

**FOLLOWERSHIP AMONG
SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS**

by

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Abstract

Today, it is encouraging that followership is regarded as a factor within the leadership equation. However, research attention on followership overall is limited and within the field of education, its study remains firmly in the shadows. Indeed, a search for published followership-centric research carried out in this field revealed just 17 studies worldwide, with Thody's contribution (2003) the sole point of reference within the UK.

This study contributes to this limited body of research by exploring the followership of school teachers working in the secondary education sector. Using Gronn's Career Model (1999) as a framework to understand why teachers follow, the study used biographical-style interviews (n=15) to reveal factors that have shaped the agency of school teachers, influencing their journeys to followership. In addition, the study administered Kelley's (1992) Followership Questionnaire in order to understand how teachers follow (n=69).

A number of factors emerge from the data that were reported as influential in determining why teachers follow. Here, the influence of parents, schooling and of key people align with the findings reported in the research carried out on the career journeys of senior educational leaders. Regarding how teachers follow, the qualitative findings revealed six key follower behaviours displayed by the teachers, i.e. upward influencing, challenging, self-managing, pro-active and engaging, passivity, and dissenting. Further, the quantitative findings revealed the dominance of exemplary followership (86%) with pragmatic followership representing the remaining 14% of the group. While no relationship was found between gender or length of service of the teachers and how they enact followership, the analysis did reveal a statistically significant result linking the teachers' leadership practice to effective followership.

In sum, the combined insight drawn from the quantitative and qualitative data reveals a predominance of exemplary followership among the teachers involved in this study. Further, it is argued that this approach to followership is dominant among teachers due to them being engaged in leadership practice, both within and beyond the classroom. In addition, the teachers' commitment to task, enhanced through working in a profession that enables them to satisfy important values and beliefs, is also believed to encourage the practice of exemplary followership.

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Finally, one thing that is evident in this research is the impact of parental influence on those teachers engaged in this study. Well the same goes for me. Thank you for hosting my research retreats and for your never-ending encouragement Mum; and, yes, he'd be very proud.

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CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION

‘Who is not fascinated by the dance between leaders and followers, who depend on each other as surely as animals and air?’

Bennis (2008, p. xxiii)

Introduction

Kelley (1988, p. 143) observed that ‘followership dominates our lives and organisations, but not our thinking, because our preoccupation with leadership keeps us from considering the nature and importance of the follower’. While this fixation with the leader continues today, encouragingly the study of followership has now established itself as a research topic in its own right; referred to by Bligh (2011, p. 426) as ‘an emerging critical, even ‘controversial’ stream of theorising and research that has provided an alternative to the mainstream leadership tradition’.

Defining followership is not simple, as it has not been exposed to the same scrutiny as leadership; therefore, Grint’s (2005) suggestion that leadership is a contested concept would be even truer of followership. Uhl-Bien et al. (2014, p. 96) help establish a clearer understanding of followership in their description of it being ‘the characteristics, behaviours and processes of individuals acting in relation to their leader.’ In their view, the construct of followership must include a follower role (i.e. a position in relation to a leader), follower behaviours (i.e. behaviours in relation to leaders), and outcomes associated with the leadership process.

This study embraces what Uhl-Bien et al. (2014, p. 84) describe as the ‘role-based approach’ to the study of followership; one concerned with the nature and impact of

followership in hierarchical roles. In other words, the role played by individuals occupying a formal or informal position or rank; for example, followers as subordinates. In this sense, followership can be seen as the response of people in subordinate positions to those in senior ones. Unfortunately, the term is often linked to subservience or passive obedience to orders. However, while the role-based approach views followership as being undertaken by people in subordinate positions, being a subordinate is not synonymous with being a follower. Gardner (1991) makes this point very clearly when he stated 'there are millions of executives who imagine that their place on the organizational chart has given them a body of followers. And of course it hasn't. It has given them subordinates. Whether subordinates become followers depends on whether the executives act like leaders.'

Meindl (1995) took the notion of followers as leaders a step further when he observed that the practice of leadership is not limited to formal, top-down relationships. In his view, while some individuals may behave in a manner characterised as subordinate, i.e. subservient or passively obedient, others will engage constructively, challenge and lead. On this point, Kelley (1992), a key contributor to the advancement of contemporary followership research, binds leadership and followership closely together; going so far as to say that effective followership can be described as the legitimate process of becoming a leader.

Reflecting on the lack of attention received by followers within the leadership equation, Avolio and Reichard (2008, p. 326) observed that 'the follower has typically been included as an afterthought in most traditional leadership theories

and where the follower had been included, it is usually in terms of what the leader is “doing to” the follower, not the reverse.’ The tendency to leave the follower ‘in the shadows’ has caused some commentators to suggest that the study of followership remains largely an unstudied discipline (Bjugstad et al., 2006; Carsten et al., 2010).

This study is set in an educational context where commentators have also highlighted challenges associated with research undertaken in this area. For instance, Lortie (1975, p. vii) observed that ‘although books and articles instructing teachers on how they should behave are legion, empirical studies of teaching work remain rare’. Goodson (2008, p.1) laments that very little has changed in the 30 years since this comment; thereby suggesting that educational research remains ‘long on prescription, but short on description’. Spurred on by this, this study counters Goodson’s concern over the lack of empirical research focused on teachers. Further, it responds favourably to Shamir (2007, p. ix), who requested that researchers should ‘reverse the lens’ and place followers centre stage; positioning them as causal agents within the leader-follower dynamic.

The broad aim of this study is to contribute to the limited body of literature aimed exclusively at followership within an educational context by exploring the followership of school teachers working in the secondary education sector. The study investigates factors that have shaped the agency of teachers, identifying the impacts and influences in their lives and careers that have guided their journeys to followership. Scholars who have investigated educational leadership, such as Ouston (1997), Gronn (1999) and Ribbins (2003), provide a key frame of reference to the study in its investigation of why teachers follow. In addition, the study uses

Kelley's (1992) Followership Model in order to better understand how the participating teachers follow and also to test the general feeling about followership among those teachers.

The Research Questions

An investigation into the followership of teachers and the nature and formation of their approach as followers yields a range of important questions. However, the three research questions considered central to this study are:

RQ1. What is known about followership in an educational context?

RQ2. Why do teachers become followers?

RQ3. How do teachers follow?

The study adopts a number of strategies to respond to the three research questions. Regarding research question one, the study seeks to provide a theoretical grounding. The response is developed within the literature review chapter and made explicit in the concluding chapter.

In response to research question two, the investigation is aligned to and validated by the approach taken by scholars such as Ouston (1997), Gronn (1999) and Ribbins (2003) in their explorations of the leadership journeys of senior educationalists. Pertinently, Ribbins (2003) spoke of how people's lives are comprised of influences that shape the kind of people that future leaders (and I argue future followers) become.

In this study, followership is seen through the lens of the behaviour in which an individual engages while interacting with his or her leader in an effort to meet the goals of the organisation. This acknowledges Uhl-Bien and Pillai's (2007) stance that an individual's followership schema is developed through socialisation and past experiences of leaders and of other followers. Consequently, for this study to investigate why teachers become followers, it must understand what has influenced their behaviour and their thinking throughout the key stages of their lives. In other words, it must understand the impact of the action and interaction of key agencies, such as family, school and influential people.

Underpinning the response to the third research question (how do teachers follow?), the study draws upon both qualitative and quantitative data, using Kelley's (1992) Followership Model as a significant reference point. Here, quantitative data drawn from Kelley's Followership Model questionnaire (n=69) is used in combination with qualitative data drawn from the semi-structured biographical interviews (n=15), in order to better understand how teachers enact followership.

The Justification for the Research

Ribbins and Gunter (2002) observe that research in the field of educational leadership needs to focus on understanding how and why people respond to leadership. Aligned to this, Spillane (2005, p. 143), commenting on the limitations of the study of leadership practice, spoke of how 'it dwells mostly on the "what" of leadership structures, functions, routines, and roles, rather than the "how" of school leadership'. This study posits that understanding why and how people follow is

important to leaders and followers alike. With this understanding one can design environments and situations that will attract, accommodate and retain followers. In an era where there is much talk of the importance of educational settings embracing a distributed style of leadership, the possibility of headteachers taking leadership seriously and engaging followers in this is an exciting prospect.

Accordingly, I feel strongly that there is much to be gained from investigating followership within schools; not least as little followership research exists currently within educational leadership. Consequently, this study will add to the existing research base and can lead to an expanded view of followership (and leadership); thereby helping to shape future research in this important area. Furthermore, it is anticipated that the study can add to professional knowledge and understanding of the leader-follower relationship in an educational environment, and help determine the scope for follower-centric intervention in existing educational leadership development programmes.

In summary, all three questions aim to produce data that will enable the first empirical investigation of how and why secondary school teachers follower.

Followership: Key Authors

Much has been written about leadership over the years, including that which occurs within the field of education. Moreover, while the leader-centric focus remains dominant in leadership literature, followership is being recognised steadily as playing an important part in the leadership process. While the interest in

followership within organisations has occurred largely over the last 25 years or so, it is only within the last decade that we have witnessed the introduction of empirical studies. This builds upon the theoretical and conceptual research that had dominated the research field, until this point. This step change in research activity has increased attention on followership. Its stature within leadership literature has been further bolstered by the recent publication of several 'special edition' journals and books devoted solely to its further understanding; for example, Kellerman (2008); Lapierre and Carsten (2014); Riggio, Chaleff and Lipman-Blumen (2008); Shamir et al. (2007).

It is encouraging that followership is regarded today as a factor within the leadership equation and a burgeoning research topic. However, research attention on followership overall remains limited. There are a number of explanations offered as to why followership has remained in the shadow of leadership; for example, Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson and Morris (2006) spoke of the negative connotations of the term referring to the link between followership and demeaning words, such as passive and conforming, and where followers have been labelled pejoratively as sheep, bystanders and underachievers. Further, Agho (2009) suggests that dominant within leadership commentary is the erroneous belief that people understand instinctively how to be effective followers. As Kelley observed; 'this perspective is based on the assumption that good followership consists of simply executing the leader's request' (1988, p. 305). Agho (2009) also laid blame on business schools and professional development providers for remaining silent on followership and failing to highlight the importance of the impact of effective and ineffective followers on organisational success.

A further popular explanation for why so little attention is paid to followership arises from the long-standing misconception that leadership is more important than followership (Bligh and Kohles, 2012). Shamir (2007) suggests that, until the 1980s, attention had been directed almost exclusively towards the background, personality traits, perceptions and actions of the leader. In support, Yukl and Van Fleet (1992, p. 186) commented that 'most of the prevailing leadership theories had been simple, unidirectional models of what a leader does to subordinates.'

It took the pioneering work of scholars, such as Kelley (1988), Meindl (1995) and Chaleff (1995), to challenge this view. They shared the belief that commentators had allowed leadership to assume a romanticised, 'larger than life' status (Meindl, 1995) resulting in the exultation of the 'great man' (sic) approach to leadership and the virtual invisibility of followers within the organisational success equation. These early voices spoke and wrote about the importance of followership as they explored different follower types and prototypical follower behaviours. In his ground-breaking paper published in the Harvard Business Review entitled 'In Praise of Followers', Kelley (1988) argued that leader-centric research had for too long dominated studies to the exclusion of all others within an organisation.

Kelley's (1992) seminal work, which remains one of the most important contributions to followership literature, distinguished followers in terms of their behaviour and personality attributes. His model developed different styles of followership based upon two key dimensions: level of independent, critical thinking and engagement. From this, Kelley (1992) defined five basic styles of follower; conformist, passive, alienated, pragmatic, and exemplary followers. Each exhibits

differing degrees of independent thinking and engagement within the organisation (this model is discussed in detail in the literature review chapter).

In the footsteps of Kelley was Ira Chaleff (1995) whose book, 'The Courageous Follower', added further weight to the argument surrounding the importance of the part played by followers within organisations. His work took a different approach from Kelley in that he narrowed the typology so that his model focused solely upon dimensions of *courageous* followership. Based upon these criteria, Chaleff established four follower types: partner; implementer; individualist; and resource. The prioritisation of followers was also promoted by Meindl (1995), who introduced the concept of 'the romance of leadership' an attributional approach to leadership that questioned why recognition and credit was given to leaders for influencing and changing institutions and societies. He challenged the taken-for-granted assumption that leadership is important in its own right, questioning the charisma and heroism attached to various forms of leadership. Significantly, his work switched the focus from leaders to followers. Moreover, it was the first explicitly follower-centric approach to leadership that sought to challenge the many leader-centric approaches that dominated leadership research and practice at that time (Bligh and Kohles, 2011). Since these early pioneers, a number of other commentators have focused upon followership and they are considered more fully in the literature review chapter of this study.

More recently, Shamir (2007, p. ix) encouraged researchers 'to reverse the lens', urging a paradigm shift. This was similar to the move in the late 1980s, which saw researchers step away from focusing solely on leaders in order to consider both

leaders and followers within leadership practice. Here, Shamir (2007) called for researchers to move followers more sharply into focus and for followership research to be both empirical in nature and draw upon evidence from those that follow, rather than from those who observe followership; i.e. leaders. This approach and perspective dominated the study of followership until the last decade.

While research into educational leadership is plentiful, the same cannot be said for the study of followership in the field of education; this is especially true in the UK. In fact, only a handful of studies exist that address specifically followership in an educational context, with only one followership-centric study emanating from the UK. In 2003, Thody published a paper entitled 'Followership in educational organisations; a pilot mapping of the territory'. From this study, she proposed a lexicon of follower descriptors. Her work placed followers on an equal footing with leaders; significantly, it challenged the notion that followership is determined solely by leadership. Thody argued that followers had lives of their own, independent of leaders, observing that the manner in which they behave 'is at least as much an outcome of their personalities, their positions, their purposes and their own planning, as it is of leadership' (2003, p. 141).

Career Models of Educational Leadership: Key Authors

Thody's (2003) understanding of followership and its formation encouraged me to reflect upon those studies that focus on the 'making' of educational leaders and the approaches taken to map their subjects' routes to leadership. Gronn and Ribbins (1996, p. 465), two commentators at the forefront of research in this area, observed

that:

There is an absence of any systematic understanding in the literature of how individuals get to be leaders, and ignorance of culturally diverse patterns of defining leadership and knowledge of the culturally different ways prospective leaders learn their leadership remains in its infancy.

In 1999, Gronn published his seminal research, which devised a leadership career model that utilised a framework ordering the biographical details of educational leaders' lives from the perspective of career. This contextually driven model acknowledges the interplay between agency and structure, and provides a useful framework for researchers to capture the multiple realities of participants. It also provides a window into how their careers are shaped by the historical, cultural and societal context in which they live and work.

The first stage of Gronn's (1999) Career Model is entitled 'formation' and is concerned with early stage influences on leaders, from childhood to adulthood. He called the second stage 'accession', which is when the leader develops a 'repertoire' of skills and experiences in preparation for headship (1999, p. 36). The third stage is labelled 'incumbency' and refers to the period of employment as an educational leader; while the fourth stage that of 'divestiture', refers to the final stage of the leader's career where, ultimately, they step out of their role. These stages engage the teacher in what Ouston (1997, p. 130) describes as a mix of 'nature, nurture and experience'. They influence and shape both their desire to lead and the approach they take to leadership.

Significantly, Gronn's (1999) Career Model is suited to this study as it draws attention to why teachers become leaders, rather than the type of leaders they

become. Consequently, this study uses Grønn's Career Model as a key frame of reference in its quest to explore why teachers become followers.

Research Design

Habermas (1972) wrote that knowledge is formed through one of three cognitive interest areas, i.e. the technical, practical and emancipator, each of which outlines specific learning methods. This study focuses on people and relationships. Here, knowledge is sought from understanding human behaviour and how people relate to one another; as such, it aligns with Habermas' 'practical' interest area. Further, the study sits within what Ribbins and Gunter (2002, p. 375) refer to as the 'humanistic domain' as it looks to 'gather and theorise from experiences and biographies.'

This study adopts a mixed-methods research design. This approach exemplifies the belief that qualitative and quantitative methods should be viewed as complementary rather than incompatible. Tashakkori and Creswell (2007, p. 4) describe mixed-method as 'research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or program of inquiry.'

This study uses the most common and well-known approach to mixing methods; the triangulation design. This approach 'attempts to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint' (Cohen and Manion, 2000; p. 254). Significantly, mixed-methods

research embraces a pragmatic approach, rather than conforming to a methodological orthodoxy. On this point, describing the philosophy of pragmatism, Johnson and Christensen (2004) observe that what works and what is useful should be used, regardless of any philosophical assumptions, paradigmatic assumptions or any other type of assumptions.

Headteachers in five schools in *Randleshire* agreed to support the study and allow access to teaching staff who wished to engage with the research. A purposive sampling method was used to gain access to the teachers. Participants willing to be involved in the study were invited to assist in locating other candidates; a snowballing technique that is a legitimate research practice when studying hard-to-reach groups (Denscombe, 2010). To collect data, the study employed two research methods; a semi-structured biographical interview and Kelley's Followership Model questionnaire (1992). In line with advocates of mixed-methods research, Patton (1990) suggests that such an approach embraces the benefits of bringing together the differing strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses of quantitative methods with those of qualitative methods.

The interviews conducted with the 15 teachers who participated in the qualitative phase of the research were recorded and transcribed in readiness for analysis. In addition, the questionnaire from Kelley's (1992) Followership Model was also administered in order to supplement the data; with a paper version completed by the 15 interviewees and an anonymous web-based version completed by a further 54 teachers from the five schools sponsoring the study.

This brief review of the study's research design is expanded upon considerably in the research design chapter, with attention given to a number of issues not raised here yet important to research. However, at this point it is worth highlighting that a key goal is to gather rich and comprehensive data from the study's participants. This will enable the production of informed answers to the research questions and the advancement of the understanding of followership within the UK educational sector.

Ethical Issues

Key ethical issues acknowledged within this study are confidentiality; informed consent; anonymity; honesty and the right to withdraw. As Denscombe (2003) points out, researchers are expected to respect the rights and dignity of the participants, avoid harm to the participants and operate with honesty and integrity in the collection, analysis and dissemination of the findings.

In educational research, the British Educational Research Association (BERA) guidelines (2011) provide expert guidance. They encourage all educational research to be conducted within an ethic of respect for the person, knowledge, democratic values and academic freedom. This will guide the researcher in both the design of the study and its operationalisation.

To establish an ethical approach to the research undertaken in this study, I considered the guidelines provided by BERA (2011) and complied with the ethical procedure demanded by the University of Birmingham. Prior to commencing the

study, I submitted an ethics form to the School of Education, which was subsequently approved by the University's Ethics Committee.

Outline of the Thesis

The thesis follows a route from introduction, through to literature review, research design, presentation of findings, discussion of the findings and conclusion. In the first chapter, the context of the study is set by highlighting the emergence of followership research and introducing the key themes explored within it. Further, it introduces the focus of the study, i.e. an exploration of how and why secondary school teacher's follower, placing particular attention on how certain characteristics of the life and career of teachers have shaped their approaches to followership.

Chapter Two reviews the literature engaging themes that relate to the study's research questions. It reviews followership literature by using the roles that followers have occupied in leadership theory; a framework developed by Shamir (2007), i.e. followers as recipients of leader influence; followers as moderators of leader impact; followers as constructors of leadership; and followers as leaders.

A key objective of the literature review chapter is to address RQ1; that is, *what is known about followership in an educational context?* Accordingly, it explores the existing followership-centric research undertaken within an educational context, with a particular focus on the work of Thody (2003). The followership section of the literature review continues by reviewing a number of key follower typology models that are dominant in followership research. It concludes with a brief window into the

contemporary debates surrounding followership, drawn from the International Followership Symposium held in October 2014 and attended by most of the world's authorities in this area. The literature review chapter concludes with an introduction to career pathway models at large within the educational leadership domain, and reviews the work of a number of scholars who have employed this approach in their research.

Chapter Three outlines the research design found at the heart of this study. The discussion includes reference to the philosophical stance taken by the researcher and the wider frameworks in which the study is located. Considerable attention is paid to the research design, which shapes and determines the nature of the investigation and its significance. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the conduct and analysis of the research, and presents an overview of ethical issues pertinent to the study.

In Chapters Four and Five, the findings of the study are comprehensively presented and discussed. Finally, Chapter Six draws conclusions that reflect on the research questions, highlighting the study's contribution to knowledge and provide insight into how lessons learned from the study can be implemented in practice. The study closes by giving a nod to the direction of future research that might be undertaken in this area.

CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter explores literature relevant to the study's research questions. It begins by providing an overview of how the study of followership has evolved within contemporary leadership literature. Importantly, a key objective of the literature review chapter is to address directly research question one (RQ1) i.e. *what is known about followership in an educational context?* Accordingly, following an extensive literature search, the chapter summarises all existing published followership-centric research undertaken within an educational context, worldwide. Within this section, the study focuses upon the pioneering work of Thody (2003).

The followership section of the literature review continues by considering a number of key follower typology models that are dominant in followership research, with a focus on the contribution of Kelley (1988, 1992). This section concludes with a brief window into the possible direction of future followership research. This is drawn from the first international followership symposium held at the International Leadership Association's annual conference in October 2014 and attended by most of the world's leading scholars in this area.

The literature review chapter continues with an overview of the key career pathway models developed within the educational leadership research domain, with a particular focus on the work of Gronn (1999). The chapter concludes with a review of the studies of scholars who have incorporated this approach into their research

on the making of educational leaders.

Literature Search

The two principal themes within the literature search were followership and career pathway models in educational leadership. In order to ensure the literature search was methodical, several stages were identified with each stage involving a detailed search of the literature within that field. The first stage was a search of materials provided in support of the EdD programme and the accompanying research skills courses. Together with notes taken during class discussions, these provided a starting point for a more detailed literature search.

The next stage was to use keywords and themes linked to the research questions to search online resources specifically related to leadership and followership. The keywords were used singularly and in combination within the search and included the following words: academic; career; education; follower; followership; formation; journey; leadership; pathway; and teacher. Most of the literature for this study was found by searching Google Scholar and the electronic literature and databases available via the University of Birmingham library catalogue. Moreover, two key websites were regularly accessed: the International Leadership Association's Followership Community of Learning and the LinkedIn Followership Group. Finally, a Google Scholar Alert was instigated and provided regular insights into followership-related materials.

Having identified a wide range of literature pertinent to this enquiry, these were then

categorised into themes and sub-themes to ensure the literature selected was manageable and relevant to the research questions.

Understanding Followership

While the literature on leadership in generic terms is extensive and diverse; the same cannot be said for followership, which has been omitted from much of the discussion in leadership literature until recent times. Encouragingly, research on followership is increasing and activity in this field over the last three decades has resulted in it becoming established as a research base in its own right. The review begins by looking at how the study of followers and followership has evolved within the leadership literature.

The Evolution of Followership in Leadership Literature

As highlighted in the introductory chapter, the majority of leadership theories have been 'leader-centred' (Meindl, 1995) with the researcher's attention typically focused on the study and analysis of the leader's traits, personal characteristics, skills and behaviour (Shamir, 2007). Frequently, this resulted in the leader being presented as primordial, left to determine the emergence of leadership, a situation characterised by Northouse (2004, p. 113) as 'a one way event.' At the far end of the leadership spectrum, this perspective frequently left followers beyond the researcher's attention and, in the view of Lord, Brown and Freiberg (1999, p. 167), 'an unexplored source of variance in understanding leadership processes.'

More recently, the perceived omnipotence of leaders and their exaggerated influence on the organisation has been questioned, resulting in the dominant leader-centred perspective of leadership to become the subject of criticism. As a consequence, steps have been taken to include the follower within the leadership encounter; with new theories emerging in the literature. These present the roles of followers as more consequential in leadership than has been expressed in the aforementioned leader-centred perspectives.

Shamir (2007) provides an insightful review of the evolution of followership in leadership literature; joining only a small number of authors to present a comprehensive review of followership-related literature (Baker, 2007; Bjugstad et al., 2006; Crossman and Crossman, 2011; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014; Vondey, 2012). This section of the review now provides an overview of how followership studies have evolved in contemporary leadership literature, using Shamir's (2007) categorisation of follower roles; that is, followers as recipients of leader influence; followers as moderators of leader impact; followers as constructors of leadership; and followers as leaders.

Followers as Recipients of Leader Influence

Traditional leadership theories have centred on the leader and emphasised their personal background, characteristics and actions, viewing the leader as the causal agent (Shamir 2007, p. xii). These theories have focused on the leader's traits and behaviours in order to understand and explain leadership; therefore, little scope is left for the part played by followers within the leadership equation (see Figure 2.1).

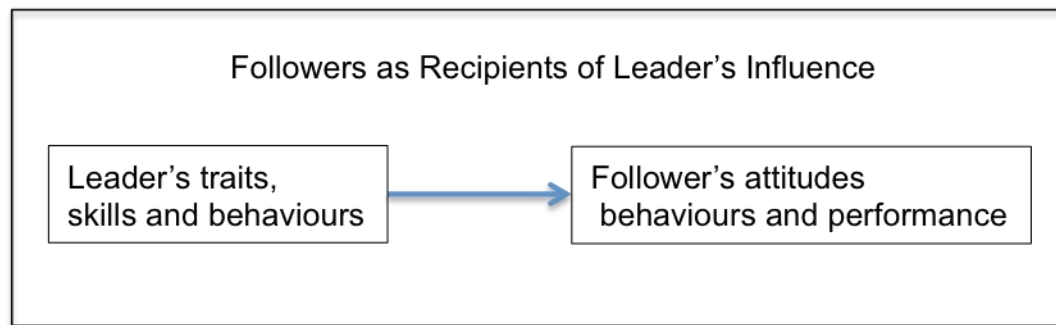


Figure 2.1: Followers as Recipients of Leader's Influence - adapted from Shamir (2007, p. xii)

Over time, this traditional theoretical perspective has been shared by the theories of charismatic and transformational leadership (e.g. Bass, 1985; Shamir et al., 1993). These have focused typically on top leadership teams and has led to highly-focused leader-centric models which view leadership as a top-down process between leader and subordinate (Yukl, 1989). Today, this stance in leadership theory is recognised as one that provides a partial picture at best, flawed by its limited provision for the follower to do anything more than play a passive role in the leadership relationship; one which saw followers portrayed as 'an empty vessel waiting to be led, or even transformed, by the leader' (Goffee and Jones, 2001; p. 148).

