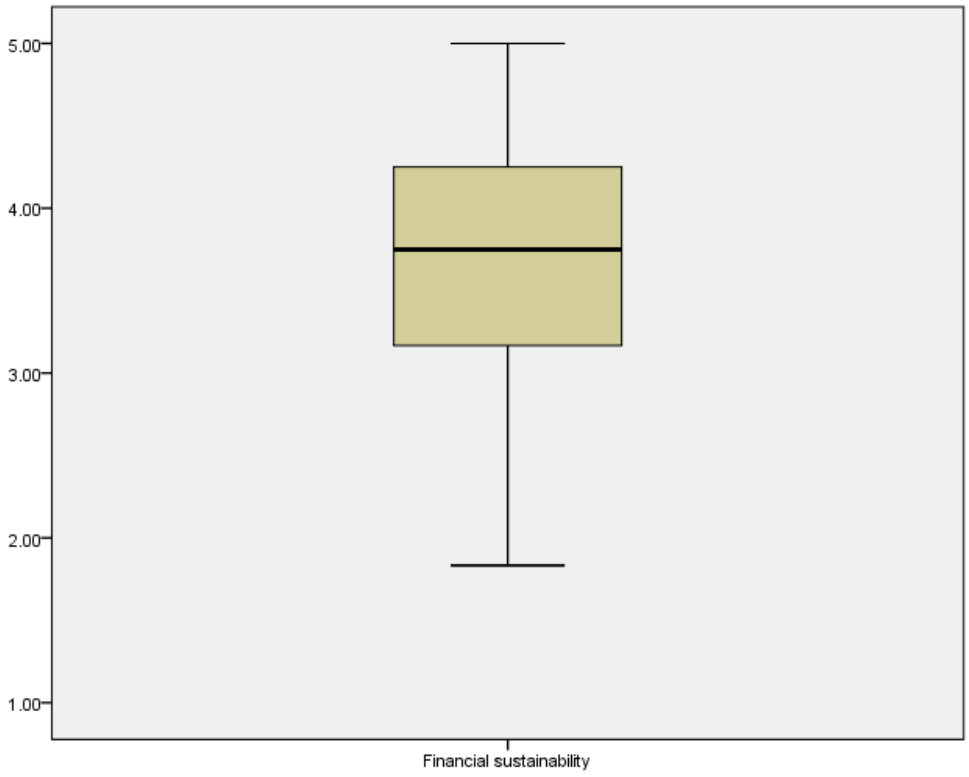
			Statistic	Std. Error
Job satisfaction	Mean		4.0913	.03368
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.0250	
		Upper Bound	4.1575	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.1128	
	Median		4.1000	
	Variance		.344	
	Std. Deviation		.58620	
	Minimum		2.40	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		2.60	
	Interquartile Range		.90	
	Skewness		-.426	.140
	Kurtosis		-.407	.279



FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
Financial sustainability	Mean		3.7074	.04346
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.6219	
		Upper Bound	3.7929	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.7187	
	Median		3.7500	
	Variance		.586	
	Std. Deviation		.76522	
	Minimum		1.83	
	Maximum		5.00	
	Range		3.17	
	Interquartile Range		1.10	
	Skewness		-.060	.138
	Kurtosis		-.730	.276



Demographic Data

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	235	71.9	75.3	75.3
	Female	77	23.5	24.7	100.0
	Total	312	95.4	100.0	
Missing	System	15	4.6		
Total		327	100.0		

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18-25 years	11	3.4	3.5	3.5
	26-30 years	36	11.0	11.6	15.1
	31-44 years	119	36.4	38.3	53.4
	45-54 years	95	29.1	30.5	83.9
	55 years and older	50	15.3	16.1	100.0
	Total	311	95.1	100.0	
Missing	System	16	4.9		
Total		327	100.0		

Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High school/secondary school	12	3.7	3.8	3.8
	College	28	8.6	8.9	12.7
	College Graduate	159	48.6	50.3	63.0
	Post-Graduate	117	35.8	37.0	100.0
	Total	316	96.6	100.0	
Missing	System	11	3.4		
Total		327	100.0		

Employment Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Regular	200	61.2	64.3	64.3
	Contractual	111	33.9	35.7	100.0
	Total	311	95.1	100.0	
Missing	System	16	4.9		
Total		327	100.0		