Followers as Moderators of Leader Impact

As previously indicated, while many traditional leadership theories treated followers as passive agents within the leadership process, over time a number of new theories evolved acknowledging that followers *can* moderate the impact of the leader. Simply put, researchers started to acknowledge that a leader's influence may have to be adapted, depending on their followers' attitude towards them. According to these theories, labelled contingency theories, the leader's effect on followers is influenced by the followers' characteristics (see Figure 2.2).

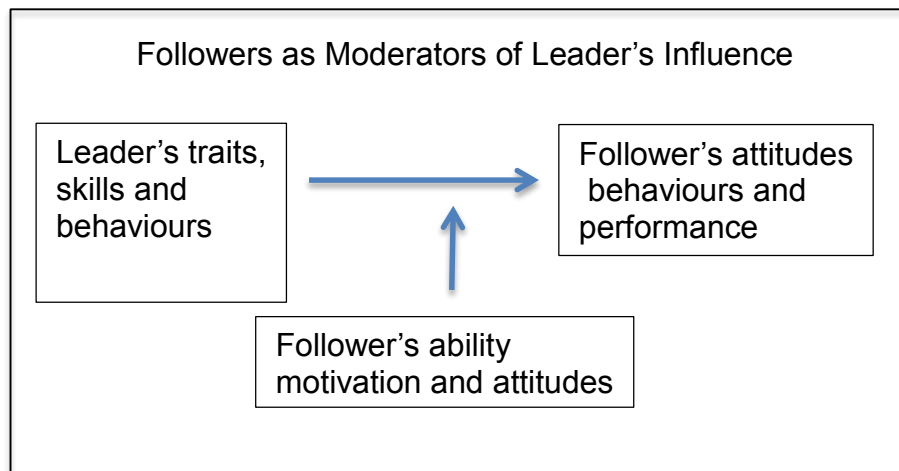


Figure 2.2: Followers as Moderators of Leader Impact - adapted from Shamir (2007, p. xiii)

In his review of follower roles in leadership theory, Shamir (2007) points to Hersey and Blanchard (1977), who claim in their situational leadership theory that effective leadership is achieved by selecting a leadership style that fits a follower's maturity level (ability and motivation). Further, Shamir (2007, p. viii) cites Vroom and Yetton (1973) indicating that followers' characteristics moderate the leader's influence on followers; claiming that the effectiveness of a participative leadership style is dependent on the followers' knowledge about decision issues and whether they share the same values as the leader. Consequently, this approach saw followers as both recipients of the leader's influence as well as moderators of the leader's impact. While followers were gaining the attention of leadership scholars, the gaze of contingency theorists remained largely on the leader. This approach is described by Collinson (2005, p. 1424) as one that 'prioritises leaders, (and) addresses followers only in relation to their susceptibility to certain leader behaviours'.

Followers as Constructors of Leadership

A further perspective presented by Shamir (2007) refers to theories that are

premised on the belief that followers construct leadership socially or cognitively. Moreover, crucially, as constructors of leadership, followers play a more central role when leadership is socially constructed. Meindl (1995) argued that leadership commentators had become overly preoccupied with the leader-centric stance. This led to a romanticised view of leadership, whereby people view and construct leaders as heroic figures and often over-attribute desirable performance effects to them rather than to other sources, such as the leader's followers (Jackson and Parry, 2008). Meindl (1995) referred to this as the romance of leadership.

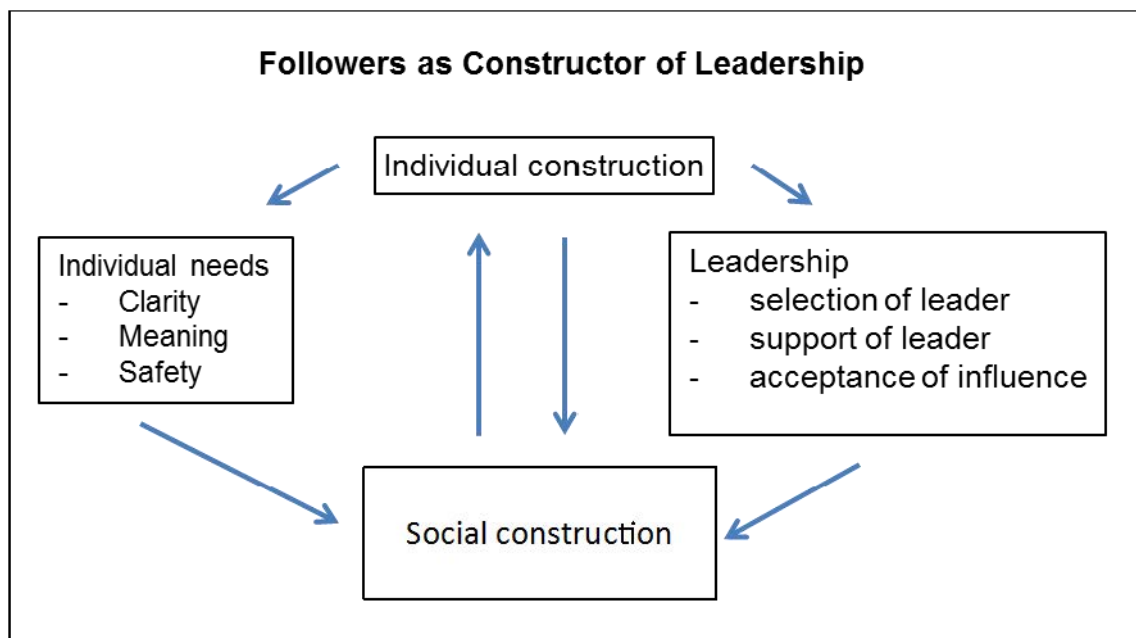


Figure 2.3: Followers as Constructors of Leadership - adapted from Shamir (2007, p. xvi)

Advocates of the social constructionist perspective posit that individuals create and interpret reality as they interact with their environments. Significantly, this stance moves the focus away from the actual personalities of the leader, focusing instead on the personalities of leaders as constructed by followers. Evans (2011) observes that researchers that support this approach are concerned primarily with the thoughts of followers and how these construct and represent leaders. For Meindl

(1995, p. 331) leadership was seen to be 'in the eyes of the beholder and followers, not the leader - and not researchers - define it'.

The romance of leadership notion can be seen as a point of departure for theorising about leadership as it moves the focus from the leader to the follower. Meindl's work was one of the earliest pieces of leadership research to take such a stance. Significantly, as he viewed the behavioural linkages between the leader and follower to be derived from the constructions made by followers, he saw the behaviour of followers as 'less under the control and influence of leaders and more under the control and influence of the *forces* that govern the social construction process itself' (Meindl, 1995; p. 330).

Building upon the foundations laid by Meindl (1995) by focusing upon the follower rather than the leader, Carsten et al. (2010) suggest that two 'forces' influence the social constructions of followership; that is, schema and context. They describe schemas as knowledge structures that, in this instance, provide an underlying meaning to followership. They also highlight the importance of context; arguing that it too influences followers' constructions of leadership, as the perceived acceptability and appropriateness of specific leadership behaviours are dependent upon the environment in which they are enacted (Carsten et al., 2010).

Uhl-Bien et al. (2014), in their comprehensive review of the study of followership research, identify two key approaches to how followership might be investigated in the future. In addition to the role-based approach adopted by this study, they also highlight the constructionist approach. They observe that 'whereas role-based views

investigate followership as a role and a set of behaviours or behavioural styles of individuals or groups, constructionist views study followership as a social process necessarily intertwined with leadership' (2014, p. 89).

Followers as Leaders: Shared Leadership

If the previous category edged followers 'out of the shadows', the notion of shared leadership offers an even more radical perspective in terms of the relationship between leaders and followers, as at its heart it questions the distinction between them. Acknowledging the complexities of this approach to leadership, Offerman and Scuderi (2007, p. 71) observe that 'leadership becomes even more complex when we consider situations in which multiple individuals, at least some of whom are in hierarchically subordinate positions, perform the functions that encompass what we know as leadership.' Further, understanding shared leadership is rendered more difficult as its allure has produced a wealth of literature that uses a range of terms, often interchangeably, to describe when leadership is performed by more than one person in the group. On this point, Crossman and Crossman (2011, p. 485) note that 'multiple leadership encompasses what has been variously termed shared, dispersed, collective, distributed leadership, team leadership and self-managed teams.'

To assist in understanding the various approaches to shared leadership, Offerman and Scuderi (2007, p. 76) produced a continuum of single and shared leadership (see Figure 2.4). A defining characteristic of leadership is the number of people involved; simply put, single leadership is exemplified by the traditional, vertical

approach with one leader only. Co-leadership indicates two leaders; distributed leadership suggests more than two but less than the total number of people in the group; whereas collective leadership means that it is equal to the number of people within the group.

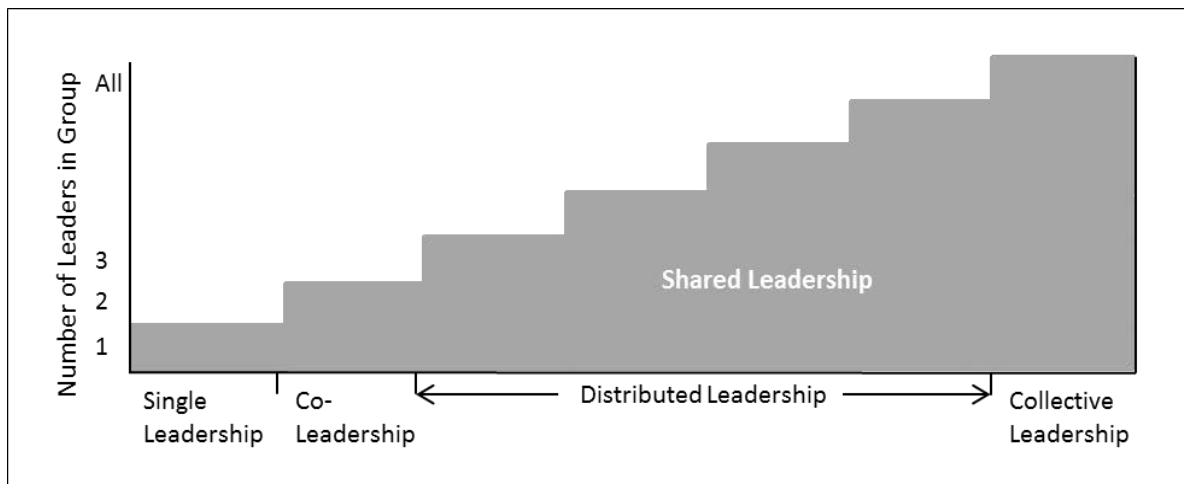


Figure 2.4: Approaches to Shared Leadership - adapted from Offerman and Scuderi (2007, p. 76)

An example of shared leadership that has received considerable attention within the field of education is distributed leadership; and it is here that the study now turns its attention.

Distributed Leadership

In recognition of the shortcomings of the 'heroic leadership' model, a number of scholars working in the field of educational leadership have for some time questioned the level of complexity associated with school leadership. They regard it as being too much for one person and have highlighted distributed leadership as a more attractive alternative. Gronn (2010) has acknowledged the amount of scholarly and practitioner attention accorded to distributed leadership within the

education sector (e.g. Gronn, 2002; Gronn, 2008; Gunter et al., 2013; Harris, 2004; Spillane et al., 2001) and today, it is well positioned within the field of education. In their description of distributed leadership, Bennett et al. (2003, p. 3) suggest that:

It is not something “done” by an individual “to” others, or a set of individual actions through which people contribute to a group or organisation. [...]. Distributed leadership is a group activity that works through and within relationships, rather than individual action. It emerges from a variety of sources depending on the issue and who has the relevant expertise or creativity.

Menon (2005) stresses what she describes as the ‘leader-plus’ aspect of distributed leadership, acknowledging that it should not be restricted to those at the top of the organisation or those assigned formal leadership duties. Bush (2013, p. 543) goes further, positioning distributed leadership as the model of choice in the 21st century highlighting, among other things, the importance of uncoupling distributed leadership from positional authority in order to better understand this phenomenon.

Gronn has written extensively on the subject of distributed leadership (2000; 2002; 2008) and sees it as an emergent property of a group or network of interacting individuals. His theoretical framing implies that the social context and the interrelationships therein are an integral part of the leadership activity (Hulpia et al, 2009). This perspective is endorsed by Muijs and Harris (2003), who describe distributed leadership as being separated from person, role and status, and is concerned primarily with relationships and connections among individuals within a school. Adding to this, Harris (2008, p. 1) saw it as concerned primarily with mobilising leadership at all levels within organisations, observing that ‘it is about engaging the many rather than the few in leadership activity within schools and actively distributing leadership practice.’

While much has been written about distributed leadership and while many commentators generally agree on its essence, i.e. it is founded on leadership as a collective rather than a singular activity, there remains some disagreement within the distributed leadership literature in terms of its form (Hartley 2007). A further highlighted weakness is that its study lacks empirical underpinning. This led Harris (2007, p. 315) to comment that the empirical base of many studies in distributed leadership 'is weak or non-existent'. Since this criticism, a number of empirically underpinned studies have been published. For example, Bolden, Petrov and Gosling (2009) explored distributed leadership within the higher education sector and found that a 'devolved' top-down approach to leadership was more at large than an 'emergent' bottom-up approach; one perceived frequently as the manifestation of distributed leadership. Hulpia and Devos (2010) linked distributed leadership to teachers' organisational commitment, finding that teachers were more committed to the school when its leaders were highly accessible and encouraged their participation in decision-making. Further, Bush and Glover (2012, p. 21) investigated distributed leadership with their research finding 'that high performing senior leadership teams are characterised by internal coherence and unity, with a clear focus on high standards, two-way communication with its stakeholders and a commitment to distributed leadership'.

Convincing rhetoric exists to replace the traditional 'leader-follower' dualism in educational leadership and to replace it with distributed leadership. However, there is a lack of evidence over the extent to which it has been embraced in schools and its effectiveness (Harris, 2013). Indeed, concerns over conceptual and definitional issues continue to trouble scholars working in this area. This is in addition to their

disquiet over the lack of empirical studies needed to legitimise the assumptions that underpin some of the discussions at large in the field of distributed leadership. Consequently, some commentators have challenged distributed leadership, indicating that it is not a risk-free alternative to what has gone before. For example, Fitzgerald and Gunter (2006) argue that its introduction can result in work intensification for teachers. Similarly, Lumby (2013, p. 581) is sceptical of the 'utopian depictions' used in some of the commentary associated with distributed leadership, and raises an insightful discussion over its linkages with power. This describes teachers' willingness to commit to further work emanating from the advancement of distributed leadership, as little more than emancipatory rhetoric.

The lack of evidence over the extent to which distributed leadership has been adopted in schools and its effectiveness as a leadership solution means that this approach remains in question. However, it is evident that scholars working in the field of educational leadership remain attracted to the possibility of a distributed approach to leadership; thus, giving Bligh (2011, p. 429) hope that it will 'give space to developing followers into leaders'.

Followership-Centric Research in Education

This section of the literature review is directed towards RQ1; what is known about followership in an educational context? To address this question, a comprehensive search was conducted to identify published followership-centric research that had been undertaken within an educational context. This was undertaken via Google Scholar search engine using key terms (such as follower; followership; education;

school/s; college/s; university/universities). These were entered singularly and in combination in order to locate the relevant followership literature.

As previously highlighted, while scholars working in the field of leadership continue to provide a wealth of material which charts the ebb and flow of thinking in this area, it is only recently that such attention has been paid to followership (Baker, 2007; Bligh, 2011; Carsten et al., 2010; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). In demonstration of this, on 26th June 2015 a Google Scholar search was undertaken using the terms leadership and followership. The word 'leadership' resulted in 2,850,000 hits; while a search using the word 'followership' achieved 18,000 hits. This represents a ratio of 158 hits for leadership for every 1 on followership (see Appendix 1).

While those researchers concerned with leadership in business and management have left a partial footprint of followership in their field, in education it is barely evident at all. Some of the early educational leadership literature made passing reference to followers. For example, Gronn and Ribbins (1996, p. 452) in their paper addressing postpositivist approaches to understanding educational leadership, acknowledged the role of the follower when they spoke of how particular methodologies, such as ethnography and biography, are better ways to deal with 'followers' implicit theories than mainstream conceptions of leadership'. Further, Gronn's (1999) book on the making of educational leaders refers (briefly) to follower-centric leadership. However, neither of these examples goes beyond recognising the existence of followers within the leadership equation. Even the more contemporary educational leadership literature, which does embrace the notion of followership more readily than that which went before - particularly so in

those studies that consider 'shared' leadership - typically remains focused upon the part played by the (hierarchical) leader/s.

In summary, limited evidence exists of educational leadership scholars undertaking followership-centric research. Supporting this assertion, the search for followership-centric research in the field of education located just 17 published papers; the key information of which is listed in chronological order in Table 2.1:

Year	Title	Author/s	Sector	Country	Research Purpose	Research Approach	Key Findings
1997	Teachers' Perceptions of the Leadership-Followership Dialectic	Mertler, C., Steyer, S. and Peterson, G.	School	USA	To examine whether elementary and secondary school teachers understood the role and importance of followership in influencing school leadership	A quantitative study using a questionnaire incorporating Kelley's (1992) Followership Typology. Completed by public school teachers (n=67)	The findings indicated that teachers fell into one of three of Kelley's types of followers, i.e. exemplary, pragmatist, or conformist followers. None of the teachers were classified as alienated or passive followers. Both men and women scored high on independent thinking in their work. The comparison of gender revealed the sole statistically significant result - i.e. female teachers reported significantly higher levels of active engagement in the role of follower than did male teachers
2000	Followership or Followership? An Exploration of the Values of Non-Leaders	Thody, A.	School	UK	To explore the value of developing effective followers within schools	A discursive, qualitative paper drawing on existing followership literature within education management and business and management; and from student feedback in lectures and workshops	The paper highlights the lack of followership-centric research in existence, particularly so within the educational leadership sector. Further, it stresses the value of good followership and raises the challenges associated with, and the importance of, nurturing effective followership within an educational setting
2003	A study of the relationship between followership modalities and leadership styles among educators at selected high schools in Jackson, Mississippi	Johnson, J.	School	USA	To explore the nature of the relationship between followership modalities and leadership styles of high-school teachers and principals in Mississippi, USA	A quantitative study using questionnaires including Kelley's (1992) Followership Typology, completed by teaching staff (n=102) plus interviews (n=10) of teachers and principals	The findings of the study revealed there is limited variation in followership modalities (types) in educational institutions, i.e. 92% of respondents were identified as exemplary followers and 8% reported as conformist followers. Further, the study indicated that there is extensive variation in follower performance within identified followership types, with types corresponding with leadership styles among teachers and principals. There is no difference in followers' active engagement skills based on gender, age, teaching experience and time with the leader. There is no difference in followers' independent critical-thinking skills based on gender, age, teaching experience, and time with the leader

Year	Title	Author/s	Sector	Country	Research Purpose	Research Approach	Key Findings
2003	Followership in educational organizations: a pilot mapping of the territory	Thody, A.	School	UK	To propose the first lexicon for education followership and to reflect on the importance of followership	A qualitative study which questioned a range of academic and practitioner conference audiences (n=151) in order to pilot test the author's proposed lexicon of follower descriptors	The study developed a lexicon of follower descriptors associated with educational organisations. The follower descriptors are categorised by holistic personality types and specific roles
2006	Followership: An Australian University Dilemma	Holloway, D.	HE	Australia	To explore the followership philosophy and practices at Murdoch University	A qualitative case study based upon a group of 15 interview participants selected from across the different community groups within Murdoch University - i.e. students, lecturers, admin staff and senior managers	The findings suggest that followership is a contested domain in the case study university. Further, that there is a need to reframe the followership/leadership divide; with the end result reconstructing the passive pejorative version of the 'follower' to a more 'active follower' role. The study suggests that this dilemma will only be resolved when senior managers/leaders seriously reassess their current top-down approach to decision-making processes
2008	Quality Monitoring of the strategic leadership styles for Malaysian National Primary School (NPS) Heads involved in the School Improvement Programme (SIP)	Mohd Ali, H., Mohd Nor, A., Kassim, C., Rafee, A. Shamsuddin, M. Abd Manaf, M., and Abd Halim, R.	School	Malaysia	To examine the status of followership styles of the followers and leadership styles of NPS heads involved in the SIP. In addition, the study examines the strength of the relationship between the two styles	A quantitative study using a questionnaire that incorporated Kelley's (1992) Followership Typology, administered to primary school headteachers (n=406)	The study identified 88% of the headteachers as pragmatist follower types. Further, the study also reported the presence of a strong relationship between the followership styles and the strategic leadership styles of the headteachers within the study
2009	Factors Relating to Teachers Followership in International Universities in Thailand	Ye, Y.	HE	Thailand	To identify teachers' followership styles and to identify the factors affecting teachers' followership in international universities in Thailand	A quantitative study using a questionnaire which incorporated Kelley's (1992) Followership Typology, completed by teaching staff in 3 Thai universities (n=256)	The study found that followership styles from the most to the least frequent were pragmatist or exemplary followership, conformist followership, alienated followership and passive followership. Further, that the rank of significant variables contributing to teachers' followership from high to low is: professionalism, emotional characteristics, satisfaction, leadership styles, teamwork attitudes, and teachers' development

Year	Title	Author/s	Sector	Country	Research Purpose	Research Approach	Key Findings
2009	Followership Styles and Employee Attachment to the Organization	Blanchard, A., Welbourne, J., Gilmore, D., and Bullock, A.	HE	USA	To test the validity of Kelley's (1992) Followership Typology and also to investigate the relationship between Kelley's (1992) two dimensions of followership, i.e. independent critical thinking and active engagement - and job satisfaction and organizational commitment	A quantitative study that uses a three part questionnaire, incorporating Kelley's (1992) Followership Typology, and measures of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Completed by faculty staff (n=331) from one US university	The study found that the followership dimensions of Kelley's typology did validate as Kelley predicted. Further, the study indicates that active engagement is positively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Also, independent critical thinking is negatively associated with organizational commitment and extrinsic job satisfaction. The interaction effects between these constructs are highlighted and discussed
2009	Followership Behaviors among Florida Community College Faculty	Smith, J.C.	HE	USA	To examine the relationship between followership behaviors and individual variables, organizational culture, and institutional variables among Florida community college faculty	A quantitative study which investigated followership through measurement of five dimensions, i.e. responsibility, service, challenge, transformation, and moral action. An on-line questionnaire was completed by Faculty members (n=661) from 27 of Florida's 28 community colleges	The findings of the study revealed significant effects for age, education level, and discipline for the responsibility dimension; sex, rank, and discipline for the service dimension; age and discipline for the challenge dimension; tenure, sex, and discipline for the transformation dimension; tenure and age for the moral action dimension; and age, sex, rank, and discipline for the total followership score. Further analyses indicated significant interactions in the responsibility dimension for tenure by duration of employment and academic discipline by duration of employment; and in the service dimension for age by tenure. Significant results for organizational culture were found for each followership dimension except responsibility. Also, statistically significant results were found among institutional variables for the moral action dimension for degree offered, with faculty from colleges that offered bachelor's degrees scoring higher for moral action than faculty from institutions that did not offer bachelor's degrees

Year	Title	Author/s	Sector	Country	Research Purpose	Research Approach	Key Findings
2010	A study on teachers' followership styles and strategies for developing followership skills in Soochow University, China	Ye, Y.	HE	China	To identify teachers' followership styles and to identify the most important followership skills and characteristics	A quantitative study where teaching staff (n=78) at Soochow University completed a questionnaire which incorporated Kelley's (1988) Followership Typology	The study identified the respondents' followership styles as exemplary followers (n=56), pragmatic followers (n=12), alienated followers (n=6), conformist followers (n=2), passive followers (n=2). Further, the study identified the ten most important followership skills and characteristics reported by the respondents (from the most important to the least): responsibility; persistency in work; self-confidence; unity and cooperation; self-critical; objective on the facts; mind of participating; break through innovatively; mind of serving; and communication abilities
2012	Enhancing authentic leadership-followership: Strengthening school relationships	Crippen, C.	School	Canada	To highlight the importance of followership; focusing on how teachers might understand followership and how they might contribute within the leader-follower dynamic	A qualitative, discursive study reportedly based upon feedback from 35 teachers within one school and a further 400 school teachers from within a school district in Canada. N.B. The paper is unclear how data was collected or how it reinforced the views expressed by the author	The paper suggests that an effective school will have established a balanced, authentic leadership-followership dynamic; one that provides opportunities for all members of the school community, regardless of role, to participate
2012	Leadership and followership within Vocational Education and Training (VET): some Australian and international perspectives	Crossman, B.	FE	Australia	To generate a substantive leadership - followership theory for VET	A qualitative study based upon data drawn from 10 biographical-style interviews held with experienced individuals working within VET	The study developed a model to describe and cluster existing follower typologies, i.e. descriptive typologies; prescriptive typologies, and situational factors of followership. The study also provided the first comparative review of leadership research between Australian VET, British further education (FE) and American community colleges