Job position

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Departmental Head/Supervisor	57	17.4	19.8	19.8
	Treasury	34	10.4	11.8	31.6
	Secretariat	18	5.5	6.3	37.8
	Media personality	4	1.2	1.4	39.2
	Factory/Kitchen staff	2	.6	.7	39.9
	Health worker	8	2.4	2.8	42.7
	Office Manager	1	.3	.3	43.1
	Teaching staff	27	8.3	9.4	52.4
	IT Technician	13	4.0	4.5	56.9
	other	124	37.9	43.1	100.0
	Total	288	88.1	100.0	
Missing	System	39	11.9		
Total		327	100.0		

Years of service

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than one year	19	5.8	6.0	6.0
	2-5 Years	69	21.1	21.8	27.8
	6-9 Years	45	13.8	14.2	42.1
	10-13 Years	56	17.1	17.7	59.8
	14-17 Years	32	9.8	10.1	69.9
	18-21 Years	31	9.5	9.8	79.7
	21-30 Years	41	12.5	13.0	92.7
	More than 31 Years	23	7.0	7.3	100.0
	Total	316	96.6	100.0	
Missing	System	11	3.4		
Total		327	100.0		

Followership Styles

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Exemplary follower	323	3.00	5.00	4.3322	.47830
Conformist "yes" people	326	1.88	4.33	3.1131	.42931
Pragmatic-middle of the road	325	1.00	5.00	2.4923	1.25429
Passive follower	316	1.00	4.20	2.3436	.74886
Alienated	317	1.00	3.86	1.9576	.65971

Followership Traits

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Good judgment	305	3.75	5.00	4.7049	.37261
Work ethic	308	3.75	5.00	4.6859	.35663
Competence	317	3.33	5.00	4.4887	.43737
Honesty	306	2.50	5.00	4.3502	.64612

		Job satisfaction	Financial sustainability
Leader Personality	Pearson Correlation	.439**	.271**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	293	296

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

Regression on Job Satisfaction

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.355[a]	.126	.123	.53889
2	.424[b]	.180	.174	.52304
3	.458[c]	.210	.202	.51422

a. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower
b. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated
c. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated, Pragmatic-middle of the road

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	12.026	1	12.026	41.412	.000[b]
	Residual	83.345	287	.290		
	Total	95.372	288			
2	Regression	17.131	2	8.565	31.310	.000[c]
	Residual	78.241	286	.274		
	Total	95.372	288			
3	Regression	20.012	3	6.671	25.227	.000[d]
	Residual	75.360	285	.264		
	Total	95.372	288			

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction
b. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower
c. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated
d. Predictors: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated, Pragmatic-middle of the road

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.224	.290		7.664	.000		
	Exemplary follower	.427	.066	.355	6.435	.000	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	3.121	.350		8.920	.000		
	Exemplary follower	.320	.069	.267	4.648	.000	.872	1.146
	Alienated	-.229	.053	-.248	-4.320	.000	.872	1.146
3	(Constant)	3.113	.344		9.051	.000		
	Exemplary follower	.295	.068	.246	4.332	.000	.861	1.161
	Alienated	-.279	.054	-.301	-5.136	.000	.805	1.242
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	.085	.026	.181	3.301	.001	.923	1.083

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	Conformist "yes" people	.126[b]	2.275	.024	.133	.982	1.018	.982
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	.103[b]	1.874	.062	.110	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Alienated	-.248[b]	-4.320	.000	-.247	.872	1.146	.872
	Passive follower	.002[b]	.028	.978	.002	.999	1.001	.999
2	Conformist "yes" people	.104[c]	1.928	.055	.113	.973	1.028	.864
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	.181[c]	3.301	.001	.192	.923	1.083	.805
	Passive follower	.093[c]	1.638	.103	.097	.878	1.139	.767
3	Conformist "yes" people	.093[d]	1.752	.081	.103	.969	1.032	.796
	Passive follower	.045[d]	.776	.438	.046	.810	1.234	.742

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction
b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Exemplary follower
c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated
d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Exemplary follower, Alienated, Pragmatic-middle of the road

Regression on Financial Sustainability

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.384[a]	.148	.145	.70836
2	.409[b]	.167	.161	.70150

a. Predictors: (Constant), Alienated
b. Predictors: (Constant), Alienated, Passive follower

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	25.319	1	25.319	50.458	.000[b]
	Residual	146.016	291	.502		

	Total	171.335	292			
2	Regression	28.626	2	14.313	29.086	.000[c]
	Residual	142.709	290	.492		
	Total	171.335	292			

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability
b. Predictors: (Constant), Alienated
c. Predictors: (Constant), Alienated, Passive follower

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.598	.130		35.337	.000		
	Alienated	-.455	.064	-.384	-7.103	.000	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	4.831	.157		30.724	.000		
	Alienated	-.385	.069	-.326	-5.600	.000	.849	1.178
	Passive follower	-.159	.061	-.151	-2.593	.010	.849	1.178

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	Exemplary follower	-.017[b]	-.295	.768	-.017	.873	1.146	.873
	Conformist "yes" people	-.062[b]	-1.126	.261	-.066	.979	1.022	.979
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	-.066[b]	-1.182	.238	-.069	.952	1.051	.952
	Passive follower	-.151[b]	-2.593	.010	-.151	.849	1.178	.849
2	Exemplary follower	-.002[c]	-.035	.972	-.002	.863	1.158	.735
	Conformist "yes" people	-.075[c]	-1.383	.168	-.081	.970	1.031	.840
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	-.035[c]	-.625	.533	-.037	.904	1.107	.806

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability
b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Alienated
c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Alienated, Passive follower

Regression on Job Satisfaction

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.371[a]	.138	.134	.52803

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competence

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.624	1	11.624	41.689	.000[b]
	Residual	72.771	261	.279		
	Total	84.395	262			

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction
b. Predictors: (Constant), Competence

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.728	.374		4.623	.000		
	Competence	.529	.082	.371	6.457	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	Honesty	.081[b]	1.322	.187	.082	.873	1.145	.873
	Good judgment	.092[b]	1.354	.177	.084	.720	1.389	.720
	Work ethic	-.038[b]	-.552	.581	-.034	.701	1.427	.701

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction
b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Competence

Regression on Financial Sustainability

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.208[a]	.043	.040	.75958

a. Predictors: (Constant), Good judgment

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.918	1	6.918	11.989	.001[b]
	Residual	153.474	266	.577		
	Total	160.391	267			

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability
b. Predictors: (Constant), Good judgment

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.566	.623		2.512	.013		
	Good judgment	.455	.131	.208	3.463	.001	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	Honesty	.067[b]	1.081	.281	.066	.944	1.059	.944
	Competence	.045[b]	.652	.515	.040	.769	1.300	.769
	Work ethic	.070[b]	.973	.331	.060	.695	1.438	.695

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability
b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Good judgment

MODERATING EFFECT OF GENDER ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND JOB SATISFACTION

Exemplary follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.609	.624		2.580	.010	.382	2.836		
	Exemplary follower	.572	.144	.482	3.976	.000	.289	.855	.212	4.723
	Interaction between exemplary follower style and gender	-.202	.162	-.677	-1.245	.214	-.521	.117	.010	95.252

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Pragmatic follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.970	.166		23.932	.000	3.643	4.297		
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	.040	.058	.087	.685	.494	-.074	.153	.213	4.697
	Interaction between pragmatic follower style and gender	.035	.065	.095	.543	.587	-.093	.164	.113	8.816

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.749	.204		23.240	.000	4.347	5.152		
	Alienated	-.333	.095	-.373	-3.495	.001	-.521	-.146	.279	3.580
	Interaction between alienated follower style and gender	.058	.113	.098	.519	.604	-.163	.280	.089	11.295

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF AGE GROUP ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND JOB SATISFACTION

Exemplary follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.253	.301		7.489	.000		
	Interaction between exemplary follower style and age group	-.034	.032	-.059	-1.054	.293	.998	1.002
	Exemplary follower	.424	.069	.345	6.175	.000	.998	1.002

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Pragmatic follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.901	.077		50.800	.000		
	Interaction between pragmatic follower style and age group	.012	.033	.021	.357	.721	.987	1.013
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	.079	.028	.166	2.821	.005	.987	1.013

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.668	.104		44.710	.000		
	Interaction between alienated follower style and age group	-.010	.031	-.018	-.314	.753	.994	1.006
	Alienated	-.303	.052	-.329	-5.824	.000	.994	1.006

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF EDUCATION ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND JOB SATISFACTION