Year	Title	Author/s	Sector	Country	Research Purpose	Research Approach	Key Findings
2013	The Relationship between Followership Style and Job Performance in Botswana Private Universities	Oyetunji, C.	HE	Botswana	To determine if there is a significant relationship between followership styles in relation to job performance	A quantitative study where lecturers (n=102) from the two private universities in Botswana completed Kelley's (1992) Followership Typology and job performance questionnaires	The study found that followership styles recorded among the lecturers included passive (10%), alienated (14%), pragmatist (63%) and exemplary (13%) with the most common being the pragmatist followership style. Further, while the study found no relationship between exemplary, pragmatist and alienated followership styles and job performance, it did report a high relationship between the passive followership style and job performance
2013	Followership in Higher Education: Academic Teachers and their Formal Leaders	Billot, J., West, D., Khong, L., Skorobohacz, C., Roxå, T., Murray, S. and Gayle, B.	HE	Worldwide	To explore the phenomenon of followership through the experience of being a follower and interacting with a formal leader	A qualitative study based upon written narratives collected from academic teachers (n=38) working in seven institutions worldwide	The study highlights the dynamic nature of the followership/leadership relationship in higher education, recognizing this as reciprocal and requiring that individuals demonstrate respect, patience, and openness throughout the processes of co-constructing positive relational spaces. Further, the study recognises the complex roles of followers and leaders, where changing contexts necessitate adaptability, and re-imagining and acceptance of alternative roles and visions. Finally, the findings of the study reflect upon ways to cultivate and sustain a healthy leadership-followership relationship, through mutual understanding, a focus on commonalities rather than differences, bi-directional empathy, and ongoing consideration towards the complex needs of the follower
2014	Understanding Students as Followers: Discovering the Influence of Followership Style on Self-Directed Learning	Strong, R. and Williams, J.	HE	USA	To assess undergraduate students' levels of followership and self-directed learning in agricultural leadership courses at Texas A&M University	A quantitative study where undergraduate students (n=166) complete a questionnaire which incorporated Kelley's (1988) Followership Typology	The study identified the students' followership styles as conformist followers (n=87), passive followers (n=42), alienated followers (n=31), exemplary followers (n=6), and pragmatic followers (n=0). The results suggested the majority of the students were engaged, yet uncritical followers; and that the less self-directed students were more likely to be dependent followers with less critical thinking capacity

Year	Title	Author/s	Sector	Country	Research Purpose	Research Approach	Key Findings
2014	The Gap between Primary and Secondary School Teacher Followership Styles at Adni Islamic School (AIS), Malaysia	Al-Anshory, A. and Mohd. Ali, H.	School	Malaysia	To investigate the gap between primary and secondary school teachers' followership styles at a private Islamic school in Malaysia	A quantitative study using Kelley's (1992) Followership Typology questionnaire completed by teachers (n=92) from the primary and secondary school of AIS	The study reports that all of Kelley's followership styles (i.e. exemplary, alienated, pragmatist, conformist and passive) were at large among the primary and secondary school teachers at AIS, with the most common style reported being the exemplary follower which was practiced by 39 (42.3%) of the teachers. Further, while the findings show a significant difference in followership styles between the male primary and secondary school teachers, there was no significant difference in followership styles between the female primary and secondary school teachers. No other significant findings were reported
2015	Mentor teachers as leaders and followers in school-based contexts in the Republic of Ireland	Clarke, Killeavy and Ferris	School	Rep. of Ireland	To examine the intertwined leadership and followership aspects of the roles performed by school-based mentors in the Republic of Ireland	A mixed methods study; questionnaire (n=56) plus interviews (n=4) of mentor teachers	The findings suggest that the hierarchical nature of the school context influenced mentor teachers' perceptions of their leadership and followership roles. They regarded themselves as leaders in a general sense and considered that all members of staff had something to contribute to the leadership process in the school. However, the school context moderated their own perceptions about their individual approaches to leadership. Participants in this study were unclear about the term followership and were reluctant to use it. They considered themselves to be performing a supportive role in the hierarchical structure of the school context

Table 2.1: 17 Followership-Centric, Educationally Based Studies

Table 2.2 summarises the key characteristics of the 17 published papers discovered by the search undertaken within this study. From this one can see that the earliest study found was published in 1997 and the most recent in 2015. The period in which the research was undertaken reinforces the general agreement that followership-centric research has only gained the attention of scholars in recent years (Uhl-Bien et al, 2014).

Characteristics of the 17 followership-centric, educationally-based studies	
Date of earliest study	1997
Date of latest study	2015
Quantitative-focus	10
Qualitative-focus	6
Mixed methods	1
School	8
Further Education	1
Higher Education	8
Australia	2
Botswana	1
Canada	1
China	1
Malaysia	2
Republic of Ireland	1
Thailand	1
UK	2
USA	5
Worldwide	1
Used Kelley's Followership Model questionnaire	8
Exemplary follower as most popular among studies	4
Pragmatic follower as most popular among studies	3
Conformist follower as most popular among studies	1

Table 2.2: Summary of the 17 Followership-Centric, Educationally Based Studies

It is of note that each of the 17 published papers made use of empirical research to underpin their studies (although the significance and value of the primary data is unclear in some of the studies). Further, the 17 papers were genuinely followership-centric. This aligns positively to Shamir's (2007) wish for researchers to 'reverse the lens'; thereby placing followers centre stage and viewing them as causal agents within the leader-follower dynamic.

Moreover, it is evident that the majority of the research is quantitative in nature; an approach adopted almost exclusively by papers emanating from studies undertaken in Asia and North America (n=10). This situation is in line with the observation of Kempster and Parry (2011, p. 106), who note that 'the 'scientific' approach is still dominant in the field of leadership studies'. While it may be unsurprising that the majority of the papers embrace a quantitative approach, it is of note that six of the 17 studies are qualitative in nature and a further one employs mixed methods and embraces a qualitative element. According to Bryman (2012), the diversity in methodological approach within the field of leadership is in part driven by the growing acceptance of qualitative methods. Within the field of educational leadership, this approach has long been encouraged by many of the leading UK scholars (e.g. Gronn and Ribbins, 1996; Ribbins and Gunter, 2002; Goodson, 2008).

It is noteworthy that the two most popular educational contexts utilised by the 17 located studies are at school level (n=8) and higher education (n=8) with, further education hosting just one study. The studies also reflect a common approach taken in follower-centric research, i.e. to investigate the behaviour of individual followers by using one of a small number of established follower typologies. At the forefront of this is Kelley's (1992) Followership Model and his accompanying questionnaire (for further information, please see Chapter 3). In this instance, 9 of the 17 studies employed Kelley's questionnaire; specifically, these studies used it to investigate the follower types of teachers and headteachers (n=4), lecturers (n=3) and students (n=1) engaged in the studies, while one chose to test the validity of Kelley's questionnaire as a measure of followership.

Of the three studies that investigated teachers' follower styles, all reported exemplary followers as the most popular group. A further study considered headteachers and here, 88% of the respondents were identified as pragmatic followers. In two of the three studies that measured lecturer's follower styles, the most popular group were pragmatic followers with the third study identifying exemplary followers as the largest group. The findings of the study that examined student followership reported the largest group to be conformist followers.

The location of the research underpinning the 17 published papers was varied, with North America generating the most (n=6). Within the UK it is Thody alone (2000; 2003) who has adopted a followership-centric approach to research within the field of education; and it is here that the review now turns.

In 2000, Thody published an article in 'Management in Education' entitled 'Followership or Followersheep? An Exploration of the Values of Non-Leaders' (2000). Targeting those concerned with school leadership, it challenged its readers to understand why studying followership was important. Thody recognised that followership was 'a missing dimension in studies on effective schools' (2000, p. 15) and her article presented a strong case for why school leaders needed to value and nurture those than follow within the school context. Thody referred to feedback received from conference workshops and lecture sessions where she had explored her ideas on followership. She noted how her stance was considered controversial by many of those with whom it was discussed; describing them as 'the amused, the bemused and the angry' (2000, p. 16). Her description of her exchanges provides a revealing insight into the understanding and appreciation of followership at this

point (2000, p. 16):

The amused group decided to humour a clearly lunatic lecturer and created rich pictures of confused sheep. The bemused group were worried at being asked to examine cherished notions that all school staff are leaders. The angry set attacked me vehemently, pointing out the unassailable democratic attitudes of all principals and staff (though these attitudes rarely seem to extend to support staff or pupils), their unshakeable, and inalienable rights to team operation and their complete equality with colleagues (irrespective of differential salaries, responsibilities and commitments). All three groups were adamant that no such word as 'follower' should ever disgrace our schools.

Three years later, Thody's (2003) pioneering article entitled 'Followership in educational organisations: a pilot mapping of the territory' proposed the first lexicon for followership in education, in a bold attempt to highlight the importance of this area. Encouraged by the dearth of available literature, Thody developed a followership lexicon, which she piloted among academic and practitioner conference audiences in 2002 (n=157). Here, respondents were asked to select one or two work colleagues who were their subordinates and whom they considered to be both effective and ineffective workers. They were then asked to choose words to describe them from Thody's lexicon. This insight enabled Thody to refine her approach, before categorising the descriptions as 'holistic follower types' (i.e. basic, largely innate, follower characteristics) and 'specific roles' (that any personality type of follower may perform). Both types and roles were then identified and grouped as either 'positively effective' or 'negatively effective' (see Table 2.3).

Negative followers				Positive followers			
Behaviours:	%	Roles played:	%	Behaviours:	%	Roles played:	%
Alienated;	14	Communication-	46	Independent;	21	Coordinator;	25
Isolated;	12	distorter;		Active-passive;	19	Mentee/Apprentice;	11
Passive;	11	Saboteur;	28	Entrepreneurial;	19	Disciple;	10
Dependents;	10	Toxic creator	26	Loyalist;	15	Gatekeeper-filter;	10
Observers;	9			Exemplary-	12	Partner/Comrade;	9
Reluctant-	8			exceptional;		Toxic handler;	9
resistive;				Interdependent;	8	Second in	8
Sheep;	8			Transactional	6	command;	
Machiavellian;	7					Rescuer;	7
Plateaued;	7					Muse;	7
Survivor;	7					Resnatronic	4
Yes-people	7						

Table 2.3: Typology of Followers in Education (Thody, 2003; p. 147-148)

A description of the follower types and roles drawn from Thody's paper is detailed in Appendix 2. However, the above Table identifies the range of 'labels' associated with follower behaviours and roles suggested by Thody, and the popularity of their appropriateness adjudged by the respondents of her study. It is worth noting that Thody acknowledged the limitations of the study; however, she argued that there is much to be learned from understanding more about the effect of both positive and negative followers.

This section of the literature review has focused upon followership-centric research undertaken in the field of education, in response to RQ1. In doing so it has revealed an absence of literature in this area. Indeed, even when one acknowledges that followership-centric research in general terms is less well-developed than leadership-centric research; and, that this study has been strict in locating only literature that has placed the follower centre stage, the resulting dearth of followership-centric research in the field of education is particularly stark. This discussion is revisited in the concluding chapter.

Followership Typology Models

Only a small number of scholars have attempted to study followers in any depth, and all have argued how leaders have much to gain from understanding what drives and motivates the behaviour of their followers (Kellerman, 2007). Today, it is widely acknowledged that Kelley's Followership Model (1992) remains a popular and key point of reference for scholars working in this field (Baker, 2007; Crossman and Crossman, 2009; Kellerman, 2007). However, both prior to and since his intervention more than 25 years ago, a small number of other followership typology models have been developed. This section of the review considers four of the most popular models, in addition to the work of Kelley (1988; 1992). Considered chronologically, the review begins with the model created by Zaleznik (1965).

Zaleznik (1965)

The earliest published work to distinguish followership styles was developed by Abraham Zaleznik (1965). His model investigated subordinate behaviour, exploring leader/follower and follower/follower interactions in terms of power and conflict within dominating/submissive relationships (Crossman and Crossman, 2011). Zaleznik's typology categorised followers within a two-by-two matrix according to two sets of variables (axes); that is, a dominance-submission continuum and an activity-passivity continuum (see Figure 2.5). The dominance-submission continuum embraced those followers wishing to control their superiors (dominance) to those wanting to be controlled (submission). The span of the activity-passivity continuum viewed followers as initiating action (active) or doing nothing (passive).

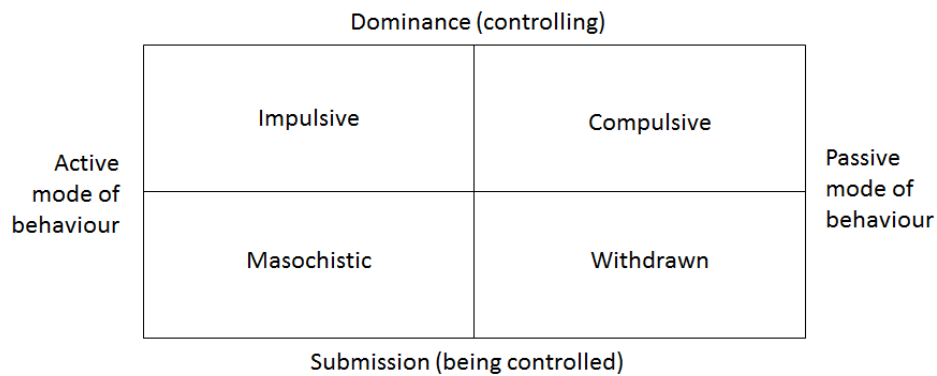


Figure 2.5: Zaleznik's Followership Typology (1965) - adapted from Kellerman (2008. p. 77)

Reflecting his Freudian perspective of relationships, Zaleznik classified his four follower styles as impulsive, compulsive, masochistic and withdrawn. The 'impulsive' group of followers are regarded as both dominant and active, wanting to control and actively pursue their desires. They are sometimes spontaneous and courageous and their defining characteristic is that they try to lead or influence others while being a follower themselves. The 'compulsive' group were seen by Zaleznik as followers who are dominant but passive, wanting to dominate their leaders, but held themselves back. This group are described typically as feeling guilty about their compulsive tendencies. Zaleznik describes the 'masochistic' group as active within the organisation but submit to the control of the authority figure, even though they feel discomfort in doing so. The final group labelled by Zaleznik as 'withdrawn' are passive submissive and show no desire for control and care very little about what happens at work. Consequently, this group of followers take little part in work activities, other than doing the minimum required to keep their jobs.

According to Crossman and Crossman (2011, p. 487) Zaleznik's model attempted to demonstrate that 'while leaders often ostensibly hold power, with some followers assuming submissiveness (perhaps even with a desire to be controlled), there are

nevertheless some followers who are anti-authoritarian and may aspire to dominate the relationship.' Wilkinson (2008) acknowledges that Zaleznik's model owes much to a Freudian view of the world which he suggests is out of fashion today and one reason why his work is popularly criticised. However, in his view a strength of the model is that 'when viewed in terms of behaviour, rather than the level of psychological or motivational explanation, this model is worthy of consideration' (Wilkinson, 2008).

Following Zaleznik, other scholars have developed typologies of followership styles. However, the one most cited and embraced by researchers is that of Kelley (1992), and it is to here that the study now turns.

Kelley (1988; 1992)

Robert Kelley (1988; 1992) was one of the first to herald the importance of followers. He challenged the status quo by arguing that attention should shift from leaders to followers, as it was the latter that determined the level of an organisation's success. In his book entitled 'The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow, and followers who lead themselves' (1992), Kelley was keen to develop a positive way in which individuals could see the part they played in organisations. In his view, 'for people to think of themselves as followers, they needed models that were dramatically different from the stereotypical passive sheep and yes-people. They needed models with whom to identify, in the same way students of leadership pour over models of Theory X, Y and Z' (1992, p. 87-88).

A key aim for Kelley was to distinguish between effective and ineffective followers. To achieve this, he developed a two-dimensional model (see Figure 2.6), which he believed underlined the concept of followership. The first behavioural dimension measures the degree of independence and critical thinking of followers. Here, Kelley visualises a spectrum with at one end the best followers whom he described as 'those individuals who can think for themselves; give constructive criticism, are their own person and are innovative and creative' (1992, p. 93). At the other end were the worst followers 'who must be told what to do, can't make it to the bathroom on their own and don't think' (1992, p. 93). In between are the typical followers who take direction and do not challenge the leader.

The second dimension measures the degree to which followers are engaged; ranking them on a passive-active scale. Here, he believed that active followers were engaged in the organisation and that they 'take initiative, assume ownership and go above and beyond the job' (1992, p. 94). For Kelley, the worst followers were 'passive, lazy, need prodding and dodge responsibility'. The 'typical' follower gets the job done without supervision after being told what to do.

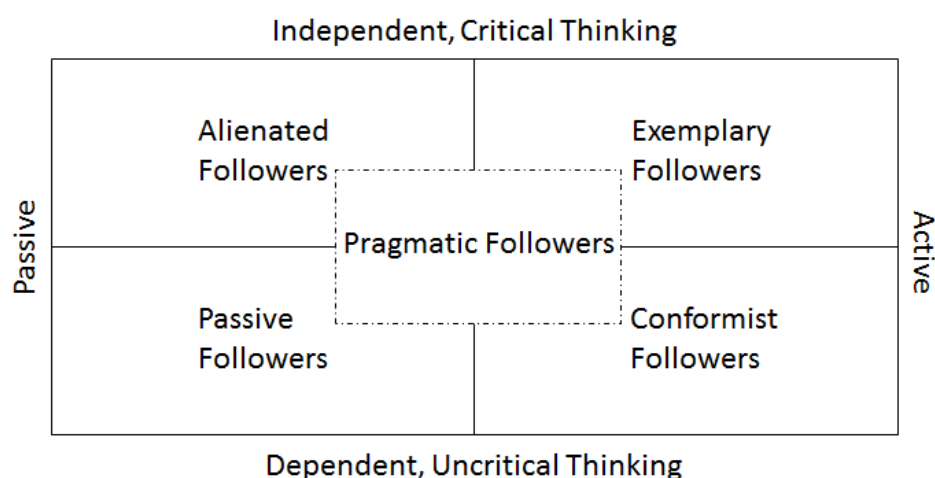


Figure 2.6: Kelley Followership Model (1992, p.97)

Based upon his two-dimensional categorisation, Kelley (1992) presents five followership styles: passive; conformist; pragmatist; alienated; and exemplary (see Table 2.4).

Followership Styles (1988)	Followership Styles (1992)	Independent/critical thinking dimension	Active-passive dimension
Sheep	Passive	Low	Low
Yes-People	Conformist	Low	High
Survivors	Pragmatist	Middling	Middling
Alienated	Alienated	High	Low
Effective	Exemplary	High	High

Table 2.4: Kelley's Followership Styles (Kelley 1988; 1992)

In Kelley's view (1992), the passive follower executes only what is asked of them by their leader and lacks initiative and ownership of their work. In his opinion, passive followers (previously labelled sheep) are the exact opposite of exemplary followers 'as they look to the leader to do their thinking and they do not carry out their assignments with enthusiasm' (Kelley, 1992; p. 122). As such, Kelley suggests that they require a constant supervision from leaders and claimed that typically 5 to 10 per cent of followers fit this description (1992, p. 122).

The conformist followers (previously labelled by Kelley (1988) as the 'yes-people'), like the passive followers, leave the thinking to their leaders. They are positive, servile, supportive of their leaders but dependent upon them for inspiration on how to behave, what to think and in which direction to go. Highly conformist, Kelley suggests that this style makes up 20 to 30 per cent of the follower population.

Pragmatic followers or survivors as Kelley initially labelled them span both of the dimensions and in Kelley's words 'hug the middle of the road' (1992, p. 117). The pragmatic follower 'questions their leader's decision, but not too often or too critically and perform their required tasks, but seldom venture beyond them' (1992, p. 117). In Kelley's view, this follower style is the largest of the five groups, with some 25 to 35 percent of the follower population identified as pragmatists.

The alienated follower is a critical and independent thinker but passive and disengaged when carrying out their role. When the leader or the organisation tries to move forward, the alienated follower provides reasons why they should not. According to Kelley, alienated followers began life as exemplary followers but 'somehow, sometime, something turned them off' (1992, p. 100). Alienated followers have considerable negativity, which is directed towards their leader or the organisation. Kelley suggests that 15 to 25 per cent of followers fall within this category.

The exemplary (or effective) followers perform well on both dimensions. They exercise critical thinking, independent of the leader, and are typically seen as 'their own person able to think for themselves' (1992, p. 126). This is a key distinguishing point for Kelley who suggests that exemplary followers 'do not accept the leader's decision without their own independent evaluation of its soundness' (2008, p. 8). In addition, they are actively engaged, utilising their talents fully and support their leader or organisation when in agreement with their policies. On this last point, exemplary followers are seen to display a courageous conscience that helps them discern between right and wrong, leading them to challenge the leader when

unsure about their decisions.

In summary, Kelley's findings (1988; 1992) led him to propose four essential qualities that he believed characterised effective followership and behaviour that individuals should strive for in their follower roles. First of all, effective followers manage themselves well, requiring limited supervision. Secondly, they are committed to their organisation and focus their commitment to its goals. Thirdly, effective followers are competent and master the skills necessary to perform well in their work environment and to be useful for their organisation. Fourthly, effective followers are credible, courageous and honest, unafraid to challenge the decisions made by their leaders.

Chaleff (1995; 2003)

Ira Chaleff's (1995) book entitled 'The Courageous Follower' focused primarily on empowering followers. In Kellerman's words (2007, p. 5), this sought to 'encourage them to actively support leaders they deemed good and to actively oppose those they deemed bad'. His book introduced the notion that the key to effective leadership is effective followership. He observed that this, 'demands a proactive view of the follower's role, which brings it into parity with the leader's role' (1995, p. 1). Kellerman (2007), reflecting on Chaleff's earlier work, describes his book as a self-help guide with its insights into follower behaviour offering a more practical application than Kelley (1992). It was one she saw as 'intended to embolden, at least slightly, subordinates in their interaction with their superiors' (p. 82). In his earlier work, Chaleff proposed five dimensions of courageous followership that

focused on ideal behaviours which, in his words, enabled followers to ‘stand up to and for their leaders’ (1995, p. 1). In his view, followers should have the courage to:

1. *assume responsibility* - by taking ownership of their contribution to the achievement of the organisation’s goals;
2. *serve* - by supporting their leader and taking on additional responsibilities;
3. *challenge* - by being willing to disagree truthfully and respectfully;
4. *participate fully in transformation and change*;
5. *leave* - by withdrawing support and/or oppose the will of the leader.

In 2003, Chaleff published a typology of courageous followership. Unlike the previous two models of Zaleznik and Kelley, Chaleff’s typology moved from describing follower behaviours to prescribing the behaviours that followers *should* exhibit, rather than those that actually manifest (Crossman and Crossman, 2011; p. 488). In line with the previously discussed typology models, Chaleff’s categorisation is also presented as a two-by-two matrix, using axes representing the two dimensions of courageous followership. The first dimension refers to the level of support given to the leader by the follower, which he later described as the ‘courage to support’ (Chaleff, 2008). The second dimension addresses the willingness of followers to challenge a leader on critical issues, which he later described as the ‘courage to challenge’. Based upon this, Chaleff identified four different follower styles; that is, partners; implementers; individualists; and resources (see Figure 2.7).

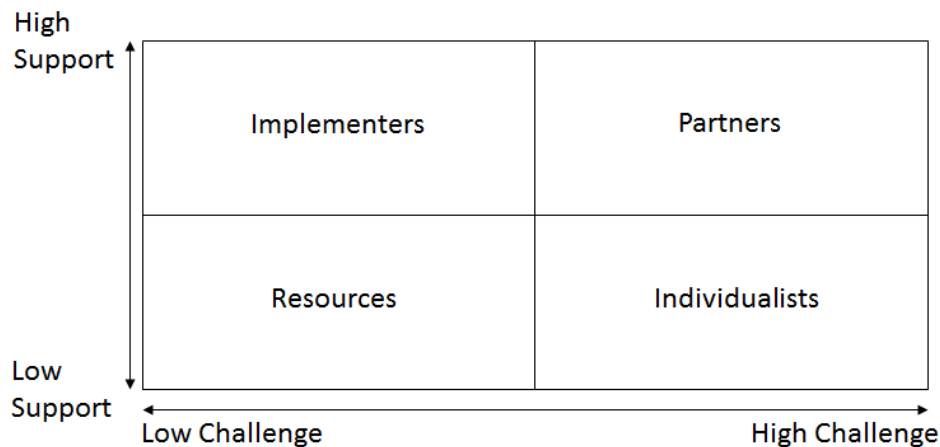


Figure 2.7: Chaleff's Followership Typology - adapted from Kellerman (2008, p. 83)

Chaleff (2003) observed that those followers he labelled as 'partners' share high value on both axes; high support and high challenge. Chaleff considers these followers as true partners, displaying the courageous follower characteristics that his work so enthusiastically promotes. The 'implementers' are a group of followers who demonstrate vigorous support for their leader but are unlikely to challenge them in the event of a disagreement. Described as uncomfortable challenging the authority of their leaders, Chaleff noted that such followers may knowingly follow a leader down the wrong path. Chaleff labelled the third group 'individualists' and saw these as having little regard for their leader and being comfortable challenging their leader over policies or procedures that they find unacceptable. The final group, the 'resource' followers, score low on both support and challenge. Chaleff saw this group as predominately extrinsically motivated, displaying little commitment to the leader or the organisation.

Kellerman (2007)

Barbara Kellerman developed the final typology addressed in this study in 2007

(see Figure 2.8). In her attempt to explore the dynamic between leaders and followers, she sought to 'offer a new typology for determining and appreciating the differences among subordinates' (2007, p. 87). Kellerman recognised the pioneering work of Zaleznik, Kelley and Chaleff, but questioned the impact of their work on the current understanding of leader-follower relationships. More positively, discussing the value of typology models, Kellerman (2007, p. 87) noted that:

The most important point of all these typologies, however, is that leader-follower relationships, no matter the situation, culture or era in which they are embedded, are more similar than different. Underlying them is some sort of dominance and some sort of deference. Segmenting followers, then, serves at least two purposes: In theory it enables us all to impose an order on groups and organisations that up to now are largely lacking. In practice, it allows superiors and subordinates alike to discern who in the group or organisation is doing what - and why.

Unlike the previous models, Kellerman's typology uses a single dimension to classify followers; their level of engagement towards their leader. Kellerman categorises followers according to where they fall on a continuum that ranges from 'feeling and doing absolutely nothing' at one end, to 'being passionately committed and deeply involved' at the other. For her, it is the follower's level of engagement that largely determines the nature of the subordinate-superior relationship. Plus, in her view, 'a single, simple metric offers leaders immediate information on whether and to what degree their followers are buying what they're selling' (2007, p. 87).

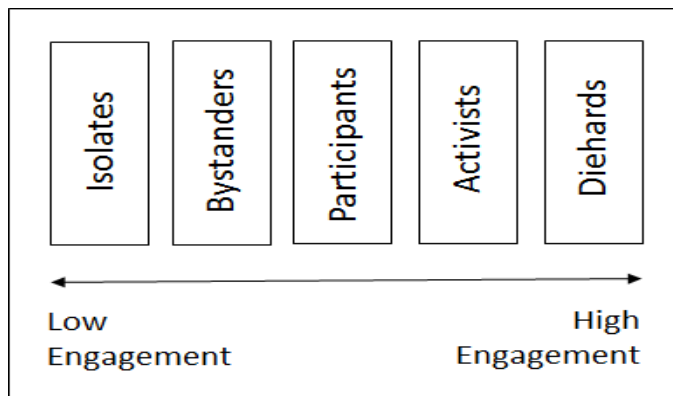


Figure 2.8: Kellerman's Followership Typology (2007)

Kellerman's typology identifies five follower types: isolates; bystanders; participants; activists; and diehards. The 'isolates' are totally detached from the situation and give minimal effort or attention to their leader. Kellerman suggests that 'these types of followers passively support the status quo and further strengthen leaders that have the upper hand' (2007, p.88). Moving along the continuum, 'bystanders' are attentive to the situation but do not participate, as self-interest is their primary motivation.

At the mid-point of the continuum are 'participants' who engage partially in workplace activities. These are followers who are prepared to invest some of what they have (e.g. energy, time, money) to make a difference. The 'activists' are characterised as 'eager, energetic and engaged' and 'feel strongly one way or another about their leader and organisations, and they act accordingly' (2007; p. 89). At the high engagement end of the continuum are the final group of followers, i.e. the 'diehards.' This group is intensely committed and are prepared to go down for their cause, standing by what they believe is right. This can result in diehards being deeply devoted to their leader, when supportive of their stance; or deeply motivated to oust their leader, when they are not. Kellerman noted, 'they exhibit an

all-consuming dedication to someone or something they deem worthy' (2007, p.90).

Summary of Followership Typologies

Table 2.5 summarises the aforementioned follower typologies; highlighting both the criteria upon which the models were developed and the follower types they propose:

Model	Criteria	Follower Types	Criteria Scores
Zaleznik (1965)	Two Axes: Dominance vs. Submission Activity vs. Passivity	Impulsive Compulsive Masochistic Withdrawn	Dominant and Active Dominant and Passive Submissive and Active Submissive and Passive
Kelley (1992)	Two Axes: Independent Thinking Activity Level	Exemplary Alienated Conformist Passive Pragmatist	High Thinking, High Activity High Thinking, Low Activity Mid Thinking, Mid Activity Low Thinking, Low Activity Mid Thinking, Mid Activity
Chaleff (1995; 2003)	Two Axes: Level of Support Willingness to Challenge	Partner Implementer Individualist Resource	High Support, High Challenge High Support, Low Challenge Low Support, High Challenge Low Support, Low Challenge
Kellerman (2007)	Continuum Endpoints: Feeling/Doing Nothing Passionately Committed/ Deeply Involved	Isolates Bystanders Participants Activists Diehards	Feel Nothing, Do Nothing Feel Little, Do Little Partially Committed and Involved Mod. Committed and Involved Highly Committed and Involved

Table 2.5 - Followership Typologies: Criteria and Follower Types (Adapted from Kilburn, 2010)

It is of note that all four models stem from the corporate world. Further, while Zaleznik was looking to inform corporate leaders, Kelley and Chaleff were more concerned with those lower down the corporate ladder in their efforts to gain recognition of the power of followership. Embracing both perspectives, Kellerman's model looks, Janus-like, at both leaders and followers as she attempts to reveal who is doing what in the leader-follower relationship and why (Kellerman, 2007).

A popular criterion used within followership typology models is the followers' level of activity (Kilburn, 2010). In this instance, while the four models reviewed in this study vary, it is apparent that activity level is a construct embedded within each.

Consequently, when one examines the descriptions of the follower types associated with the extremes of this criteria, there is some similarity (see Table 2.6). Across the four models, less desirable behaviours associated with low activity, such as low commitment and effectiveness, are grouped together and the terms *withdrawn*; *alienated*, *passive*, *resource* and *isolates* are used to illustrate these follower types; the descriptions of which bear similarities. At the other end of the continuum, where followers are seen to demonstrate high levels of activity and engagement, the terms *exemplary*, *partner* and *diehards* are found; again sharing similar descriptions. This aligns with Crossman and Crossman's (2011, p. 488) observation that the dominant follower typology models exhibit commonalities in the manner in which followers are categorised.

Author	High Extremes	Low Extremes
Zaleznik (1965)	Impulsive	Withdrawn
Kelley (1992)	Exemplary	Passive
Chaleff (1995)	Partner	Resource
Kellerman (2007)	Diehard	Isolate

Table 2.6: Similarities across Followership Typology Models

In Kilburn's view (2010) the value of typologies lies in their ability to categorise followers accurately. He suggests that 'in order to get the maximum value from such typologies, leaders need a means of gathering data and measuring these specific characteristics' (2010, p. 14). With this in mind, it is noteworthy to recognise that it is Kelley (1998; 1992) alone who has a published instrument by which to

assess and categorise followers based upon his typology (please see Chapter Three for further information on Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire).

The 2014 International Followership Symposium

In October 2014, a one-day followership symposium was held as part of the International Leadership Association's annual conference. This was the first event of its kind and attracted most of the world's leading scholars working in this area (including Chaleff; Kellerman; Kelley; Lipman-Blumen; Riggio; Uhl-Bien). I attended alongside approximately 140 delegates; I also presented a paper at the event (see Appendix 3 for symposium agenda).

The symposium provided an opportunity for insightful followership-focused discussion that considered the history of followership research, where it had reached by 2014 and its future. Both in the introductory chapter and in this literature review, the study has reflected upon the emergence of research on followership; it has also acknowledged that today it is a burgeoning research topic with followership-centric studies adopting both role-based and constructionist approaches. It now turns briefly to a number of themes pertinent to the future of followership research, drawn from the views expressed by leading scholars that attended the conference.

Research That Moves Beyond 'Reversing the Lens'

Taking the long view, Ronald Riggio expressed concern over researchers focusing

exclusively upon followers. He recognised that there is still an opportunity for researchers to prioritise the follower, not least as it would be some time before followership-centred research caught up with the voluminous work on leaders and leadership. However, he encouraged researchers to avoid the mistakes made by leadership researchers and to not take too narrow a view of followership.

Ideally, Riggio wanted researchers to go beyond simply 'reversing the lens' in line with Shamir's (2007) request to focus on followers, calling for future research to focus on the co-production of leadership; with *leadership* rather than the leader or the follower for that matter being the centre of attention. He also emphasised the importance of situational and contextual factors included in this research. Riggio's closing remarks echoed his earlier commentary observing that leadership is a partnership in 'reciprocal following' where both leaders and followers adopt a shared purpose with both groups leading and following.

Robert Kelley echoed this theme when he recalled 'putting a stake in the ground' almost 30 years earlier in his article 'In Praise of Followers' published in the Harvard Business Review (1988). He remembered how he had encouraged conversations about leadership to include followership because he believed that leaders neither exist nor act in a vacuum without followers. Today, he remains steadfast in this thinking, adding two further points associated with the future examination of followership; that is, research should consider the cultural aspects of followership and the importance of the impact of agency on the lives of individuals. In other words, he asks the question: what is the role of parenting, early childhood experience, school, religion, media on followership development?

Barbara Kellerman also referred to this topic when she spoke of the 'glorification of leadership' and the rise of the 'leadership industry'. In her view, leadership has never played a more prominent role; however, our opinions of leaders are at all-time lows. She argued that while we focus on leaders and, to a lesser extent, followers, we ignore a third essential element of leadership, i.e. context. She observed that future research must address the relationship between these three variables (i.e. leader, follower and context) if it wishes to provide a simple yet necessary insight into leadership (and followership).

Legitimising or Replacing the Term 'Followership'

Riggio acknowledged that many followership scholars disliked the term 'followership'. Referring to a range of dictionary definitions (e.g. to imitate, to walk behind, to follow in the footsteps), he recognised the negative associations with the term. However, he was keen to maintain the term, suggesting that other unpopular words had, through repeated and legitimate usage, developed more popular appeal (e.g. the acceptance of the word 'queer' by the gay community, and the words 'nerd' and 'geek'). In Riggio's view, seeking an alternative would be futile; rather, the research community must continue to embrace the terms 'follower' and 'followership'. He believed that if it is associated with positive terms, such as effective, active and dynamic, it then might be established in a more positive light. Jean Lipman-Blumen spoke about her concerns with the term followership and wanted change. Lipman-Blumen preferred the term 'constituent', a word that has Latin origins; i.e. con (together) and stituent (to found, establish). For her, a word that aligned the notion of leadership being 'co-founded' was intuitively well suited

and preferable to the term 'follower'.

In Kelley's view, the use of language is of great importance. He spoke of the terms leader and follower bringing to mind a common script that has the leader in charge making the decisions and giving instructions. Kelley recommended avoiding the term 'follower'; however, he also suggested, tongue in cheek, that this should only happen if the term leader were also avoided. Kellerman spoke of how we have lost clarity around the term leader as a result of it becoming muddled with the term manager. She also believes that the term follower is problematic; not simply because of the 'semantic' baggage that it has accumulated, but also because of the way in which many followers have learned to behave; that is, in a subservient and passive manner. Kellerman, when pushed, suggested the term 'others' as an alternative.

Followership Development

Ira Chaleff spoke of how followership is increasingly appearing within leadership programmes and how it was now an established academic course in its own right within the curriculum of a small number of academic institutions. For Kelley, this was a start, but he was keen to see a movement beyond followership being mentioned or 'tagged on' to leadership discussions, to it being embraced within corporate training programmes, where people are developed to become effective followers.

Re-thinking Followership

Kelley completed his session at the conference with a series of brief commentaries regarding followership and its future. The study now concludes this part of the literature review chapter by briefly highlighting Kelley's concluding observations.

It is a good time to research followership - Kelley enthused about there being no better time to research the field of followership as in his view, through media, the world regular observes the failings of leadership in world events, citing examples of banking and politics. He also argued that, in recent times, the world had changed dramatically and as such traditional models of leadership were increasingly perceived as out-dated and ill-suited to today's demands. He also spoke of a post-leadership world where many people no longer wish to lead, as it is perceived as too hard and demanding too much effort. Finally, he mentioned how Facebook, Twitter and other forms of social media have enhanced the credibility of the notion of following.

Followers need to think like leaders and, at times, assume leadership - Kelley argued that if followers are to play a more significant role in the leadership equation, then it was unacceptable for people to excuse themselves from engaging in difficult or demanding aspects of work. He referred to the expression 'it's above my paygrade' and suggested that this way of thinking must change, as followers must take responsibility, think like a leader and take on leadership. Here, he referred to the Hong Kong protests in September 2014, which he described as a leaderless revolution, one, which would have benefitted from someone stepping up to lead. In

relation to followers leading, he spoke of how followers must learn to 'see both halves of the movie' and thus be able to know when to assume leadership.

Followers need to stop tolerating bad leaders - Acknowledging the work done by his colleague Ira Chaleff in encouraging people to 'speak truth to power' Kelley observed that followers need to challenge leadership when it becomes extreme. He made reference to the Arab Spring, where known dictators had been democratically elected. He also cited a case of a CEO whose inappropriate behaviour went unchecked by his staff over a prolonged period, until he was eventually found to be seriously mentally ill.

Researchers need to consider alternative models to investigate followership - Kelley referred to how research had become stifled by its heavy reliance on certain 'go to' models and approaches, suggesting alternative approaches to how followership research might be modelled in the future. His parting shot was to challenge researchers to be guided by how behaviours are investigated in contexts such as military, religion, politics, medicine and sport.

The study now considers the career pathway models developed within the field of educational leadership and to research that has adopted this approach in the study of the making of educational leaders.

Career Models of Educational Leadership

We work as we live and have lived. How we react to situations will be coloured by our personality, by our personal history, by our cultural roots, by our class, gender, ethnicity etc. (Starrett, 1996, p. 3)

Literature that has studied the lives and careers of educational leaders prior to the mid-1990s was limited to the charting of the careers of a small number of well-known senior educational leaders; for example, Rae's (1993) auto-biographical account of his route to the headship of Westminster School. In support of the value that such biographical accounts can bring to studying leadership, Gronn and Ribbins (1996) note that it can reveal evidence of the development and learning of leadership attributes. Moreover, it can answer broader system and institutional-level questions by allowing for comparisons of the career paths of leaders studied.

The Making of Educational Leaders

Some of us want to be leaders. Others are content to be followers. We make choices, or at least we like to think we do. How and why it is that particular choices in respect of leadership and followership come to be made throughout our lives, and what parameters and confines within which those choices are made, are part and parcel of leadership careers. (Gronn, 1999, p. 20)

In 1999, Gronn published his seminal research, which devised a framework that ordered the biographical details of educational leaders' lives from the perspective of career. He stressed that this approach was valuable as it enabled students of leadership to gain useful insights into the contexts in which leaders operate. He further suggested that adopting a career-focused leadership framework allows for 'a point of reference against which to map leaders' biographical experiences and activities' (1999, p. 31). The structured career pathway developed by Gronn (1999) is presented in Figure 2.9.

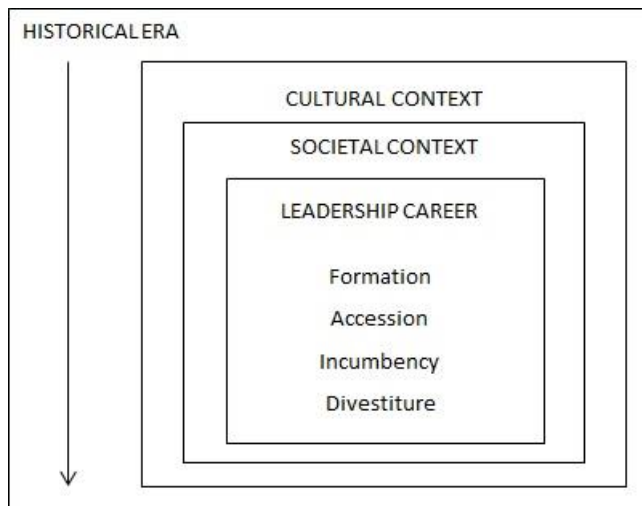


Figure 2.9: Gronn's Career Model of Educational Leadership (1999, p. 37)

Gronn identified three contexts (i.e. historical; cultural; and societal) within which the making of educational leaders takes place. These contexts, not of the individual's choosing, uniquely influence the trajectory of a leader's career; one that is structured by the time in history an individual is born and the cultural and societal environment in which they grow up.

Gronn believed it necessary to explore these three contexts in order to understand an individual's leadership journey and to appreciate why they became leaders. In support of the importance of context vis-a-vis the making of educational leaders, Gunter (2001, p. 78) observed that 'we are born and raised in contexts at particular times that seek to determine and shape us - and so our choices and actions need to be understood within this environment'.

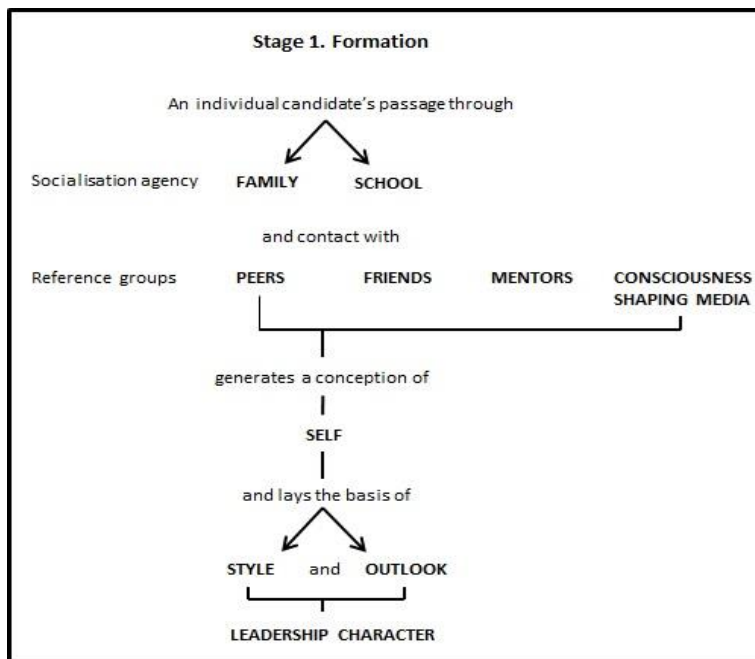


Figure 2.10: The Process of Formation (Gronn, 1999, p. 35)

The first stage of Gronn's (1999) four-stage, longitudinal, contextually-driven model is entitled 'formation' and is concerned with early stage influences on leaders, from childhood to adulthood (see Figure 2.10). Gronn observed that the impact of the influences at large during this stage play a key role in shaping the individual's 'leadership character' (1999, p. 35). Ribbins (2003, p. 63), who utilises the formation stage in his research in this area, described the process of formation as:

Being made up of the influences which, taken as a whole, shape the kinds of people that prospective headteachers become. In this process the headteachers of the future are socialised into deep rooted norms and values by the action and interaction of such key agencies as the family, school, peer groups, the local community and other reference groups.

The nature and range of formative influences reported to be at large within the career journeys of leaders has been documented in the literature. This is discussed further at the close of this section of the chapter.

The second stage of Gronn's model is termed 'accession'; illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 2.11. Gronn refers to the phase in the aspiring leader's life that s/he develops a 'repertoire' of skills and experiences in preparation for headship (1999, p. 36). Gronn believed that through practicing aspects of the leadership role, aspirant leaders were preparing for headship; a feature to which Gronn refers as 'grooming' (p. 34). Importantly, Ribbins (2003, p. 64) saw this to be a time when aspiring leaders 'develop networks of peers, mentors and patrons, learning to present themselves and jockey for position in the competition for preferment.' Gronn believed that to be effective it was necessary that the development of leadership skills be accompanied by the development of self-belief comprising of a strong sense of 'one's worth and value' (p. 36).

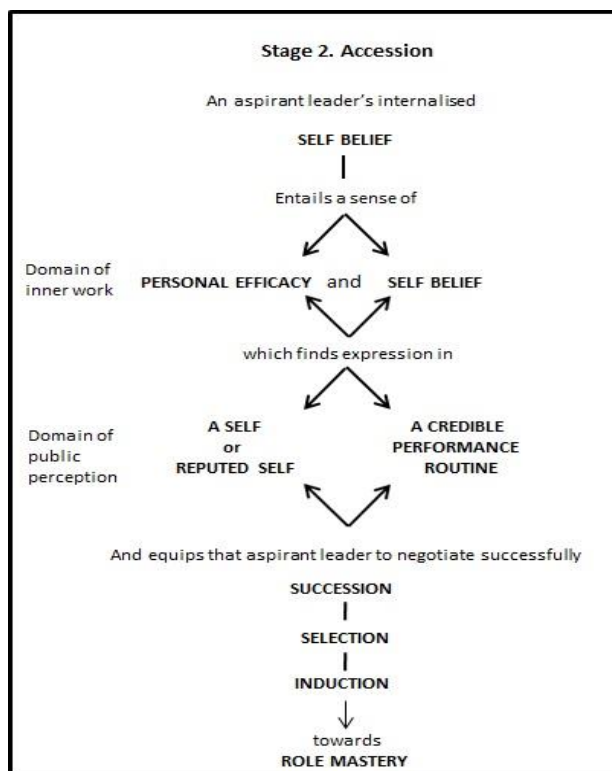


Figure 2.11: The Process of Leader Accession (Gronn, 1999, p. 37)

The third stage of Gronn's model is labelled 'incumbency' and refers to the period of

employment as an educational leader. The fourth stage that of ‘divestiture’, refers to the final stage of the leader’s career, where ultimately they step out of their role. These two final stages in the framework were, in Gronn’s view, not the prime focus of his research into the making of educational leaders. However, they were important stages for other researchers, as it is at this point within the leadership journey that Day and Bakioglu (1996) launch their career model of educational leadership (see Figure 2.12).

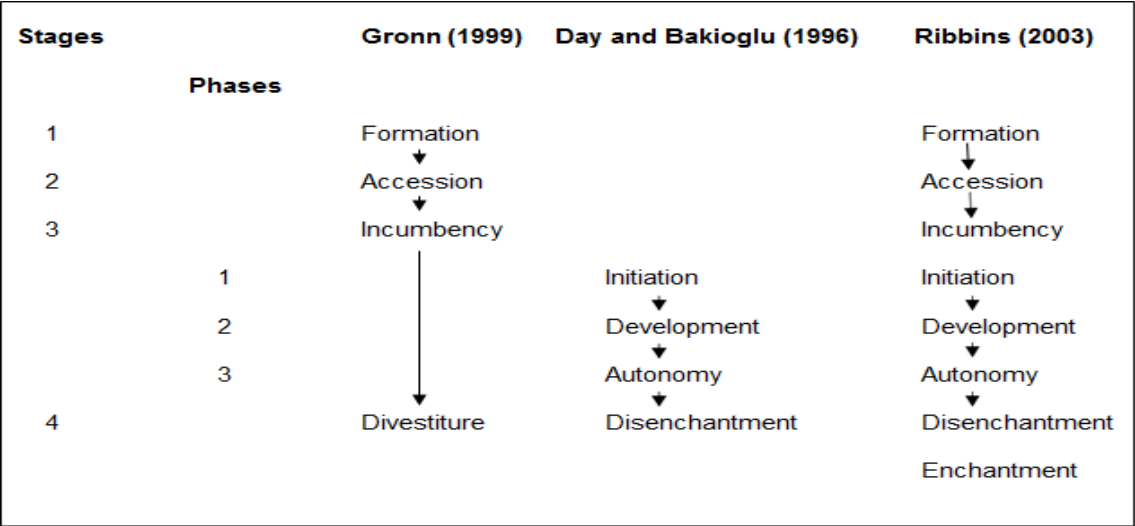


Figure 2.12: Summary of the Stages and Phases of Career Models of Educational Leadership

Derived from a study of headteachers in England, the first phase of Day and Bakioglu’s (1996) model, initiation, sees leaders *in post*. Their second stage labelled ‘development’ is where the headteacher consolidates what s/he has learnt in the role. The third stage they termed ‘autonomy’, which the authors suggest is a phase of a headteacher’s career when they can challenge, both positively and negatively, the leader’s effectiveness. On reaching the latter stages of their career, headteachers enter the fourth and final stage of the model; ‘disenchantment’. As the title suggests, this stage is reached if (or when) leaders lose confidence in, and

enthusiasm for, their leadership career.

Ribbins' (2003) career formation model adopts the first three stages of Gronn's (1999) model, but moves away from the incumbency stage to develop an alternative trajectory. Ribbins (2003, p. 65) suggests that leaders can take one of two main routes at this stage in their career, each consisting of four successive sub-phases. In his model, both routes adopt the first three sub-phases of Day and Bakioglu's model (1996); initiation, development and autonomy. Ribbins (2003) then proposes that the fourth sub-phase of the leader's career takes one of two directions; thereby rejecting the final phase of Day and Bakioglu's model (1996) and the negative connotations associated with Gronn's final 'divestiture' phase. Instead, Ribbins' (2003) final phase of 'moving on' focuses on two alternative directions that headteachers take on leaving office. If 'disenchanted', the headteacher faces the prospect of divestiture and, for some, welcome retirement. However, in Ribbins' (2003, p. 67) view while 'some long serving heads do seem discouraged and disenchanted, others do not'. Consequently, a motivated headteacher can look forward to reinvention. This follows Ribbins' (2003) alternative route, which he labelled as enchantment.