Exemplary follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.208	.294		7.505	.000		
	Interaction between exemplary follower style and education	-.037	.032	-.064	-1.161	.247	.993	1.007
	Exemplary follower	.434	.067	.357	6.447	.000	.993	1.007

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Pragmatic follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.914	.076		51.469	.000		
	Interaction between pragmatic follower style and education	-.028	.034	-.047	-.813	.417	.997	1.003
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	.070	.027	.150	2.566	.011	.997	1.003

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.682	.103		45.357	.000		
	Interaction between alienated follower style and education	-.041	.027	-.084	-1.503	.134	.989	1.011
	Alienated	-.311	.051	-.339	-6.083	.000	.989	1.011

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND JOB SATISFACTION

Exemplary follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.719	.515		3.335	.001	.704	2.733		
	Exemplary follower	.547	.119	.445	4.609	.000	.313	.781	.333	3.007
	Interaction between exemplary follower style and employment status	-.171	.145	-.626	-1.173	.242	-.457	.116	.011	91.703

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Pragmatic follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.743	.127		29.542	.000	3.494	3.993		
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	.133	.044	.284	3.006	.003	.046	.219	.381	2.626
	Interaction between pragmatic follower style and employment status	-.094	.056	-.246	-1.667	.097	-.204	.017	.157	6.368

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.634	.164		28.328	.000	4.312	4.956		
	Alienated	-.286	.079	-.312	-3.622	.000	-.441	-.130	.429	2.332
	Interaction between alienated follower style and employment status	-.027	.104	-.048	-.262	.793	-.233	.178	.095	10.523

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF YEARS OF SERVICE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND JOB SATISFACTION

Exemplary follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.212	.292		7.575	.000		
	Interaction between exemplary follower style and years of service	-.014	.031	-.025	-.452	.652	.998	1.002
	Exemplary follower	.434	.067	.359	6.507	.000	.998	1.002

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Pragmatic follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	3.908	.076		51.735	.000		
	Interaction between pragmatic follower style and years of service	-.004	.033	-.007	-.122	.903	.996	1.004
	Pragmatic-middle of the road	.075	.027	.162	2.783	.006	.996	1.004

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.653	.102		45.470	.000		
	Interaction between alienated follower style and years of service	.019	.032	.034	.615	.539	.996	1.004
	Alienated	-.293	.051	-.322	-5.772	.000	.996	1.004

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF GENDER ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.661	.253		18.386	.000	4.162	5.160		
	Alienated	-.394	.116	-.338	-3.391	.001	-.622	-.165	.289	3.459
	Interaction between alienated follower style and gender	-.127	.138	-.163	-.922	.357	-.399	.144	.092	10.865

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

Passive follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.262	.280		15.211	.000	3.710	4.813		
	Passive follower	-.165	.113	-.156	-1.463	.145	-.386	.057	.285	3.509
	Interaction between passive follower style and gender	-.141	.133	-.213	-1.061	.290	-.403	.121	.080	12.495

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

MODERATING EFFECT OF AGE GROUP ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.642	.129		35.977	.000		
	Interaction between alienated follower style and age group	-.041	.038	-.058	-1.074	.284	.998	1.002
	Alienated	-.485	.063	-.415	-7.704	.000	.998	1.002

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

Passive follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.353	.146		29.793	.000		
	Passive follower	-.275	.060	-.260	-4.559	.000	1.000	1.000
	Interaction between passive follower style and age group	.007	.044	.009	.165	.869	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

MODERATING EFFECT OF EDUCATION ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.618	.129		35.720	.000		
	Interaction between alienated follower style and education	-.031	.035	-.047	-.866	.387	.993	1.008
	Alienated	-.466	.063	-.401	-7.426	.000	.993	1.008

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

Passive follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.333	.146		29.775	.000		
	Interaction between passive follower style and education	-.019	.039	-.028	-.496	.620	.996	1.004
	Passive follower	-.264	.060	-.250	-4.401	.000	.996	1.004

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

MODERATING EFFECT OF YEARS OF SERVICE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.655	.126		36.853	.000		
	Interaction between alienated follower style and years of service	-.021	.039	-.029	-.551	.582	.993	1.007
	Alienated	-.491	.061	-.425	-7.981	.000	.993	1.007

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

Passive follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.344	.145		29.880	.000		
	Interaction between passive follower style and years of service	-.017	.042	-.022	-.392	.696	.998	1.002
	Passive follower	-.269	.060	-.255	-4.493	.000	.998	1.002