Inman's (2007) findings from her study of the leadership journeys of academics in higher education in the UK supported Ribbins' (2003) enchantment phase.

However, she suggested it was less to do with reinvention, the basis of Ribbins' (2003) enchantment phase, and associated more with leaders stepping out of post in order to pursue interests that had been put on hold. Inman (2007) referred to this as a 'reclamation' phase.

Contextual Influences - Career Models of Educational Leadership

Research into the lives and careers of educational leaders has reported a range of influential factors at large among the contexts within which the personal and professional lives of leaders unfold. This section of the literature review concludes with a review of the key influential factors reported by scholars engaged in the life histories and career formation of education leaders.

Family

Within the formation stage of Gronn's (1999) model, family is identified explicitly as a key socialisation agency. In addition, the influence of family on the development of educational leaders has been reported by other scholars from that era; for example, Ribbins (1997), Ouston (1997), Dimmock and O' Donoghue (1997) and, more latterly, Parker (2002), Inman (2007) and Mackenzie-Batterbury (2011).

Reporting on a collaborative investigation into the pathways to headship drawn from nine life histories of headteachers in the UK, Ouston (1997) observed that in certain instances parental influence was both apparent and powerful, with participants speaking of how they had learned much from their parents; for example, 'my father is a person dedicated to all he undertakes, I have inherited this from him' (p. 174). However, in other areas, such as career, Ouston (1997, p. 174) reported parental influence as less evident

Dimmock and O' Donoghue (1997) focused their attention on Australian school principals. Adopting a biographical approach, their study enabled them to identify influential factors in the formation of the principal over their full life experience. They reported that participants held a deep-seated desire to prioritise the development of their students over all else. Significantly, it was reported that this stance had been influenced by their own childhood experiences, where the formation of strong values, high expectations and an 'eagerness to unearth and seize opportunities, were encouraged by their parents' (p. 150). Dimmock and O' Donoghue (1997, p. 158) observed that 'the high value placed on learning can, in most instances, be traced back to childhood, to the inculcation of family values.' This situation was also highlighted in Rayner and Ribbins' (1999) biographical study, which identified family as influential in shaping the attitudes and of the headteachers engaged in their study.

Parker's (2002) study, which examined the impact of life history on educational leadership, referred to influential 'support mechanisms' (p. 34); for example, stable family backgrounds and parents that had aspirations for their children, which had shaped the thinking of the headteachers 'at intensely formative moments of their lives (p. 35). Likewise, Inman's (2007) study of leader academics in higher education in the UK also highlights the importance of parental influence. Inman (2007, p. 150) spoke of how the importance of education and hard work of the respondents' parents had:

manifested itself not only by the leaders' gravitation to education as a career and the long hours they put in to achieve their ambitions but also to their commitment to it. All the leaders echoed their parents' views, in that they, too, were passionate about the value of education.

Finally, on the theme of family, Mackenzie-Batterbury's (2011) study examined the life and career of 20 principals of newly opened academies in England and reported similar findings. Her respondents spoke of the influence of their parents, with most describing them as hard working and ambitious, and placing considerable importance on education. Here too, respondents linked explicitly these formative experiences to assigning great value to education later in their lives.

Schooling

In addition to family, Gronn (1999) identified the importance of school as a further key 'socialisation agency' in the process of leader formation. He also referred to peers and friends as influential 'reference groups' associated with school. Rayner and Ribbins (1999) and Parker's (2002) studies concurred, reporting the significance of formative school experiences. Both studies reported the significance of positive and negative school experiences on the development of leaders.

Rayner and Ribbins' (1999) study reported that few participants recalled teachers at secondary school who had significantly influenced them, although those who did referred to how their high standards, dedication, kindness and support had been influential in their own careers. The impact of teachers was also highlighted by Ouston (1997) who reported headteachers recalling how teachers had motivated and inspired them. Similarly, Parker (2002, p.21) cited a conversation with a headteacher who recalled an inspirational teacher who had told him to 'be ambitious, go to university, achieve!'

Ouston (1997, p. 175) looked at all stages of schooling, from primary to higher education, and she reported that none of ten headteachers spoke positively about their primary school experiences; however, all but one recalled their secondary schooling in a positive manner. Ouston also reported the headteachers' routes into teaching, with some undertaking non-teaching employment prior to gaining their teaching qualification, but once at university, all recalled enjoying their experience and it was reported to be 'a powerful influence in their lives' (1997, p. 176).

In line with these findings, Inman (2007) and Mackenzie-Batterbury (2011) highlight the significant role of schooling in their studies. Like Ouston (1997), they report that primary school education was deemed less significant than secondary and higher education. Inman (2007, p. 113) spoke of how the leaders participating in her study were grateful for receiving a good education and that it had allowed them opportunities that they may otherwise have been denied. Both studies make reference to the impact of the 11+ examination, and that schooling, and particular university, had enabled them to 'study subjects that they were passionate about; maturing and developing emotionally and academically; enjoying new opportunities and challenges' (Mackenzie-Batterbury, 2011; p. 124).

Significant People

In addition to the role of parents and schooling acknowledged as influential in this area of research; a number of people are also identified as impacting on the lives of educational leaders. For example, Parker (2002, p. 34) acknowledges the

importance of mentors for the leaders engaged in his study 'who shaped their thinking at intensely formative moments of their lives.' He observed that 'all of these heads can look back to their formative years in schools and realise just how much they learnt from their own experiences and from mentors who helped them define their educational philosophies and hone their skills' (p. 35). Parker also recognised the importance of 'having partners, who shared, understood and supported their ambition'. In his view, both groups 'were of crucial importance in preparing these heads for their leadership roles' (p.35).

Inman (2007, p. 55) referred to Johnson (2002) who found that the contacts held by leader academics' with experts in their field was of great help in learning how to lead. Inman (2007), whose own study explored the career journey of leader academics, observed that 'these people became significant in shaping and developing their leadership capability, particularly in the absence of any formal training or development' (p. 55).

Summary - Career Models of Educational Leadership

The literature reviewed in this section has conceptualised leadership journeys as a career. Moreover, these journeys have been examined through the identification of distinct life stages through which individuals pass. In other words, stages that contain influences that are seen to impact and shape individuals on their career path to leadership. However, the research focus in this study 'reverses the lens', setting aside leadership and instead focuses its attention on the followership journey of teachers.

Chapter Conclusion

The literature review chapter has sought to provide the reader with an understanding of the study of followership in general and also an appreciation of the status of followership-centric research at large in the field of education leadership research. Indeed, a key objective of the chapter was to respond to RQ1: *what is known about followership in an educational context?* Today, a small but increasing number of empirically-based studies are being undertaken that focus on followers; and not simply as an afterthought in their examination of leaders. However, the situation is not so positive in the field of educational leadership. The search undertaken by this study revealed just 17 published papers that have focused specifically on followership. It would appear that despite the rise in interest in distributed and other shared forms of leadership within this field, the picture in the UK is particularly bleak. Indeed, in this field, Thody's (2003) work on followership in education stands alone.

This literature review chapter also considered career pathway models of educational leadership, reviewing key developments and providing insight into how such models have been employed in leadership research. Such longitudinal, contextually-driven models have enabled scholars to identify a range of factors that have shaped the agency of educationalists. For example, family, schooling, significant individuals; all of which have sculpted the lives and careers of individuals along their journeys to leadership.

The introductory chapter of this study acknowledges the challenge of defining the

concept of followership, a task made difficult due to its lack of academic scrutiny. Uhl-Bien et al.'s (2014) extensive review of followership provides valuable insight into the key approaches taken to the study of followership and of research undertaken by leading scholars in this area. This study takes the role-based approach, one embraced by the first wave of scholars whose research focused on the followership of those in hierarchical roles. As this study has suggested, in this sense followership is the response of people in subordinate positions to those in senior ones.

Currently, relative to leadership, followership research is in its infancy. Having said this, the activity of followership scholars working to establish credible approaches to its study has resulted in it becoming a fast-moving and burgeoning area of research. A case in point is that during the period of time related to the completion of this study (2011-2015), there has been a move by followership scholars to embrace the part played by followers *in* the leadership process; one which is viewed as being co-created through social and relational interactions between people, i.e. leaders and followers. Significantly, this constructionist stance links followership not to a role but to a behaviour. As Uhl-Bien et al. (2014, p. 89) observe, "this approach allows us to recognize that managers are not always leading - they also defer to subordinates, which means they also engage in 'following behaviours.'"

CHAPTER THREE - RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This chapter describes the design chosen for this study. The research is based upon underlying philosophical assumptions about what constitutes valid research and the methodologies and methods appropriate for the development of knowledge required to respond to the study's research questions.

The chapter begins by acknowledging the philosophical approaches and the wider frameworks within which the study can be located. Further, it details the key aspects of the design strategy that determine the nature of the research undertaken and provides insight into the way in which the study was managed. The chapter concludes with a description of the ethical considerations underpinning the research and a discussion regarding how the data was analysed.

Wider Frameworks

To place the research into wider frameworks, the study draws on Habermas' typology (1972), Wallace and Poulson's (2003) study on intellectual projects and Ribbins and Gunter's (2002) knowledge domains. The work of Habermas (1972) differentiates three primary generic cognitive areas in which human interest generates knowledge. These areas determine categories relevant to what we interpret as knowledge. The three types of research (or human cognitive interests) are the *technical*, which focuses on tasks and relates to the world of work; the

practical, which focuses on how we understand each other; and the *emancipatory*, which focuses on matters of power and justice. Significantly, this study aligns itself with the second type, i.e. a practical approach to research. It seeks knowledge on people and relationships, their motives and choices and how people relate to each other. This type of knowledge is favoured by the interpretivist mode of enquiry.

A second framework, devised by Wallace and Poulson (2003), identifies five 'intellectual projects' that place research within a wider context. They identify the purposes of the research, the nature of the knowledge generated and the associated literature produced. Wallace and Poulson (2003, p. 23) define a study as 'a scheme of enquiry to generate knowledge that will achieve specified purposes.'

This research study is concerned with understanding how and why teachers enact followership and as such, it is positioned within the 'knowledge for understanding' project. The key features of the five projects are summarised in Table 3.1.

	Knowledge for understanding	Knowledge for critical evaluation	Knowledge for action	Instrumentalism	Reflexive action
Rationale	To understand policy and practice through theory and research	To critically evaluate policy and practice through theory and research	To improve policy makers efforts to practice through research and evaluation	To improve practitioners' practice through training and consultancy	To improve practitioners' practice through evaluation and action for improvement
Value stance towards an aspect of the social world	Disinterested towards policy and practice	Critical about policy and practice	Positive towards policy and the possibility of improving practice	Positive towards policy and the possibility of improving practice	Critical about practitioners' practice and positive about the possibility of improving it
Typical question about the outside world	What happens and why?	What is wrong with what happens and why?	How effective are interventions to improve practice?	How may this programme improve practice?	How effective is my practice and how may I improve it?

Table 3.1: The Five Intellectual Projects - adapted from Wallace and Poulson (2003, p. 24)

Ribbins and Gunter (2002) provide further opportunity to place the research within a wider framework. Their work identifies five different 'knowledge domains' that focus and position research; namely, conceptual, critical, humanistic, evaluative and instrumental. Each domain originates from the acknowledgement of the need to move beyond purely instrumental research to include, for example, critical and evaluative aspects.

As the research underpinning this research study is dependent upon the personal perceptions of the teachers arising from their life and career histories, it positions itself within the 'humanistic' knowledge domain. Ribbins and Gunter (2002, p. 363) describe each domain in terms of seven major factors: the purpose; the focus; the contextual setting; the methodology and methods; the audience for the research; communication; and the impact of the work. These factors, and how they link this

research study to the humanistic domain, are detailed in Table 3.2.

Purpose	To describe and analyse and through this contribute to improved understanding of followership in an educational context
Focus	How and why individual teachers follow
Context	Secondary schools
Method	Mixed method, combining qualitative, biographical style interviews with a pre-existing quantitative questionnaire
Audience	Researchers, policy makers and practitioners
Communication	Reporting to the research community, policy makers and practitioners
Impact	Moving past emphasis from leaders alone to leader-follower engagements

Table 3.2: The Humanistic Knowledge Domain (Ribbins and Gunter, 2002)

Philosophical Foundations

Philosophical concerns such as ontology and epistemology provide a shared understanding of research and are often described in terms of a paradigm in research (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006). Grix (2012, p. 1) observed that, without knowledge and understanding of what he called ‘the foundations of research’, a researcher is ‘unlikely to write, understand, discuss or disseminate good research.’

Ontology is a branch of philosophy that is concerned with the matters of reality and truth. Margaret Thatcher’s notorious denial of ‘society’ existing is an ontological claim. Ontology, therefore, is concerned with the study of being and everything involved with beings such as human relationships and the ontological world that they create. As Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur (2006, p. 53) observe, ‘a question that arises is whether reality is the result of objective nature or the result of individual cognition - is it “out there” or is it created in our own minds’.

Williams (1998) described epistemology as being concerned with the nature of knowing and the construction of knowledge. As Heylighten (1993) observed, from a scientific perspective, questions about knowledge lead researchers to consider how they can develop theories or models that are better than competing ones. More specifically, Cohen, Manion and Morris (2000) ask the question is knowledge hard, real and capable of being transmitted in a tangible form. Or is it soft, subjective and based on experience and insight of a unique and personal nature.

Philosophical Worldviews

Guba (1990, p. 17) describes a worldview as 'a set of beliefs that guide action'.

Advocates of a particular worldview will hold views relating to ontology and epistemology and choose research methodologies congruent with those perspectives (Walliman, 2006). Four different worldviews i.e. positivism; interpretivism; advocacy/participatory; and pragmatism are presented in Table 3.3 and the major elements of each are discussed in this section.

Positivism	Interpretivism
Determinism Reductionism Empirical observation and measurement Theory verification	Understanding Multiple participant meaning Social and historical construction Theory generation
Advocacy/Participatory	Pragmatism
Political Empowerment Issue-oriented Collaborative Change-oriented	Consequences of actions Problem-centred Pluralistic Realist-world practice oriented

Table 3.3: The Four Worldviews of Research (Creswell, 2008, p. 6)

The positivist view of exploring social reality is based on the philosophical ideas of Comte. He regarded observation and reason as the best means of

understanding human behaviour. True knowledge is based upon experience of senses and obtained via observation and experiment (Thomas, 2010; p. 294). According to Creswell (2003, p. 7), this stance is seen 'to reflect a deterministic philosophy in which causes probably determine effects or outcomes.' Positivism is also reductionist in that 'the intent is to reduce the ideas into a small, discrete set of ideas to test, such as the variables that comprise hypotheses and research questions' (Creswell, 2008; p. 7). Porecellato (2012) describes it as the 'logic of demonstration' as it assumes that the world has an objective reality and that knowledge exists and is both observable and measurable. This approach to research is sometimes termed 'nomothetic' with its focus on obtaining objective knowledge through scientific methods. Positivists aim to test a theory or describe an experience 'through observation and measurement to predict and control forces that surround us' (O'Leary, 2004; p. 5). Consequently, their research is aligned most commonly with quantitative methods of data collection and analysis.

According to Cohen and Manion (1994, p. 36), the interpretivist approach to research has the intention of understanding 'the world of human experience.' Interpretivists hold a worldview that individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences; meanings that are varied and multiple. These lead the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than reducing meanings into a few categories or ideas (Creswell, 2008; p. 8). Interpretivism also places emphasis on the specific contexts in which people live and work, acknowledging the historical and cultural settings of the participants. Importantly, researchers must recognise that their experiences shape their understanding and interpretation of the research that they undertake.

The philosophical assumptions underlying this view, described by Porecellato (2012) as the 'logic of discovery', typically align themselves with a qualitative methodology. Moreover, they are characterised by an inductive stance, which looks to get inside situations and take account of subjects' meanings and interpretational systems (Duberley, 2012). The interpretivist approach reflects an ontological and epistemological position, which takes the view that reality and truth are the products of individual perception. Furthermore, multiple realities are shared by people and that knowledge is subjective and based on experience and insight.

According to Creswell (2008, p. 9), the advocacy and participatory worldview arose during the 1980s and 1990s. This is typically seen 'as a worldview that holds that research inquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and a political agenda'.

Kemmis and Wilkinson (1998) identify four key features of the advocacy/participatory stance: that participatory actions are focused on bringing about change; that it is focused on freeing individuals from societal constraints; it aims to create a political debate so that change will occur; and that it engages participants as active contributors to the research. Thus, it is a collaborative experience.

Finally, those holding the pragmatic worldview do not tie themselves to any one system of philosophy and reality and consequently draw from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research. Pragmatists link the choice of approach directly to the purpose of and the nature of the research questions posed (Creswell, 2003). As Armitage (2007, p.1) observed, 'research is often multi-purpose and a "what works" tactic will allow the researcher to address

questions that do not sit comfortably within a wholly quantitative or qualitative approach to design and methodology.'

For the mixed-methods approach, researcher pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2008, p.9). Unsurprisingly, therefore, Denscombe (2010, p. 148) regards pragmatism 'as the philosophical partner of the mixed-methods approach.'

Mixed-Methods Research

This study adopts a mixed-methods approach; one, which is recognised today as a third major research paradigm (Creswell, 2003). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2007, p. 112) define mixed-methods as; 'a class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study or set of related studies.' When adopting a mixed-methods approach, the researcher builds knowledge on pragmatic grounds, in the conviction that this will enable him (sic) to make what Dewey described as 'warranted assertions' (1941, p.1).

In support of mixed-methods research, commentators have observed that such a combination can complement each other and allow for a complete analysis (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Denscombe (2010, p.139) identifies reasons for taking a mixed methods approach. For example, he suggests that improved accuracy is possible by providing the

researcher with an opportunity to triangulate and check the findings drawn by one method with that of another. Mixed methods can also offer a more full and complete picture as a result of combining 'complementary' data drawn from the different research methods employed. He also suggests that it can help analysis development by building upon the results drawn from the initial research method.

Denscombe (2010, p. 141) also highlights how this approach can enable methods to compensate for the alleged weaknesses of other methods employed in the study. For example, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, p. 9) suggest that quantitative data research can fail to report fully the voice of the participant and can lack understanding of the context in which that voice is heard. Further, that quantitative researchers remain 'in the background' with their biases and interpretations rarely declared. They suggest that such weaknesses can be compensated by the inclusion of qualitative data. However, the value of qualitative research can be limited by researchers being directly involved; in particular, if they allow their interpretations of the data and their personal biases to become embedded in their findings.

This study adopts a common and well-known approach to mixing methods, i.e. the triangulation design. The purpose of this design is 'to obtain different but complimentary data on the same topic to understand best the research problem' (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; p.62). This approach embraces the benefits above of bringing together the differing strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses of quantitative methods with those of qualitative methods (Patton, 1990). Specifically, the approach taken in this study is the convergence model, whereby

qualitative and quantitative data is collected and analysed separately and the differing results are then converged and interpreted.

Three key issues for consideration when designing a mixed methods study are priority, implementation and integration (Creswell, 2003). Priority refers to which method, either quantitative or qualitative, is given more emphasis in the data collection and analysis stages of the study. Implementation refers to whether the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis occurs concurrently, or one after the other. Integration refers to the phase in the research process where the mixing or connecting of quantitative and qualitative data occurs.

This study prioritises qualitative data over quantitative data - QUAL (quan) - and in line with Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Burke's (2007, p.126) description of mixed methods research, this study takes a 'qualitative-dominant' approach. It does this as it looks to reveal information on teacher followership that may not come to light through research design that attempts to cover a large number of instances with a quantitative focus. In this study, the goal is to gain sufficient detail from qualitative data to better understand how and why teachers follow. As such, it chooses to prioritise an approach that emphasises depth over breadth; the particular over the general; a holistic view rather than isolated factors; and a natural setting over the artificial situation.

Using this approach, the collection and analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data occurs sequentially; that is, the one-to-one semi-structured interviews were undertaken in the initial phase, while the questionnaires were administered in phase

two. The quantitative measure, i.e. Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire, provides a general picture of the recognised 'types' of followership reported by the teachers engaged in this study and enables the corroboration of the qualitative findings with the quantitative results. My intention is for the quantitative and qualitative components to be 'mutually illuminating,' a distinctive feature of a successful mixed methods design (Bryman, 2007; p.8) and as a result, I can produce valid and substantiated conclusions about the followership of school teachers. The research process is visualised in Figure 3.1:

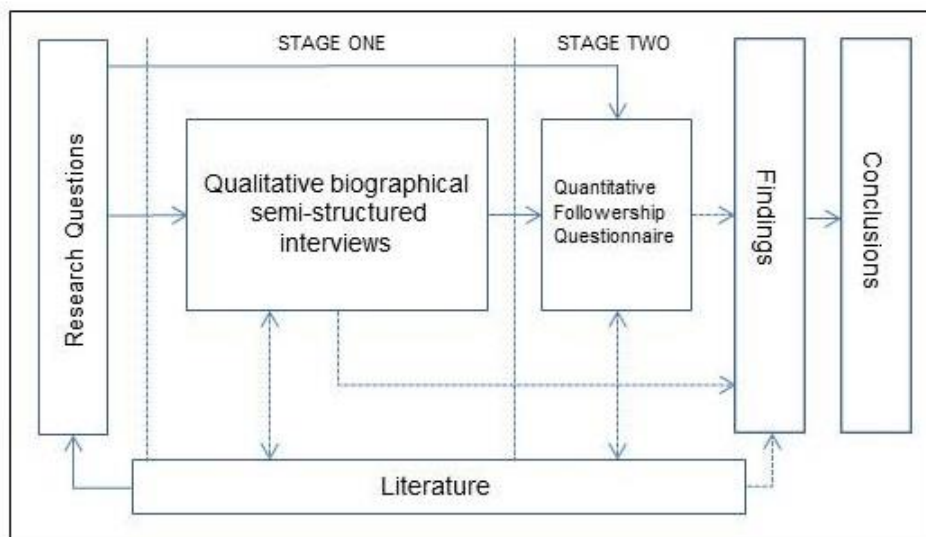


Figure 3.1: The Study's Research Process

Access and Sampling

According to Burgess (1984), managing access to schools for the purposes of research can be overlooked in the planning phase by some researchers and ignored completely by others. Acknowledging this and following the procedure detailed in the University's ethical review process, permission was sought from headteachers of the five schools in Randleshire (see Appendix 4 for letter), with

each receiving a recruitment flyer to help attract potential participants (Appendix 5) and a one page further information guide (Appendix 6). The response was positive and all headteachers agreed to provide access to potential participants.

In the qualitative element of this study the sampling approach taken was purposive, i.e. a non-probability sampling technique, also commonly labeled subjective or judgmental sampling. Denscombe (2003, p.15) suggests that 'purposive sampling is applied to those situations where the researcher already knows something about the specific people or events, and deliberately selects particular ones because they are seen as instances that are likely to produce the most valuable data.'

The five participating schools based in Randleshire were selected on the grounds of them being mid-sized secondary schools conveniently located for the fieldwork to be undertaken. As the focus of this study was followership, the aim is to engage teachers rather than senior leaders. Consequently, participants were required to be active, secondary school teachers, drawn from any discipline and employed at one of the five feeder schools. While they could hold a leadership role, this needed to be accompanied by traditional classroom teaching duties. Qualifying participants willing to be involved in the study were invited to assist in locating other suitable candidates for involvement in the study. This snowballing technique is a legitimate research practice adopted when studying hard-to-reach groups (Denscombe, 2010). Similarly, respondents sought for the quantitative element of the study were required to be school teachers, active in the classroom, from any discipline and employed at one of the five participating schools.

Sample size is an important variable in research. Simons (1996), in defence of smaller samples sizes typically employed by qualitative research, describes its mission as to go deep rather than wide. Cousins (2009, p. 4), a vocal defender of qualitative research designs makes a pithy contribution to the debate when she observed that:

We accept that Hamlet has something to say about, for instance, revenge and treachery. Theatregoers do not typically pour out of the theatre complaining that Shakespeare cannot conclude anything about revenge and treachery on the basis of one case study; no-one queries why he didn't interview a large sample of Scandinavian princes. Or complain that Hamlet was not representative of princes because he was a particularly troubled one.

In this mixed-methods research study the sample size for the qualitative element is 15; determined partly by the time-consuming nature of undertaking the qualitative element of the research and also by the constraints of this particular research study (e.g. time-period, word-count). The sample consists of 11 females and four males. Participants from the five schools had teaching experience ranging from 3 to 38 years (see the introduction to Chapter 4 for further details on the characteristics of the interview participants). In addition, the quantitative element of the research underpinning this study was collected using Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire. This was completed by a total of 69 respondents.

Research Methods

This study uses two research methods to collect data; a semi-structured, biographical style interview and a pre-existing questionnaire developed by Kelley (1992). Both are now discussed along with their application to the study.

The Semi-Structured Interview

The semi-structured interview has pre-determined questions upon which the interviewee can develop ideas and speak more widely. Denscombe (2003) points out that this style of interview typically uses open-ended questions, encouraging the interviewee to elaborate on points of interest. Importantly, this approach enables the interviewer to change the question wording and order; and some questions that appear inappropriate with particular interviewees, may even be omitted.

The semi-structured interview has several advantages, including matters associated with validity; flexibility; simplicity and the range and depth of information that can be gleaned from using this method. However, in addition to being time-consuming, this interview method has a number of other potential disadvantages. For example, the data is non-standard and, hence, more laborious to analyse as compared to coded answers via questionnaires. Consequently, reliability can be adversely affected and the presence of the researcher can inhibit the respondent (Denscombe, 2003). How the aforementioned advantages and disadvantages link to this research study is detailed in Table 3.4:

Advantages	Disadvantages
Can enable the collection of wide-ranging and detailed information on the followership of teachers	Undertaking the interview, transcribing and coding data is time-consuming. Further, this approach may collect material that is non-standard, leading to difficulties when comparing data sets
Flexibility via the opportunity to make adjustments to the 'live' interview - e.g. changing focus and running order in response to an interviewee's direction of discussion	The interview can lose shape; become elongated, time-wise. The decision-making of the interviewer and its impact on the interview can be detrimental

Can be a positive experience for the interviewee - i.e. interviewees may enjoy recounting life story; provides a therapeutic experience	Issues of reliability: data is dependent on interviewee reflecting accurately on events. The interview may be construed as an invasion of privacy
Can enable a high response rate as interviews are typically scheduled in advance and held at an agreeable time and place	It is unlikely to match response rates of other data collection methods, such as surveys and questionnaires, without very significant time consumption
Can be a cost-efficient way to collect data, demanding little technical equipment and can often be undertaken freely in most locations	Benefits of cost efficiency may be outweighed by time inefficiency
Due to the aforementioned advantages, this may be an attractive data collection method than is easily accessible to all, including the untrained researcher	The impact of the interviewer can be detrimental to the outcome of the interview, adversely impacting consistency and objectivity - even for experienced researchers

Table 3.4: - The Advantages and Disadvantages of using Semi-Structured Interviews

The Pilot Study

Bryman (2008) suggests that it is desirable to conduct a pilot study before administering a questionnaire or undertaking an interview. This can help ensure questions are understood and that the research instruments function well. To test the appropriateness of the interview schedule and how ready I was to undertake the interviews effectively, I carried out two pilot interviews. The teachers chosen for the interviews were from a nearby secondary school not included in the study and both were known to me. The participants in the pilot study were considered representative of the participants sought for this study. The pilot interviews were undertaken prior to the first interview and proved to be a worthwhile experience as it alerted me to a number of areas for improvement.

Reflecting on the first pilot interview, what was very clear was that I had spoken too much and that my enthusiasm to seek information had led me to all but dominate the discussion. Even knowing this, in the second interview I still spoke more than I

needed to. Apart from impinging on the interviewee's opportunity to speak and possibly provide me with valuable data, it created unnecessary additional work when transcribing. Consequently, I was highly conscious of this as I proceeded with the actual fieldwork. More positively, the resultant transcriptions indicated that I had learned from the pilot experience.

The pilot study also exposed times when I had missed opportunities to probe into some of the issues raised by the interviewees. In response, I re-read the literature that guided and shaped the interview schedule so that I was more familiar with the key areas. An outcome of this is that I chose to emphasise further the importance of context, recognising that the biographical element of the interview needed to investigate more purposefully the influences that shape the type of followers that people become. Accordingly, I encouraged discussion on key agencies such as family, educational experience; community etc recognising that it is these that are seen to shape the personality of the future followers.

A further key point I considered important was to know how and when to assertively but tactfully stop participants talking unnecessarily (e.g. repeating points, introducing irrelevant material, rambling). My experience of undertaking the pilots (and most definitely reinforced following the actual fieldwork) is that the biographical nature engendered in this particular study encouraged long and 'wordy' responses. Further, and surprisingly, after a day of teaching children it appeared that teachers were still very keen to talk!

I also piloted Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire with the two

teachers used in the interview pilot exercise (see Appendix 7 for a copy of the questionnaire). While they were able to complete this unaided, feedback suggested that a small number of the words used in the original version of the questionnaire should be replaced in order to fit better with the proposed audience of UK-based school teachers. Further, in addition to requesting biographical information from the respondents, I added contextual information and basic instructions to aid those completing the questionnaire:

Most of us spend the majority of our time, tasked by others, to do things. In this role, it stands to reason that how we perform determines, for the most part, how satisfied we are with our day-to-day work existence.

Please respond to each statement as you naturally behave; remember that this questionnaire is totally anonymous. For each statement, please use the scale below to indicate **the extent to which the statement describes you**. It may help to think of **a specific but typical situation and how you acted**.

Overall, the pilot study proved highly useful. While it made me realise that I had not been as well equipped as I'd believed, it did give me confidence as I felt that I had refined my approach considerably, such that I could undertake the upcoming fieldwork in a professional manner. As a result, I concur with Bryman (2008, p. 247) when he observes, 'piloting an interview schedule can provide interviewers with some experience of using it and it can infuse them with a greater sense of confidence'.

Conducting the Interviews

One-to-one semi-structured interviews were carried out at the participant's school at the end of the teaching day. This approach was adopted because it was the

participants' preferred option and because it proved to work effectively. In some cases, a meeting room or private classroom had been arranged in advance; in others, a convenient room was located at the time. Holding the interviews at the participant's school provided an insight into their working environment and allowed for a less stressful engagement with the process.

During the interview stage, issues of anonymity and confidentiality were once more discussed with participants and the consent form was completed prior to the interview commencing (see Appendix 8). Participants were reminded of the likely duration of the interview and I informed them in advance that I might have to 'move them on' at times in my attempt to manage the interview process. They were informed that the interview would be recorded and transcribed at a later date. Audio recording of interviews is commonplace today as it provides a permanent record and avoids the pitfall of researchers' partial recall, bias and error (Denscombe, 2003; p. 187). On occasion, field notes were made during the interview; however, these were limited to avoid distracting the participant. As soon as possible after the interview, further notes were made as a prompt for later consideration. Interview recordings were then fully transcribed into Microsoft Word documents (see Appendix 9 for an example of an interview transcription).

The interview questions used were based broadly on issues identified from the literature review on followership and leadership formation models. The interview schedule reflected the first three stages of Gronn's Career Model; whereby questions are clustered around the formation, accession and incumbency stages of the teacher's life and career. General questions (e.g. asking participants to tell me

about the experiences and encounters in their early years that may have led them to teaching) were accompanied by prompts (e.g. asking if their parents had impacted on their career choice in any way) and more probing questions (e.g. asking about the educational background of the participant's parents and siblings). The interview schedule is reported in Appendix 10.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires provide a quantitative method of gathering information with the data recorded expressed in numerical terms and used subsequently for analysis. A key advantage of using a questionnaire rather than an interview is the ability to reach a wide audience of people more easily. However, questionnaires are typically more inflexible than interviews. Further, responses to open-ended questions, when offered, are unlikely to reveal the level of detailed information that is attainable via interview. The most common type of questionnaire is a self-completion questionnaire and will typically utilise closed rather than open questions. While an advantage of closed questions is that the answers are easier to code and quicker to analyse, the disadvantage is that they cannot cater for every eventuality, limiting the participants' freedom when responding.

In this mixed methods study, both questionnaire and interview provide a combined source of complementary data. As previously highlighted, a strength of their alliance is that each can compensate for the potential weaknesses associated with the other - e.g. the impact of researcher 'voice' on data. Further, with data drawn from two methods, the researcher is able to triangulate, aiding understanding of the research

problem to hand.

Followership Measures

While many instruments exist that attempt to measure and portray leadership styles, few exist to serve a similar purpose for followership. One of the small number of measures available is derived from the work of Chaleff (1995), an early pioneer of followership research. His measure focuses on the power that followers exhibit through their different behaviours, and he distinguishes this power as courage. Of note, while Chaleff's model of courageous followership is long established, no insight exists regarding its associated measure. Consequently, this, plus its focus on just one dimension of followership, resulted in this instrument not being selected for use in this study.

The questionnaire associated with Curphy and Roellig's (2011) followership model is heavily influenced by the earlier followership research of Kelley (1992). Their measure allows leaders to plot the followership behaviour of direct reports and co-workers, leading to one of four follower types (i.e. criticizers; self-starters; slackers; and brown-nosers). Currently, no reviews exist of this instrument. In addition, the third person approach to measurement fails to position the follower centre stage, a clear objective of this research. Consequently, this measure was not considered suitable for this study.

More recently, Kaak, Reynolds and White (2012) developed a followership measure. Their 30 item, self-report questionnaire leads to the identification of three

types of follower (i.e. resistant, compliant and mature). Similar to the aforementioned instruments, as no insight exists on its credibility as a measure of followership, this questionnaire was also not selected. In their place, the study turned to the work of Kelley (1992) in its search for a suitable measure of followership.

As part of the development of Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (1992), Kelley undertook research, which engaged views on followership from more than 1700 people, drawn from a wide range of contexts. Since its introduction, a number of studies have investigated its reliability using Cronbach's alpha, a measure of reliability used commonly when a questionnaire contains multiple questions that form a scale. Mertler et al. (1997), for example, recorded a Cronbach's alpha test score for Kelley's instrument of 0.84, whereas Seeley's (2006) study reported Cronbach's alpha test scores with the critical thinking dimension scoring between 0.63 to 0.74 and the active engagement dimension between 0.69 to 0.87. Kalkhoran, Naami and Beshlideh's study (2013) recorded scores of 0.63 in critical thinking and 0.82 in active engagement. In addition, Baryaji and Maleki (2012) tested the validity of Kelley's questionnaire, reporting a construct validity coefficient of 0.85. These findings indicate that Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (1992) has satisfactory levels of reliability and validity, and this information provides followership researchers with confidence regarding its credibility as a measure of followership.

The above discussion provides evidence in support of the construction of Kelley's questionnaire. However, for a measure that has been dominant within followership

research for some 25 years, the overall lack of scrutiny by the research community plus the limited evidence in support of its rigour is a potential limitation.

In this study, Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (1992) is used to understand how teachers follow. Here too, it is important to note that its fit with the context and the approach of the study is also not without limitation. For example, while the wording and focus of the questions are felt to resonate sufficiently with those working in an educational setting, the questionnaire was not developed specifically to measure the followership behaviours of school teachers. Further, this research adopts the role-based approach to the study of followership, with its focus on the interactions of people in subordinate roles with those in more senior ones. By employing Kelley's questionnaire, arguably the role and position of the follower is downplayed, with more emphasis placed on the behaviour they display.

Having selected Kelley's questionnaire, the study now provides a brief overview of this measure.

Kelley's Followership Model Questionnaire

Kelley's Followership Questionnaire (1992) measures two key dimensions, i.e. the activity level of followers and their propensity for independent, critical thinking.

Consisting of 20 items, this self-report measure uses a Likert scale ranging from 0 (rarely) to 6 (almost always). Questions 1, 5, 11, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19 and 20 determine the extent to which teachers are independent critical thinkers. While, questions 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13 and 15 determine the extent to which teachers

are active followers (see Kelley's questionnaire in Appendix 7). On completion of the questionnaire, scores for each dimension are calculated and from this Kelley identifies five possible followership styles, as detailed in Table 3.5:

Followership Styles (1992)	Independent/critical thinking dimension	Active-passive dimension
Passive	Low	Low
Conformist	Low	High
Pragmatist	Middling	Middling
Alienated	High	Low
Exemplary	High	High
Low = <20 Middling = 20 - 40 High = >40		

Table 3.5: Kelley's (1992) Typology and Score Relationship

Administering the Questionnaire

In addition to the 15 teachers who completed a paper version of Kelley's questionnaire on conclusion of their interview, teaching staff at the five participating schools were emailed by their headteacher and invited to complete an anonymous web-based version. The email invitation and the web-based questionnaire site clarified the purpose of the questionnaire, stressed its anonymity and guided the respondent as to how they should go about its completion. Additional, basic biographical information about the respondents was collected alongside the completed questionnaire, i.e. age, gender, length of service, leadership responsibilities.

The web version of the questionnaire was created using Bristol Online Surveys and was hosted for two months. As a result, this drew a further 54 respondents and resulted in 69 followership questionnaires being completed in total (i.e. 15 interviewees plus 54 via the web-based questionnaire). The full characteristics of

the questionnaire respondents can be found in Chapter 4.

Finally, it is worth reiterating that the data drawn from the quantitative element of this study is not intended to provide an opportunity to generalise, as is so often the ambition when using quantitative data. If this were the case, it would need considerable revision, particularly so in respect of the sample size and the manner in which the sample were to be engaged. In this instance, it is to be used in combination with the qualitative data drawn from the interviews which focused on how the participants engaged with their leader(s), in order to better understand the follower behaviour of the participants engaged in this study.

The Trustworthiness of the Study

Rowley (2002) urged that if a study is to gain the confidence of the research community, its procedures and findings must be perceived as sound and it be seen to be reliable, valid and generalisable. Alternatively, to use Lincoln and Guba's (1985) term that they deemed more appropriate for qualitative research, it must have overall trustworthiness. Next, the study considers each of these terms and relates them to the research methods employed.

Reliability

Reliability, is described by Denscombe (2003, p. 300) as 'when a research instrument produces the same data time after time on each occasion that it is used, and that any variation in the results obtained through using the instrument is due entirely to variations in the thing being measured.' Thomas (2009) sees reliability as

being a positivist notion acquired from scientific researchers by social scientists and goes so far as to question its place within qualitative research. Indeed, some years earlier Lincoln and Guba (1985) argued that an equivalent and more appropriate label for reliability when undertaking qualitative research is credibility. In this study, a number of steps were taken to secure the study's credibility. For example, the researcher has a background as an educationalist and that he was alert to the importance of maintaining thorough documentation and appropriate record throughout. Credibility was further encouraged through interviews being conducted similarly in each setting, strengthened by the adoption of a semi-structured approach, and all interviews being undertaken by one researcher.

Significantly, the mixed-methods approach adopted by this study adds a second, quantitative dimension and here, as previously highlighted, the reliability of Kelley's instrument is reported to be satisfactory.

Validity

Rhodes (2013, p. 34) observes that 'historically, validity has been viewed as the extent to which an adopted research instrument measures what it purports to measure and by seeking to increase its validity the researcher is also seeking to establish the 'truthfulness' of the research and to enhance its credibility.' According to Baxter and Jack (2008), one action that would lead to greater data credibility or truth value in research is the triangulation of data. Denscombe (2003) suggests that the purpose of triangulation is not to prove that the researcher got it wrong or right, but to give some confidence that the meaning of that data has some consistency.

Typically, triangulation attempts to address the issue of internal validity by using more than one method of data collection to answer a research question.

Denzin (1989, p. 291) understood triangulation as a validation strategy and identified four basic types of triangulation:

1. *Data triangulation*: involves time, space, and persons
2. *Investigator triangulation*: involves multiple researchers in an investigation
3. *Theory triangulation*: involves using more than one theoretical scheme in the interpretation of the phenomenon
4. *Methodological triangulation*: involves using more than one method to gather data, such as interviews, observations, questionnaires, and documents.

This study is reliant upon 'data triangulation' as it combines data drawn from different sources at different times, in different places and from different people.

Validity was also sought by looking to ensure consistency in undertaking the interviews; in other words, questions were formulated in simple language for clarity and ease of understanding, and clear instructions were given to all of the participants. Further, transcription of the interviews was made by a third party and sent to the participants as a further check for accuracy.

In addition, validity was further sought through 'methodological triangulation' by the use of two research methods and as previously highlighted, Baryaji and Maleki (2012) reporting a construct validity coefficient of 0.85.

Generalisability and Transferability

Generalisability is an important construct in the realms of research design, particularly so in quantitative studies. According to Collis and Hussey (2003) generalisation is concerned with the application of research results to cases or situations beyond those examined in the study. Due to limitations, typically around sample size, qualitative research is concerned with the potential transferability of the results (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Unlike generalisability, transferability does not seek broad claims; rather, it invites people to make connections between elements of a study and their experience.

Significantly, the intention of this qualitative-dominant, mixed-methods study is to gain understanding of a particular phenomenon (i.e. followership) from the perspective of the research participant and to understand the meanings people give to their experiences. As such, I am concerned with understanding and accurately recording the behaviour and experiences of the sample of teachers studied, rather than generalising from the sample to the population. However, as just mentioned, it is quite possible that the results of the research could be transferred to other settings provided the reader of the research understands the limitations of doing this. On this point, Denscombe (2007, p. 43-44) suggests that the respondents involved in a study may be similar to other individuals, allowing for useful comparisons to be made. Further, small-scale research enables the reader to make an informed judgement about how far the findings compare to other individuals and have a bearing on other contexts.

Positionality

In this study you will find yourself embedded within the research and thus ideally positioned to comment on it, while also positioned in the worst sense, because you are part of it (Peim, 2014).

In a study such as this, the role and close distance between the researcher and the participants have implications for the credibility of the project (Creswell, 1998).

Indeed, Burgess (1984, p. 210) warned some 30 years ago that, 'while some researchers become interested in an area of study through reading other people's work, this is only one part of the story, for the *biography* of the individual researcher has a part to play.' As Rosen (1998, p.30) suggests, researchers do not easily make their position in the research visible:

A person's knowledge can only exist by virtue of a vast range of past experiences, which have been lived through, often with the most intense feelings. These experiences, including textual experiences (books, lectures, lessons, conversations etc), we have been taught to disguise so that our utterances are made to seem as though they emerge from no particular place or time or person but from the fount of knowledge itself.'

Measor and Sikes (1992) reported a mounting body of evidence, which demonstrated a failure to recognise the role of the researcher in the construction of narrative and text. This suggests that the researcher had an obligation to unpick and, at the very least, to document their role in what happened. Today, research demands a reflexive researcher, able to acknowledge the impact of their experiences, beliefs and culture upon the research with which they are engaged. Consequently, it is important to acknowledge my position in this study.

The Position of the Researcher in this Study

From a personal standpoint, my connections with teaching and education are many and varied. For instance, both my mother and sister were secondary school teachers; and my wife is a teacher and has been working in the secondary education sector since the late-1990s. After a career in the military and a period in industry, I re-trained and became a university lecturer. I am now in my twentieth year, running a busy department in a large business school in the south-east of England. As a head of the department I have personal experience of leading and following in an educational setting; I also have some 70 staff with whom I engage; leading and following.

During the second year of the EdD programme, I decided to investigate followership and as I had also become intrigued by life-history style research, I was keen to marry the two together. I am unclear whether I began wanting to know more about teachers' followership journeys in order to validate my own and my family's experiences, or whether I was enthused by the idea of using biographical, life-history style interviews. However, both were clear motivating factors in my choice of research focus and methodology.

Allies (1999, p. 4) uses the expression 'practical positionality' and describes it in terms of 'the researcher's position with relation to access to their chosen area'. From this perspective, my position in the research was impacted by me using connections with schools, established through my university role, to successfully negotiate access with the five sponsor schools. Practically, I also chose schools

that were easily accessible from my workplace and home.

Clearly, the positionality of the researcher is influential in all aspects of the research process. In my case, for example, having no previous personal involvement with the participants in this study may have led some participants to feel uncomfortable disclosing information to a stranger; and this may be particularly so in a biographical style interview. However, on this point Denscombe (2003, p. 169) notes, 'research on interviewing has demonstrated fairly conclusively that people respond differently depending on how they perceive the person asking the questions.' Counter to the stance above, he argues that participants least likely to be influenced by the 'researcher effect' are those with whom the researcher has had little or no contact. Further, the position of the researcher and the challenge it presents is particularly at large when a single researcher is responsible for all recording, analysing and interpreting of data, as is the case in this research study.

Recognising that a researcher's identity, values and beliefs cannot be eliminated from the process of analysing qualitative data, Denscombe (2010, p. 302) suggests two ways in which a researcher should deal with this involvement of the self. One approach is for the researcher to remain vigilant and guard against allowing their normal, everyday beliefs from influencing the manner in which they analyse and interpret the data. Regarding this, I have been cognisant of these challenges through all stages of the research process and have used a number of techniques to minimise their impact: for example, pilot testing; recording interviews and having them professionally transcribed; using a mixed methods approach; and using a second opinion regarding data interpretation.

Denscombe (2010) suggests that an alternative approach is for researchers to report explicitly the manner in which their personal experiences and social background has influenced the research agenda. While much of the debate about the role of the researcher in undertaking qualitative research sits between these two positions, Silverman (2006) observes that qualitative researchers need to maintain an open mind; be prepared to take seriously the possibility of them misinterpreting the data; and not neglecting data that does not fit into the analysis.

Ethical Issues

The British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2011; p. 5) considers that educational researchers:

Should operate within an ethic of respect for any persons involved in the research they are undertaking. Individuals should be treated fairly, sensitively, with dignity, and within an ethic of respect and freedom from prejudice regardless of age, gender, sexuality, race, ethnicity, class, nationality, cultural identity, partnership status, faith, disability, political belief or any other significant difference. This ethic of respect should apply to both the researchers themselves and any individuals participating in the research either directly or indirectly. Adherence to this ethic of respect implies the following responsibilities on the part of researchers.

Ethics refers to the rules of conduct followed throughout the research process. As Thomas (2010) observes, the conducting of research requires not only expertise and diligence, but also honesty and integrity. This is done to recognise and protect the rights of human subjects. To render the study ethical, the rights to self-determination, anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent must be observed.

In preparation for the fieldwork, I considered the guidelines provided by BERA and also complied with the ethical procedure demanded by The University of

Birmingham. Prior to commencing the study, I submitted an ethics form to the School of Education, which was subsequently approved by the University's Ethics Committee. In preparation for the initial phase of the research, I wrote to the headteacher of five schools outlining the overall purpose of the proposed research and the main features of the design. I stressed the anonymity and confidentiality aspects of the study and explicitly detailed the rights of the participant to withdraw from the study at any time. Once the headteachers agreed to become involved, they then contacted potential participants on my behalf inviting expressions of interest. Those teachers that were interested were quickly contacted by email or telephone and further details about the study were provided. Once committed, those wishing to become involved completed a research interview consent form.

Phase two of the fieldwork utilised the web-based questionnaire and here too permission to administer this to the teaching staff was sought in advance from the headteacher of the participating schools. With all headteachers in agreement, a brief email was forwarded to the teaching staff at each school, explaining the nature of the study and inviting them to complete the web-based questionnaire. Over a period of two months, participants completed the anonymous questionnaire and the results were recorded using Bristol Online Surveys software.

Interviews were recorded using a digital recorder and all audio files were deleted following transcription. Apart from the pilot interview, which I transcribed, a professional company who guaranteed confidentiality made all transcriptions. The researcher amended the transcripts to remove personal details and information regarding specific individuals and schools. Names were altered to codes, ensuring

that no link could be made between the transcript and a specific interviewee.

Throughout the interview and writing up processes, confidentiality was assured and anonymity was maintained (BERA, 2011).

Qualitative Data Analysis

This study's approach to data analysis draws heavily on the framework developed by Miles and Huberman (1994), who suggest a three-stage process, with data reduction as the first step in data analysis. Data reduction is the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying and transforming data that appear in written-up field notes or transcriptions' (p. 10). As Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 11) observe, it is a form of analysis that 'sharpens, sorts, focuses, discards and organises data in such a way that 'final' conclusions can be drawn and verified'.

In this study, the computer software package, QSR Nvivo10, was used to facilitate this process, collecting and storing the data in an organised manner. More specifically, the 15 electronic interview transcriptions were loaded into Nvivo along with interview notes and additional fieldwork-related information. For Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003, p. 2), good analysis depends on understanding the data you are working with as 'just because you have data does not mean those are quality data.' Consequently, I took time to familiarise myself with the data to be used. At this stage, I began coding the data using a priori coding driven from the body of work describing leadership formation in the educational sector (Gronn, 1999; Ribbins; 2003) augmented with codes generated by the data. Further, I looked for patterns and connections within and between the codes, assessing the nature, value and

importance of the relationships at large. As a result of undertaking this stage, I became cognisant of the key issues that had emerged from the data.

For Miles and Huberman (1994), the next stage is data display, which involves organising and compressing data so that meaning can be gleaned from the data. The process of displaying the data in this manner can allow for the data to be more easily selected, simplified and transformed in order to facilitate analysis and move to conclusion drawing.

The last stage in Miles and Huberman's (1994) analysis is conclusion drawing and verification. At this point, I was looking to make the final interpretations of the data; and this required me to attach meaning and significance to the analysis and to develop, modify and draw my conclusions.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Data captured from the respondents completing Kelley's followership questionnaire was initially downloaded from the Bristol Online Surveys host site to Microsoft Excel, before being analysed using SPSS. In order to analyse the quantitative data, the study employed several statistical techniques. These are described briefly below.

The one-way ANOVA is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of three or more independent (unrelated) groups. In this study, ANOVA was used to investigate the relationship between both

dimensions of Kelley's questionnaire and the years of teaching of the participants (which was split into five groups).

The t-test assesses whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other. This analysis is appropriate whenever a comparison is required of the means of two groups. In this study, the t-test was used to investigate the relationship between both dimensions of Kelley's questionnaire and the gender and leader variables (i.e. if the respondent is male or female and if they held a leadership role or not).

Correlation coefficients are used in statistics to determine how well variables are related. The Pearson's correlation coefficient is a measure of linear correlation between the two given variables. In this study, this test was employed to investigate the relationship between the two dimensions of Kelley's questionnaire.

Chapter Conclusion

This study focuses on the followership of school teachers. In this chapter I have presented an overview of the research design employed in order to contextualise the ontological, epistemological and methodological stance adopted by this study. Key details associated with the research design strategy provide insight into the organisation and management of the study, and the chapter raises discussions on a range of key themes pertinent to the completion of a successful study.

CHAPTER FOUR - PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings drawn from data that has been collected and analysed to respond to the study's research questions. More specifically, data is drawn from 15 biographical-style, semi-structured interviews in addition to Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire (n=69) to respond to research question's two and three:

RQ2 Why do teachers become followers?