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

MODERATING EFFECT OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER STYLES AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Alienated follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.705	.203		23.144	.000	4.305	5.105		
	Alienated	-.501	.096	-.429	-5.243	.000	-.690	-.313	.437	2.288
	Interaction between alienated follower style and employment status	.064	.128	.086	.498	.619	-.188	.315	.098	10.158

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

Passive follower style

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.549	.251		18.096	.000	4.054	5.044		
	Passive follower	-.357	.107	-.334	-3.353	.001	-.567	-.148	.328	3.048
	Interaction between passive follower style and employment status	.132	.130	.218	1.015	.311	-.124	.388	.071	14.080

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

MODERATING EFFECT OF GENDER ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS (COMPETENCE) AND JOB SATISFACTION

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.962	.666		1.445	.150	-.349	2.273		
	Competence	.694	.148	.512	4.691	.000	.403	.986	.245	4.080
	Interaction between competence trait and gender	-.152	.170	-.516	-.894	.372	-.488	.183	.009	113.720

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF AGE GROUP ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS (COMPETENCE) AND JOB SATISFACTION

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.322	.332		3.976	.000		
	Competence	.615	.073	.447	8.369	.000	1.000	1.000
	Interaction between competence trait and age group	-.043	.032	-.071	-1.334	.183	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF EDUCATION ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS (COMPETENCE) AND JOB SATISFACTION

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.316	.330		3.987	.000		
	Interaction between competence trait and education	-.002	.032	-.004	-.077	.939	.996	1.004
	Competence	.617	.073	.449	8.435	.000	.996	1.004

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS (COMPETENCE) AND JOB SATISFACTION

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.941	.535		1.759	.080	-.112	1.994		
	Competence	.698	.118	.513	5.913	.000	.466	.930	.380	2.632
	Interaction between competence trait and employment status	-.158	.150	-.584	-1.053	.293	-.453	.137	.009	107.207

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF YEARS OF SERVICE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS (COMPETENCE) AND JOB SATISFACTION

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.294	.326		3.966	.000		
	Interaction between competence trait and years of service	-.046	.031	-.078	-1.482	.139	.999	1.001
	Competence	.624	.072	.454	8.631	.000	.999	1.001

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

MODERATING EFFECT OF GENDER ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS (GOOD JUDGMENT) AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.475	1.150		1.282	.201	-.789	3.738		
	Good judgment	.507	.244	.239	2.082	.038	.027	.986	.264	3.794
	Interaction between good judgment trait and gender	-.135	.284	-.362	-.477	.634	-.694	.423	.006	166.666

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

MODERATING EFFECT OF AGE GROUP ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS (GOOD JUDGMENT) AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.596	.600		2.661	.008		
	Good judgment	.449	.127	.211	3.543	.000	.976	1.025
	Interaction between good judgment trait and age group	.071	.045	.094	1.576	.116	.976	1.025

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

MODERATING EFFECT OF EDUCATION ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS (GOOD JUDGMENT) AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.909	.577		3.307	.001		
	Interaction between good judgment trait and education	.013	.043	.018	.300	.764	.995	1.005
	Good judgment	.384	.122	.185	3.147	.002	.995	1.005

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

MODERATING EFFECT OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Coefficients[a]										
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.150	.934		2.302	.022	.311	3.989		
	Good judgment	.332	.199	.159	1.671	.096	-.059	.723	.384	2.605
	Interaction between good judgment trait and employment status	.101	.253	.298	.398	.691	-.398	.599	.006	160.375
a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability										

MODERATING EFFECT OF YEARS OF SERVICE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOLLOWER TRAITS AND FINANCIAL SUSTAINABILITY

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.992	.576		3.456	.001		
	Interaction between good judgment trait and years of service	.035	.046	.046	.775	.439	.993	1.007
	Good judgment	.364	.122	.177	2.988	.003	.993	1.007

a. Dependent Variable: Financial sustainability

CURRICULUM VITAE

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4. 2015: MA Leadership, Adventist University of Africa

Professional Information

1. 2010-2012-Volunteer at the Everlasting Gospel Publishing House (EGPA)- S. Korea
2. 2012-2013-Secretary at the East-Central Africa Division (ECD) Media Center
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5. 2020-2024-Editor at the West Kenya Union Conference
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