RQ3 How do teachers follow?

The qualitative and quantitative findings highlighted within this chapter are considered in the following 'Discussion of the Findings' chapter.

RQ2: Why do Teachers become Followers?

The investigation to establish why teachers become followers is predicated on the understanding that followership behaviour is dependent on a range of factors; not least, the personality of the individual and their beliefs about leadership and followership (Lapierre and Carsten, 2014). Consequently, to investigate why teachers follow, we need an appreciation of the context in which their private and professional lives are played out, as it is here that agency has been exercised and structured; influencing the teachers, both as teachers and as followers.

To respond to RQ2, the interview schedule used to collect data was structured around three phases of the personal and professional lives of the participants. In this study, phase one - *formation* - runs from childhood to the completion of compulsory education; phase two - *accession* - continues to the point that the participants begin teaching; and phase three - *incumbency* - is the period related to the participants' teaching career. In order to maintain focus, participants were reminded that within each phase they should reflect on those experiences and encounters they believed had been influential in their lives.

Using the data analysis process discussed in Chapter Three, a range of themes has been identified. In this chapter and beginning with data related to RQ2, the findings are presented phase-by-phase. Each concludes with a brief summary of the key findings and the identification of the emerging issues relating to that particular phase of the participants' lives.

Characteristics of the Interview Participants

To begin contextualising the interview data, information on the participants is listed in Table 4.1. The teachers were drawn from five mid-sized state secondary schools in Randleshire, in the east of England. In total, 15 participants were interviewed; 11 female and four male. In the most recent 'School Workforce Survey', the gender balance of secondary school teachers in England was recorded as 73.6% female and 26.4% male (DfE, 2014). Consequently, the gender balance at large within this study closely mirrors the national picture.

Participant	Age Range	Male (M) Female (F)	No. of Years of Teaching	Route into Teaching 1. Planned 2. Unplanned 3. Re-trained	Leadership Role (LR) or Class-Based Teacher (CBT)	Follower Type (Kelley)
1	35-39	M	9	3	CBT	Pragmatist
2	40-44	M	10	3	CBT	Pragmatist
3	55-59	F	30	1	CBT	Exemplary
4	40-44	F	10	3	LR	Pragmatist
5	40-44	F	12	3	CBT	Exemplary
6	30-34	F	5	3	LR	Exemplary
7	30-34	F	7	2	LR	Exemplary
8	25-29	F	7	1	CBT	Exemplary
9	40-44	F	11	2	LR	Exemplary
10	55-59	F	38	2	CBT	Pragmatist
11	35-39	F	9	1	CBT	Pragmatist
12	60-64	M	35	2	LR	Exemplary
13	30-34	F	5	3	CBT	Exemplary
14	30-34	F	9	1	LR	Exemplary
15	30-34	M	6	3	LR	Exemplary

Table 4.1: Key Information of the Participants

Table 4.1 indicates that there are no participants in the 45-54 age group; there are three aged 55+ who stand out as being at least 10 years older than remaining 12 participants, who are all aged between 25 and 44. Based on the mid-points of each group (i.e. 27, 32, 37, 42, 47, 52, 57, and 62), an estimate of the average age of the participants is 40; thus, suggesting that most participants were born in the 1970s and 1980s. The teaching experience of the participants ranges from five years to 38 years, with the group's average being 13.6 years.

The participants' route into teaching is grouped into one of three categories: 1 - those that went to university planning to become a teacher, and duly did; 2 - those that did not attend university with a teaching career in mind, but subsequently pursued teaching following the completion of their studies; and 3 - those that re-trained to become a teacher following an initial period of non-teaching employment.

This is referred to succinctly as: 1. Planned; 2. Unplanned; and 3. Re-trained.

Table 4.1 identifies that the joint smallest groups (n=4) are those that planned to pursue teaching as a career and did so following university, and those participants that had not planned to become a teacher, but then decided to pursue teaching on completion of their university studies. The largest group (n=7) consists of those that re-trained to become a teacher having undertaken a period of non-teaching employment. This is discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Table 4.1 also refers to those teachers who hold a leadership role in addition to their teaching duties and to classroom-based teachers with no such responsibility outside of the classroom. The final column in Table 4.1 refers to the follower type of each participant derived from Kelley's Followership Model questionnaire. This is discussed further when the study presents the findings relating to how teachers enact followership.

Phase One - The Formation Phase

Each of the participants was asked to recount their childhood from early years through to the point at which they completed their compulsory schooling. While the participants were encouraged to reflect on factors that may have influenced their lives, and draw widely on their experiences in search of such influences, no parameters were set beyond the phase-one time-frame. Consequently, participants were free to speak of anything they considered significant and influential in determining the many facets of the person that they had become.

Parental Influence

The participants were encouraged to begin by discussing the role of their parents and they appeared keen to highlight the impact of their parents on the formation stage of their lives. All but four of the 15 participants perceived their parents to be working class (n=11). None of the participants spoke of their upbringing as significantly deprived; however, a small number suggested that this had been the case for their parents:

Mum didn't have a mother. They were very poor. Mum had an older brother and more focus was on him and she was sent out to work basically at a young age. And she became a hairdresser. So working class people definitely.

She (Mum) was a very sickly child so her education was very limited. She spent months in bed on several occasions. She's borderline dyslexic, had very poor experiences at school and at 14 she went to work. And that was it.

Of the four participants who described their parents as middle class, four out of their eight parents attended university and were professionally qualified. Notably, three of the four parents were teachers.

However, the majority of the participants (n=10/15) reported that their parents left school on completion of their compulsory schooling in order to gain employment. Participants reported various ways in which this had impacted on their experience growing up:

Dad left school with nothing, and Mum was like a hairdresser with no qualifications. Dad did work in London, nothing fancy, and it was all about work, work, and work. I had part-time jobs from 11 years old, so it was more of a working ethos than an academic one in my house.

My parents were working class but education was a massive thing in our house, I think because my Mum couldn't go to university. I was the first one in our family to do it even though we couldn't really afford for me to go. I

worked full-time to put myself through, but it was always important for us, all three of us, to go to university.

Most of the participants (n=13/15) reported that their parents were supportive of them as they progressed through school. Parents were described typically as valuing education highly and recognising the part it played in enabling their offspring to expand their career opportunities. Within this group, most spoke of how they were pushed to achieve, with support and encouragement to do so present throughout this stage of their lives. A number of participants spoke of how this was reinforced by their disciplined upbringing:

Well, they had really strong views on education. We were never allowed a day off school. As children, Mum would always send us and be really supportive at home with our revision and homework and things like that. So, I would say they were quite strict, making sure that my brother and I were both successful because they wanted us to do well.

They valued education, yes, a lot, because they said basically to be successful in life you have to make sure that you pass all your exams and also it's very important that you go to university. So they really pushed me to do that.

However, two participants spoke of how this was not their experience; with one describing how she was urged to get a job at 16 and the other highlighting the general indifference of her parents towards her education:

Get out of school; get a job, any job. We weren't encouraged to go to university, was nothing, you know, wasn't even mentioned; it wasn't even considered. When I left at 16 my parents weren't at all disappointed (laughs) when I walked out with, you know, pretty much having failed everything, they were, you know, okay, job time, get a job.

They were not interested in the slightest. I got myself into grammar school and got myself to school. Dad didn't really care. Anything I asked for school, money for trips, that sort of thing, he didn't want to know. All they would say, 'No money. No.' If I asked my Mum, she literally had no money because he was tight-fisted. And so, no, it was very limited. I got out of it what I could.

While participants spoke of the influence of the parental support they had (or had

not) received regarding their education, only a small number recalled that their parents had influenced their thinking regarding any specific future careers. Notably, regarding teaching as a career, one participant whose extended family included a number of teachers and lecturers, suggested that the subject was never seriously broached:

I don't think it was ever suggested, I don't think it was ever recommended. I mean, you know, when I was growing up, I think teaching was quite a, it had lost some of its prestige, you know. I certainly know when I was at school, you know, they had a national teacher shortage and I don't think it was seen as a very good job to be honest.

Again, regarding teaching as a career, two participants spoke of how their parents had influenced them negatively during this phase of their lives:

Well, my mother was a teacher while I was growing up and it was very much I am *not* going to be a teacher; I was not going to follow in her footsteps.

No, teaching was the furthest thing from my mind because I'd seen how hard my Mum worked and how difficult it was for her.

Schooling-Related Influences

It was noticeable that when participants were asked to reflect on their own schooling, the starting point for most was their secondary, rather than primary school experience. Only three participants spoke unprompted about their primary school experiences, with two recalling that it was here that they had first felt the desire to become a teacher:

I went to primary school, mixed urban village, class of 48, and that isn't a lie. It was a class of 48. And it was almost Victorian in so much as the teacher used to teach me and four of my cohort and then we used to spend the rest of the lesson teaching everybody else. So I seriously started teaching when I was 10. I, by then, had joined two church groups and I was teaching there. So, from the age of 11 to 14, I used to teach the little ones at Sunday school.

I also taught people to knit and crochet, all those sorts of things. And so, it was there right from the beginning.

When I moved at the age of six to where my aunty lived, she was a teacher and I went to a school and I was in her class. I think it's from there that I really wanted to be a teacher. So first it was primary school, but then as I moved up to secondary school I really enjoyed my English lessons. My teacher I think was quite inspirational and from there I really wanted to be an English teacher and it stayed with me throughout my life.

When prompted, the remaining participants typically described their primary education succinctly. They indicated that it had been a relatively uneventful stage in their lives; one that they did not see as significantly determining or influencing their lives. One of the participants went to a boarding school for the duration of his education and enjoyed a positive experience; the remainder attended local state schools for their secondary schooling. Two participants recounted that they had passed the 11+ examinations and, as a result, attended the local grammar school. Overall, most of the participants spoke of how they had enjoyed their period of compulsory education (n=12/15), but not all reported a wholly positive experience. Two participants were generally negative and one other reported a mixed experience. Of the two that reported a negative experience, one was very blunt about his schooling, suggesting his experience had been poor and he was left feeling 'hard done by' as a result:

Well, blimey, I mean I always felt and I still say, that I was sort of cheated out of a good school, a good education because I went to a failing school on a council estate where I grew up and it closed the year I left, so we were the last Year 11s that passed out. And I always felt that I was sort of cheated out of a good education really. I mean I always felt that school should have been so much better than it was.

The other participant suffered a setback as a result of her school enduring a serious fire. Subsequently, this affected her school experience and resulted in a greatly reduced A-Level curriculum. In her view, the latter had hampered her choice and

limited her career options:

I had quite an interesting secondary school education because on my first day at that school, I discovered the school had burned down in the summer holidays. And we just had to meet on the field. And then, they'd reopened the school that had previously been closed down to house us all while they rebuilt the school.....And because there had been a number of us who were capable, they offered to put A Levels on for us. But there was only a choice of seven (subjects). When I look back and think compared to what we put our kids through here....and how much revision and how much we push....I'm probably bruised a little bit.

As participants reflected on their time at school, they were reminded to focus on those experiences that they felt had influenced them in later life. Consequently, discussions typically focused upon significant school-related experiences, future study plans and career aspirations, all of which are discussed next. The participants also raised the theme of influential teachers and this is discussed shortly.

As discussions drew to a close on this first phase, participants were encouraged to recall their career aspirations at this point in their lives. Most participants reported that, at best, they had started to form a general idea regarding a future career as they approached the end of their compulsory schooling. Typically, these participants linked this discussion with their future study plans, reporting that their loosely formed career aspirations had gone on to define their A-Level choices and subsequently, the degree subject that they later studied at university (subjects such as English; economics; business studies; sports studies; product design; geography; performance studies; and animal science). Notably, by this time, four of the 15 participants had cultivated the idea of becoming a teacher. However, the remainder were typically unsure of their future career direction:

I think I was still fairly open at this point. I don't think I had a career in mind. As I said, the end point really was going to university and so long as you went to university and you preferably moved away from home and did a

reasonable course at university.

Influential Teachers

A key area of discussion when participants reflected on this first phase of their lives was the part played by influential secondary school teachers. Most of the participants recounted with obvious pleasure those teachers that had provided encouragement and inspiration. For participants, one or, in some cases, multiple teachers had stimulated their interest in a subject; leading them to study it further and eventually teach the subject. However, beyond influencing the appeal of learning and their love of a subject, participants also described teachers as role models, affecting the way in which they behaved and the manner in which they presented themselves:

So my drama teacher was called Anne and I had her from year seven right up to A-Level and also the Head of Drama, Sally. I don't know. They just were lovely. They were just amazing teachers. They were outstanding to the extent that they are what I based me wanting to be a teacher on.

Of course, some participants spoke negatively of influential teachers. Although this was a minority view (n=3), these participants spoke of poor teachers who had limited their enjoyment and understanding:

I was well aware that some teachers were rubbish and some were good. I can distinctly remember my physics teacher. She had quite an influence on me because I really couldn't stand her. So, I then didn't take A-Level physics because she was the only physics teacher. I should have stuck it out, just gone on with it, and put up with her. Forty years later, I remember her name. The rest of the teachers were very, very good.

They've inspired me to be a really good teacher and to give my best for the kids; I see that now that I'm a teacher. When I look back I think, they really didn't give a shit about us, they really didn't.

Other people were also reported to have exerted influence on the participants during this phase, albeit to a lesser extent than in the latter phases of their lives. Here, participants spoke mostly of two groups of people; their family members and work colleagues. However, the impact of their parents, schooling and secondary school teachers dominated the discussions and were prioritised as key influences in their formative years.

Other Factors in the Formation Phase

Participants were asked to consider the context in which the formative stage of their lives took place, and encouraged to reflect widely in search of potential influences on their later lives. This was not a fruitful source of influence. However, a number spoke of the status of teaching as a profession, recalling a time when teaching was highly respected and valued and acknowledging how this had impacted on their future career aspirations:

I think it was the respect that children showed to teachers. It was for me as a child; that's how I saw the teacher. A lot of children were respecting that person - and adults too.

A small number of participants made reference to the societal context; suspecting that during their formative years they had become aware of the lack of opportunity for some. This became more prominent in their thinking as they moved beyond their formative years and was seen to be influential in their decision to become a teacher. For one, the importance of doing the right thing to improve society was developed from an early age:

And I can remember as a very young girl my mother one day saying to me 'you're going to be late for primary school today because we're going on a protest march.' And it's a formative memory in my life and I had to stand by her side with the pram and at the end of the hour, there was a procession from the factory. And I can remember my heart swelling - even though I didn't really understand it - with working class pride.

Core Values and Beliefs

Within this key first phase in the participants' lives, the development of a number of core values and beliefs were referred to in the discussions. For example, the majority of participants described their parents as influencing their stance concerning matters such as the importance and value of education and being a responsible citizen:

My parents were both fairly straight down the line. There was never any room for argument and negotiation. You did as you were told and that was how it was and that has probably been quite an influence on me and in my teaching.

I believe in, you know, society and I like the idea of dedicating your time at work to the right causes, you know, what I see as the right causes. That definitely stems back from an early age.

Significantly, the notion of service and 'giving back' was raised by participants and, while this is considered in more depth in the later phases, it was evident that even at this early stage, it was deemed influential regarding future behaviour. One participant was quite clear regarding what it meant to her:

I think the notion that education as a philosophy is liberating is in itself intrinsically a good thing was just something that I kind of *breathed in* at home. We (the children) all became teachers and my foster sister became a nurse. There was no question that you just got a job for yourself to fulfil your own ambitions; no, there was this notion of service.

Conclusion - The Formation Phase

The impact of parents and how they influenced the participants' agency regarding education and career is reported as a dominant influence in the formative phase of their lives. A further significant theme reported is the influence of the participants' schooling. Even at this relatively early stage of the participants' lives, a number spoke of the impact of the societal context in which they grew up. They referred to how what they had experienced and witnessed had influenced their future thinking regarding their sense of fairness and justice. Related to this, participants spoke of the early stage development of guiding principles and values such as the importance of education, respect for authority and the notion of service. Such influences were seen to aid their thinking, the decisions they made and the manner in which they behaved as they progressed through their lives.

Phase Two - The Accession Phase

In this study, the accession stage relates to the period following compulsory education to the point at which the participant enters teaching. Similar to phase one, participants were asked to think of things within this time-frame that they felt had influenced their lives and helped determine who they are today. As a result, some key themes emerged from the interview data and these are detailed below.

Sixth Form Study

All but one of the participants went directly into the sixth form to study A-Levels with

a view to going to university. The one exception left school at 16 and took a factory job. This led to further studies and ultimately qualifying as a teacher some 13 years later. For the 14 remaining participants, this was a time in their lives when they firmed up their ambitions regarding university-level study. While four participants were focused on a teaching career and others were developing a passion for their preferred subject, it was evident that not all were clear on what they wished to study, or indeed if going to university was the right thing for them to do:

I wasn't necessarily even that fussed about going to university really. I remember my teachers saying, 'Well, you really ought to think about it.' And me just thinking, 'No, that's not for me.' And they said, 'Have a go. And then, you know if you don't get a job, if nothing comes up, then, you've got something to fall back on.' And my Mum's in the background nodding. So, it went from there. My A-Level results came out and before I knew it that was it I was off.

The participants spoke once more of teaching staff that had influenced them at this stage of their schooling. They acknowledged how certain teaching staff had further developed their passion for their subject. They also discussed their desire to model behaviours of certain teachers and avoid the behaviours of others. For some of the participants it was also a period in which core values were further reinforced.

Examples of participants taking responsibility for their learning and echoing their parents' stance towards the importance of education were evident:

I had a lot of teachers who I really I just loved going to their lessons. I found a lot of my teachers absolutely inspiring and gave me a real love for learning in many subjects particularly the ones I've obviously become very good at. And they actually instilled in me, it sounds very corny, a real desire to learn and an appreciation for how important education is.

Higher Education Study

As previously highlighted, four of the participants headed to university with the clear

goal of becoming a teacher. Notably, only one of the four undertook a degree with an embedded teaching qualification. The remainder chose to study a degree in a subject of interest and then trained to become a teacher following the completion of their undergraduate studies.

The 14 participants who went directly to university studied undergraduate degrees in a wide range of arts and science disciplines. For 13 of the 14 participants it was a natural progression from A-Levels. However, for one, it was both unexpected and unplanned. This participant had been raised in a 'working-class' family with parents who valued education and had considered it a 'privilege' but one that their daughter should enjoy until she was 18 - at which point work beckoned. From some 40 years earlier, this participant recalls the incident that caused her to change her plans, challenge her parents and go to university:

At the beginning of the upper sixth, the tutors come around and said, girls who is considering university? And I can remember I didn't know what university was to be honest. So I thought that sounds interesting and I put my hand up and I can still remember to this day Mrs Smith said to me, oh, no, they don't want girls like you at university. And at that point I thought, I'm going, I don't care what she says; I'm going.

Influential People

The participants reported several incidences of people influencing their lives during the accession phase. Participants recounted experiences whereby teachers, friends and work colleagues had, for example, guided them into teaching, acted as role models and generally influenced their behaviour. As this occurred at different points within this stage of the participants' lives, reference to this is made throughout the following sections of the accession phase.

Routes into Teaching

All participants completed their undergraduate studies successfully, with four following their pre-planned route into teaching; a career choice that they had made some years earlier, in advance of leaving school. The remaining 11 participants recalled a range of explanations for their entry into the teaching profession, as discussed in the following three sections.

Planned

As has been previously highlighted, four of the participants reported that they aspired to become teachers from an early age. These four shared reasons why they wished to teach; in particular, they recounted teachers who had inspired them. They also spoke of their development of their stance towards the value of education and, thus, the credibility, as they saw it, of the teaching profession:

And my PE teacher in year 7, she was called Miss Smith, I just absolutely idolised her because I was so heavily involved into sport. I thought I'd just love to be her. So, I think that's what motivated me, so from year 7, I wanted to be a PE teacher.

At this time I realised that a teacher is not just someone who is just teaching knowledge, but basically you do a lot more than that. You're also like a social worker sometimes, a nurse sometimes, someone like a facilitator. You're going to give them the skills and help them get somewhere.

One of the four participants had been guided by her (future) father-in-law to overcome the obstacles placed in her way regarding her ambition to go to university and to become a teacher:

I wanted to be a teacher. Oh no, (my parents) they were against it.....I met

my husband when I was 16. So we were together back when all these decisions were being made. And the biggest influence on me was actually *his* father because he said, 'You have got to go to university. You will not stay here to try and sort out your parents. You are going to live your life.' So, without him, I would never have gone. That's the truth.

All four participants indicated how they had planned their future career as a teacher. For some, this was simply a matter of working to ensure they were suitably qualified to go to university and then enter the profession; while for others, a more time-consuming and detailed strategy was followed:

When I expressed an interest in teaching, my Mum and dad were really keen and positive. And from then on, I know it sounds quite early from 11 years of age, everything that I did, I tried to gear towards being a PE teacher. In the summer holidays I worked at children's clubs, at local sports centres, every course that was offered to me. I even did a level 1 in guiding a bell boat because I thought it was to do with sport and it was offered to me free and I thought, 'I'm going to do it.' It's all sports related, so guiding me in the right direction to become a PE teacher.

Unplanned

Four of the participants reported that they had decided to become a teacher only during the latter stages of their undergraduate studies at university. Of note here is that two of these four participants had mothers who taught. Both expressed how this had put them off considering teaching as a career during their earlier, formative years. One in particular spoke of how she had reached the end of her studies without knowing what to do. She recalled 'how hard my mother worked as a teacher' and as a result she did not want to 'follow in her footsteps'. However, influenced by her boyfriend who was undertaking teacher training, the attraction of a national bursary and the need to get a job encouraged her to reconsider teaching:

This is the slightly embarrassing bit potentially, because I got to the end of

my degree still not really overly sure what I wanted to do. I had friends who were going down the road for interviews for teacher training and so I kind of thought as a bit of a backup plan really that I would go and see what they said....yeah, I sort of fell into it really.

This participant's lack of strategic career planning was not unique. Indeed, participants within the 'unplanned' group and from those than re-trained to become a teacher provided numerous examples of how influential contextual factors and even serendipity had played a part in them choosing this career. One participant within the 'unplanned' group explained how they had intended to follow their passion and become a professional dancer, but recognised while at university how this was not viable. Therefore, she instead trained to be a dance and drama teacher:

I always thought that I would perform for a while and then possibly go into teaching. But a dancer's career was never going to be long, so I decided to teach it in school instead. I think I gave way to teaching far too early and should have pursued my dance career to be honest but it's a tough area.

Another participant within the 'unplanned' group spoke of how she decided to train to be a teacher because it provided an opportunity for further funded study and a stop-gap; thereby allowing her more time to decide what she should do:

At the end my undergraduate studies there was a guy who was a Dickens specialist and he wanted me to stay on and do an MA in Victorian studies because I'd done great novels in the 1840s which I adored. I didn't and I regret it now. All I thought was my dad struggled to make do because there were five of us so I didn't think I could, because it was now that I've got to get a job. So I thought, I know, I'll do the PGCE thing, get a grant and that will give me another year as a student and that's what I did.

Re-trained

The largest group (n=7) undertook a period of non-teaching employment and then

re-trained to become a teacher. The one participant that left school at 16, worked on the factory production line for a large multinational company. She benefited from their investment in staff through the opportunity to engage in part-time study; something that she embraced, initially with BTEC qualifications and eventually to the completion of a part-time degree and teaching qualification. For her, the impetus to become a teacher was unexpected:

At work I used to do a lot of, I suppose you'd call it mentoring, you know, with anyone new coming in...it was only when someone I worked with was saying about me, you know, it was an off-handed comment, 'Oh you'd make a good teacher,' that was it, that's the only thing. But no, nobody ever would have considered me being a teacher.

The remaining six participants in this category left university following completion of their undergraduate degree and entered the non-teaching job market. For the majority, this lasted a relatively short time due to difficulties in establishing themselves, and/or being dissatisfied with their chosen careers:

I got a job working in a company's head office. I began to think to myself, 'I don't want to have anything to do with this, thank you very much.' And I think that was quite a big turning point in thinking about which career I wanted to do. I had a couple of friends who'd done teacher training the year before me. And so I was still in contact with them and one of them got their first job and was just absolutely loving it. And that was the point that I seriously looked at teaching.

And so I left working for the defence contractor where I was unhappy and so I didn't have a job and my dad said, 'Look, you know, you've got to have a job.' So actually, I volunteered at a school, it was with my dad's friend, I thought, yeah, I'll give it a go. I guess I fell, I almost, I fell into it, I think?

Uniquely among the participants, one developed the idea of becoming a teacher while at university. However, she purposely chose not to go directly into teaching from university; leaving instead to gain non-teaching work experience:

I suppose I started talking to other people that had chosen already to go off and train to teach, and therefore, they'd made that decision very early on. I quite liked the idea of that. But I always thought, it was never something that

I wanted to do straight out of university. I remembered being at school and looking at student teachers straight out of university and just thinking, 'I don't ever want that.' They're just so green; they've just got no life experience. I didn't want teaching to be the only thing I've ever done. I don't want to stand in front of a class of 30 students with nothing else to tell them apart from my own education.

However, after three years she'd had enough, as her time in industry had left her wanting a more satisfying experience, one that would offer her more reward:

I worked in PR for three years, which is possibly, in my opinion, the least rewarding job on the planet. So, I was running press releases and launching new products to the media. And I just remembered sitting there in the office thinking, 'This is ridiculous. This is going to be fish and chip wrappers tomorrow.' And so the reason I suppose I went back to that initial thought of teaching was that it was going to be much more rewarding.

The Attraction of Teaching - Accession Phase

As previously highlighted, the participants in this study comprise both those who had longed to be a teacher from an early age, and those who had made that decision at a later point in their lives; some at university and others after working in non-teaching jobs. As this phase of the interview drew to a conclusion and before participants spoke of the incumbency phase, they were asked explicitly if they could recall what it was that had attracted them to the teaching profession. Several common themes emerged and these are briefly detailed below. Significantly, in some cases the emerging themes link closely to the core values that had been reported in the formation stage of the participants' lives.

Working with Young People

The most popular response regarding the attraction of teaching for the participants

was the desire to work with young people and to have a positive influence on their lives. This was universally expressed by the participants and was frequently the starting point when they spoke of the appeal of becoming a teacher:

I wanted to make a real difference. I wanted to affect every single child, student, being that walked into my room whether that be an adult or a teenager. And I wanted to influence them positively. And I wanted to let people know that their skill set would be appreciated and would be respected no matter how well they wrote an essay or how well they could act. It wasn't about that, it was about people's individual progress and making a step for themselves.

Serving Society

A theme raised by two thirds of the participants (n=10/15) was the attraction of being of value to society. Participants spoke of 'giving back' and helping those less fortunate than them and, in some cases, this was presented as if it were a duty:

I can remember saying I wanted to work in in deprived areas with children who needed support. In my first school, we had some challenging students there, but it was what I wanted, to work in the city schools in deprived areas. I mean, I'm from Bolton and Bolton's got quite a lot of deprived areas and I did a lot of voluntary work beforehand in those sorts of schools and I loved it. It's heart breaking, but I loved it.

I thought I'd probably end up going into investment banking or something like that. After my A levels, I went to do Camp America and I spent the summer there which was fantastic. I'd never worked with kids before. I then went to study economics at Bath, but each year I went back to the summer camp, which I really, really enjoyed. I worked with kids, all of whom had special needs. And I went there for seven summers I think? This was probably the most significant impact on my career choice to become a teacher.

Job Security and Holidays

One-third of the participants (n=5/15) raised the attraction of the terms and conditions of employment for teachers. While, in their view, teaching was not seen to be well rewarded financially, participants reported that the perceived job security

and the longer than average holidays had attracted them to the profession. The following quotation encapsulates all three themes:

Yeah, I think a secure job for life really. And I knew the money was a bit rubbish at first but I knew it went up to being okay. And I suppose the holidays had quite an appeal to it as well.

Other Factors in the Accession Phase

As this phase of the interview drew to a close, participants were prompted to reflect one final time on the context in which the accession stage of their lives took place. Two participants recalled a national recruitment drive while at university, but did not feel as though it had influenced them significantly. At this point in the interview, when asked to consider the various contexts, i.e. societal, historical, cultural, participants typically acknowledged the development of particular values and beliefs that they linked to these contexts; for example, the inequalities witnessed within society.

Core Values and Beliefs

During the time between compulsory education and becoming a teacher, participants reported that a number of the values that they had developed in the formative stage of their lives were further established in this stage. For these participants the importance of serving others and of helping those less well placed were now clearly established in their lives, so much so that they had chosen to align their career to them. Further, gaining knowledge themselves and then sharing that knowledge was seen as a vehicle by which they felt able to pursue these values;

and the outlet for this was teaching:

The more I learned, the more I thought, 'I need to do something with this' because otherwise, it's going to be a great big waste. I think that basically it's caring about learning. And also I wanted to say, 'You know what, people? Learning is really important and you need to do this and actually get involved with this because it's going to help you in later life.' I just liked this idea, this interaction with young people and seeing if I could get people to be as enthusiastic about learning as I'd been.

Conclusion - The Accession Phase

The impact of parents and teachers and how they influenced the participants' agency regarding education is a common thread running across both of the first two phases. In addition, several other themes were reported in the time spanning the completion of the participants' compulsory education to the point at which they began their teaching career. In this study, while participants described varied and unpredictable routes into teaching, a number of factors remained constant for all participants, vis-à-vis the appeal of teaching. Universally, participants spoke of their desire to work with young people and to help and guide them in their development. A common theme shared by many of the participants was the increased emphasis placed on particular values and principles that had guided their thinking and influenced the choices they made. Examples of participants highlighting their desire to respond to inequalities that they had witnessed in these phases of their life were much repeated. This drove some from an early age to aspire to become a teacher; for others, it reinforced the decision they made to enter the teaching profession later in life.

Phase Three - The Incumbency Phase

The third and final stage entitled incumbency is concerned with the period spent as a teacher through to the present. Dwelling on both their personal and professional lives during this phase, participants made reference to a range of themes they believed had influenced why they had become the person they were today. As the next section reveals, a number of new themes emerged in this phase and these are discussed below, along with a range of previously identified themes from the two earlier phases.

Influential People

When asked how people may have influenced them in this phase in their lives, the focus of the participants shifted to work colleagues; and to a lesser extent the young people they taught. A number of participants referred to influential work colleagues; typically, their line manager or members of the senior team:

We had a wonderful head and I loved him. If it had been the First World War and you have the trenches and your officer said 'we're going over' you would have done it, even though you didn't think it was the right thing to do - he was a great community guy.

While these observations were invariably positive, they were not exclusively so:

I'm very committed to the kids; I'm very committed to the head teacher and his beliefs, not necessarily committed to the department because I don't rate everything that they do pretty much. But yeah, it's about the kids, I'm here for the kids, not for anybody else.

The Attraction of Teaching - Incumbency

Bearing in mind that the average time spent teaching among the participants of this study is 13.6 years, it is notable that most participants spoke very positively about their teaching role; thus, maintaining their earlier stance from the accession stage. Repeatedly, participants spoke of the influences that had sustained their drive to be a teacher and maintained their motivation to teach. While all spoke of the attraction of working with young people, a range of factors lay behind this:

I love seeing the impact that I can have on their lives. And I go home and think what I'm doing is having a positive influence.

For some, this aligned to the aforementioned values associated with sharing knowledge:

I always believe it's about inspiring children to learn. It's about passing on knowledge and skills for a young person to be able to achieve the end result....it's about making the curriculum accessible to students in a manner that is captivating and easy for them to understand.

One participant linked her desire to encourage her students to become responsible citizens and to 'be heard' as something that had been present in her upbringing:

As a teacher of English I actually think I have a role to try and give children a sense of their own voice. I think that's what I feel most passionately about. Fundamentally it's about enabling children to have a voice in a society where even today I think it doesn't really encourage it.

The importance of doing something of value to society was again reported to provide considerable job satisfaction to a number of the participants:

And we knew that these kids were going to go into a society that was going to be difficult for them because, you know, a lot of them were very poor. It

wasn't easy for them and their grades weren't great. But the school was really lovely. Yeah, that made me feel really good about teaching and everything actually.

In some cases, this required participants to search out opportunities to provide the right environment for them to flourish in their teaching role:

I wanted to work with the bottom set kids who were written off. I knew this school were teaching vocational courses, which is my passion. So, I rung them up and said 'I'd like to meet you; I think I'd like to work for you.' So I turned up one night, had a chat with the Head, had a look around. I said to him 'What sort of kids will I be working with?' And he said, 'Well, the kids that no-one wants to work with.' And I said, 'Well, that's what I want.' I do not do A-Level, I definitely don't teach top set, I'm not interested in promotion, I just want to work teaching these kids vocational science, getting them a qualification so they can get into college, and that's what I've been doing - and they get amazing qualifications and I love that, I love the fact that I add value.

At this point in the interview, the word 'lifestyle' was used to describe the teaching role by a number of the participants; sharing the sentiments of the following quotations:

I love working with people. I cannot ever see myself sitting in an office working on a computer. But teaching takes over your life. Once you are a teacher, there's no sort of getting away from it. And it influences a lot of things that I do.

It's a career like no other, it's a lifestyle it's not even just a job. It is a lifestyle and at the end of the day, if we didn't do this job, the whole nation would suffer. So it is possibly one of the most important jobs.

Overall, while participants spoke positively, some were quick to comment on how certain factors had impacted negatively on their view of teaching and the manner in which they approached the role. Common themes among the participants was the perceived worsening 'state of play' of the UK educational sector, with participants referring to the pressure to conform to target-driven teaching practices and the 'ever-increasing' bureaucracy associated with being a teacher:

My role as a teacher has changed significantly. I think when I first started I was actually dealing with people as individuals, Part of my role was to make sure that hopefully students went out of school with a perception of what was right and wrong in society, and also to equip them with the skills to actually sort of move them forward. I think the significant change over the years now is that you're now not dealing with individuals so much, you're now dealing with numbers and targets and the individual students has been reduced to a number in a box. So my role now seemed to be just producing an exam factory in order to get kids through with results at the school that'll look good, to be cynical about it.

And I find that it is constant, you know; I've got a pile of coursework, which I need to plough through and it stresses me out constantly. A constant stress, you know, I neglect everything else because of that work-wise. And yeah, it's just really tough and I've had that from day one so I don't want to take anything extra on because of that.

Family Commitments

Seven of the 15 participants spoke of how their family had impacted upon their professional life, influencing the appeal of teaching, their opportunities to lead and how they approached aspects of the teaching role. One participant spoke of how she had voluntarily prioritised her husband's career:

I've always wanted to support my husband in what he's doing. So, there's times when I had the opportunity to maybe go full-time or seek a promotion that didn't quite tally with what he was doing. So, I wouldn't say he was the reason why but it was certainly an influence.

Another participant was keen to express how strongly he felt about the difficulties associated with having a young family:

It's very difficult to have a family life with the pressures of today's job as a teacher. I have no social life. Once I've gone home, helped out with the kids, put them to bed, I tend to do half an hour work and crash out.

Work-Life Balance

The notion of work-life balance is alluded to above; in addition, some participants

explicitly raised this as an important factor. Conversations on this subject indicated that an acceptable work-life balance was something that they actively pursued and, when required, protected:

But sometimes I do feel like I have to manage him (the Head of the Department) otherwise we're not going to get stuff done. But he always thinks I'm trying to cut corners but I'm not; I'm just trying to plan and I don't want to, you know, torpedo my weekends.

Yeah, you have to be fairly committed, you do. I mean I'm probably one of the less committed staff members to be honest. I feel inferior to a lot of my colleagues in that way, where they will be up till, like, one in the morning. I regularly hear people in the staff room, like, "Oh, I was up till, like, midnight marking last night." I've never done that. I've never done that and I don't plan to either.

Opportunity to Lead

Of the 15 teachers participating in this study, eight described themselves as a classroom-based teacher as opposed to a teacher holding a formal leadership role. For this group, the average time served as a teacher was 10 years, ranging from 5 years to 38 years. These participants were asked specifically to reflect on why they had focused on teaching and remained in the classroom, potentially at the expense of taking on a leadership role. For some, leadership held no attraction; in fact it was seen as a distraction from the reason that they had entered the profession in the first place:

I want to have an impact on children, improving their quality of life and improving their time at school - that's what drives me, rather than leading other staff.

So, for example, the head of year's job, you know, they get a few hours a week to deal with, like, the pastoral side of things so phoning parents, I hate phoning parents, I hate it. That doesn't appeal to me. No I like the contact of the classroom where you're teaching and there's a goal.

Two classroom-based teachers spoke of how family commitments had potentially

prevented them from seeking opportunities to gain promotion via embracing a leadership role:

I've always wanted to support my husband in what he's doing. So, there's times when I had the opportunity to seek a promotion that didn't quite tally with what he was doing. So, I wouldn't say he was the reason why but it was certainly an influence.

From what I can see unless you're young, fresh, have no responsibilities; you will struggle to do well in this job, in this career. This is the main reason that has stopped me from progressing up the ladder because I can't dedicate more time and I wouldn't want to. Family life is important. And it's a shame.

Three participants recounted that for them dismissing leadership aspirations had been due to their lack of self-belief and confidence. Within the interview, these participants recalled several occasions when this had been a live issue and their response had determined how they subsequently approached their teaching career:

At school I didn't contribute to lessons. I was very quiet. I wouldn't have been brave enough to stand up in front of a class and communicate in any way. So I did start by thinking that maybe nursery or primary type teaching because obviously you don't have to be quite so brave to do that than secondary.

Look, when I started, at the time they were desperate for teachers, they were so desperate (laughs), you know, they'd take anybody and I just went into it at the right time.....and I've stayed in the classroom because I love it. And I can tell you there's a good few reasons why I stayed in the classroom. One, because I love it, I love working with these kids, I like being there for these kids and doing all of that, and the other one of the main reasons, or the, probably most important reason I've never gone for promotion is because I'd probably be quite shit at it.

Taking a Lead

Seven of the 15 teachers interviewed held formal leadership roles in their school. For some, this was a strategic move and something to which they had aspired at the beginning of their teaching career and aligned with their ambitions:

For me the ultimate goal would be to become a head teacher, otherwise

what's the point?

I think I've always had ambition and I am ambitious. I came straight from Loughborough to here. This is my ninth year and I'm in my sixth year as a head of year. So, I'd only been here just over three years when I was made a head of year. And within the next sort of two to three years, depending on family, then I'd looked to be an assistant head teacher.

One participant reported that they had gravitated towards leadership serendipitously; in this example, through being in the right place at the right time:

I wouldn't have applied for a head of department role if it hadn't come my way. The fact that I happened to be at this school doing some supply work and they needed a member of staff, and decided to pay me above and beyond.

Critically, all seven teachers holding a formal leadership role recognised that this had influenced their perspective of teaching and their subsequent behaviour as a teacher.

Conclusion - The Incumbency Phase

This final stage of reflection upon the personal and professional lives of the 15 teachers participating in this study revealed the influence of several reoccurring themes reported in the two earlier phases. Unsurprisingly, while influential people remained a key theme, this had shifted from parents to work colleagues and the children they taught. The senior leadership team was cited and largely in a positive sense. In addition, work colleagues were also deemed influential and in many instances as friends who enhanced the attraction of the job.

Many of the aspirational reasons cited for being attracted to teaching reported from

the accession stage were still firmly in place for the majority of the participants during incumbency. In fact, universally, participants spoke once more of the appeal of working with young people. Through teaching, participants reported that they were able to satisfy the notions of service and of being of value to society; both values that had been raised in the earlier stages and reported as influential within their lives.

A number of participants spoke of their concerns regarding what they saw as the growing bureaucracy associated with teaching and the pressure of the results-driven environment reportedly commonplace in the schools engaged in this study. In relation to this, some participants reported finding balancing work and home life very difficult. However, some of the group reported this as too important to not manage efficiently. These participants indicated that they took all necessary steps to maintain a favourable equilibrium.

As a significant number of the participants were longstanding classroom-based teachers, it was important to understand why they had remained in the classroom. Unsurprisingly, these respondents referred to the challenges reported in their earlier commentaries regarding increased bureaucracy and its impact on workload and the subsequent bearing on their personal lives. Further, for some of the classroom-based participants, leadership was viewed as either a distraction from teaching or too great a challenge. Finally, seven of the 15 participants held a formal leadership role, all of whom recognised how this had influenced their subsequent behaviour as a teacher.

Summary of Findings (RQ2)

This section of the chapter has presented the findings of the 15 biographical-style semi-structured interviews undertaken with teachers working in the secondary education sector. To understand why teachers become followers, the study has focused on the influences at large within the personal and professional lives of the participants. In these contexts, agency has been exercised and structured, influencing, among other things, the participants' career choice and the manner in which they, as teachers, enact followership.

Within the three stages of the participants' lives investigated in this study, i.e. formation, accession and incumbency, a range of influential themes have been identified, with some reoccurring within all three of the aforementioned stages, and others dominant in one phase of the participants' lives. Table 4.2 provides a succinct summary of the findings:

Theme	Formation	Accession	Incumbency
Parental Influence	Largely working class parents and limited education beyond compulsory schooling; valued education highly; supportive of their children; demonstrated key values.	Limited guidance with career, emphasis mostly on reinforcing the importance of education, going to university.	
Education	Largely enjoyed schooling; instilled importance of learning and gaining knowledge.	Sixth Form and HE further developed an interest in the subject; largely positive experience	
Influential People	Significantly skewed towards parents and teachers; largely positive and identified as highly influential in shaping whom they'd become.	Again, parents and teaching staff, less so HE staff. Some colleagues from non-teaching employment.	A significant shift towards work colleagues - i.e. leadership team and co-workers; also students.

Family Commitments			Examples of family commitments impacting negatively on participants' teaching role - e.g. prioritising husband's career
Values and Beliefs	Development of key values associated with the importance of education; societal inequalities; notion of service; responsible citizenship.	The notion of service; helping young people; addressing inequalities; advancing society expressed by many participants	Importance of sharing knowledge; serving society; and developing young people maintained importance
Route into Teaching	The desire to teach established in early years for some (n=4/15).	The decision to teach made at University (n=4/15) and remainder following non-teaching employment (n=7/15) Strategic decision and serendipitous in equal measures	
Motivation to Teach	Inspirational teachers; perception of teaching as valuable profession;	Attraction of working with young people; seen as a credible, secure profession; accommodated advancement of values; enabled continuity with learning and subject focus	Similar themes reported, alongside concerns raised regarding increasing bureaucracy and results-driven teaching practices
Work-Life Balance		Prior to teaching - some participants spoke of long holidays as attraction	An important issue for some participants, influencing their approach to teaching; WLB reportedly sought after and defended
Self-Belief and Confidence		A small number of participants expressed concerns over ability to teach	The shift to concerns over ability to take on a formal leadership role
Classroom-based Teachers (CBT)		For CBT, the aspiration was largely teaching not leadership	Leadership viewed a distraction from the focus on the classroom; for others leadership was beyond their grasp
Teachers holding formal leadership roles (LR)		Of these participants some aspired to leadership, others unconcerned at this point	The seven participants reported that holding a leadership role had influenced their view of teaching and their teaching practice

Table 4.2: Summary of Findings (RQ2)

The significance of these findings is considered within the upcoming 'Discussion of Findings' chapter. Next, the study turns to findings sought in response to the third research question: how do teachers follow?

RQ3 - How do Teachers Follow?

Data collected via Kelley's Followership Model questionnaire (n=69) provides an opportunity to categorise follower types and, thus, better understand followership behaviour. In addition to the 15 interviewees, a further 54 teachers from the five secondary schools sponsoring the study also completed an online version of the questionnaire (n=69). A series of statistical tests were undertaken using SPSS to describe the data and identify potential relationships between characteristics of the respondents and the followership questionnaire results. Moreover, in response to the third research question, followership behaviour-related qualitative findings drawn from the 15 interviews are presented in this section. The study begins by presenting the quantitative findings.

Quantitative Findings (RQ3)

The results of the quantitative analysis are detailed below, beginning with a range of descriptive statistics detailing the characteristics of the respondents.

Gender

The gender balance of the respondents (n=69) is 45% male and 55% female.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	31	44.9	44.9	44.9
	Female	38	55.1	55.1	100.0
	Total	69	100.0	100.0	

Years of Experience

When asked to record the length of their teaching career, 27.5% (n=19) of the questionnaire respondents categorised themselves as having between 1 and 5 years of experience. However, 62% (n=43) of the respondents reported that they had at least 11 years of teaching experience, and 25% (n=17) of respondents reported at least 21 years of experience.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-5	19	27.5	27.5	27.5
	6-10	7	10.1	10.1	37.7
	11-15	16	23.2	23.2	60.9
	16-20	10	14.5	14.5	75.4
	21+	17	24.6	24.6	100.0
	Total	69	100.0	100.0	

Leadership Responsibilities

Respondents were asked if they had a formal leadership role (i.e. as a line manager) as part of their current work role. 55% (n=38) of the respondents indicated that they did and 45% (n=31) reported that they did not.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	31	44.9	44.9	44.9
	Yes	38	55.1	55.1	100.0
	Total	69	100.0	100.0	

Kelley's (1992) Follower Types

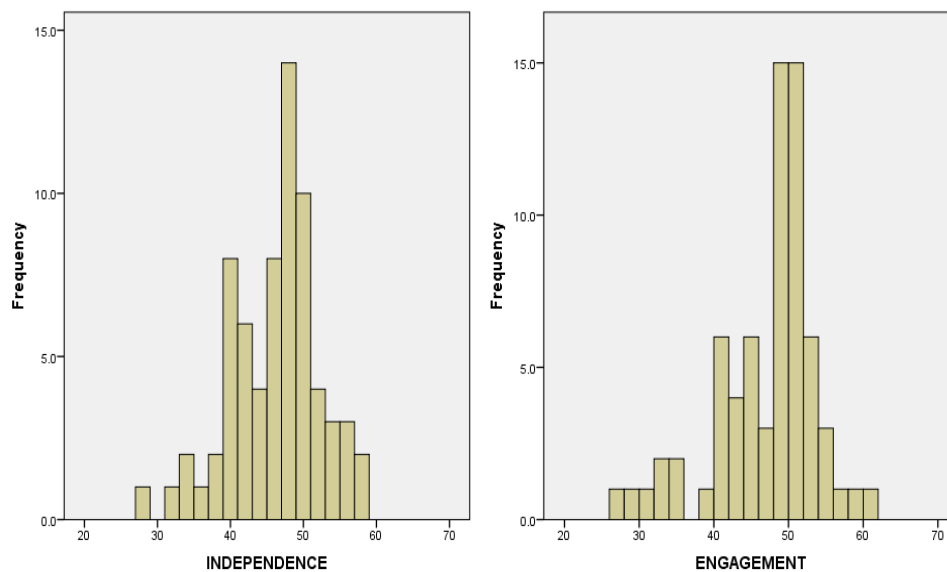
The questionnaire results indicate that just two of Kelley's (1992) five follower types were found at large within the pool of respondents. More specifically, 58 of the respondents (84%) reported as exemplary followers and 11 as pragmatists (16%).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Exemplary	58	84.1	84.1	84.1
	Pragmatist	11	15.9	15.9	15.9
	Total	69	100.0	100.0	100.0

The Two Dimensions of Kelley's (1992) Followership Model

Kelley's Followership Model is determined by an individual's level of independent, critical thinking and engagement; and both dimensions are measured via a series of specific questions within the questionnaire. The table and charts below identify the questionnaire results for each dimension, showing the minimum and maximum scores and the mean average scores per dimension:

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
INDEPENDENCE	69	28	58	45.58	6.084
ENGAGEMENT	69	27	60	46.62	6.704
Valid N (listwise)	69				



To understand the nature of the relationship between the independent, critical thinking (IND) and engagement (ENG) dimensions of Kelley's questionnaire, the study tested their correlation coefficient. The Pearson correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of a linear association between two variables and is denoted by r .

In this instance, the results suggest a moderately strong *positive* correlation (+0.67) between IND and ENG, which is statistically significant ($p = 0.000$).

INDEPENDENCE	Pearson Correlation	1	.663**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	69	69
ENGAGEMENT	Pearson Correlation	.663**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	69	69

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

The correlation is represented pictorially in the scatter graph (Figure 4.1):

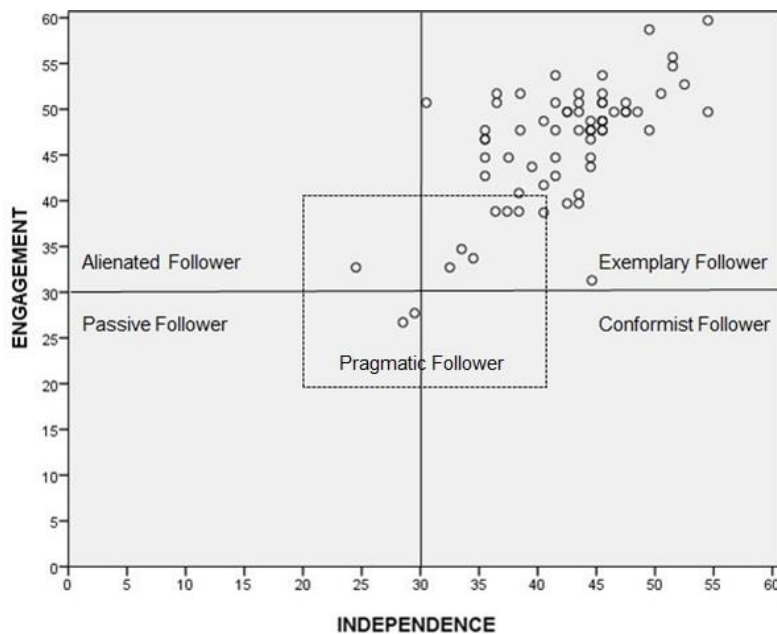


Figure 4.1: Scatter Graph of Correlation Results

The respondents' scores for both dimensions of Kelley's questionnaire were also considered in relation to the key variables recorded within the study; in other words, the gender of the respondents; their years of experience; and whether they line manage as part of their teaching role. The data was examined using either an analysis of variance statistical test (ANOVA) or a T-Test.

Here, testing undertaken at a 5% significance level revealed *no* statistically significant differences between the mean scores for the IND and ENG dimensions and the mean scores for Gender and Years of Teaching. The statistical information regarding this is detailed in the following tables:

Independent, Critical Thinking and Gender Variable

INDEPENDENCE

GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Male	31	46.39	5.789	28	58
Female	38	44.92	6.313	32	58
Total	69	45.58	6.084	28	58

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
INDEPENDENCE	Equal variances assumed	.848	.361	.996	67	.323	1.466	1.472	-1.473	4.405
	Equal variances not assumed			1.005	66.046	.319	1.466	1.459	-1.448	4.380

There is *no* significant difference between the mean scores for IND and GENDER $t(67) = 0.996$; $p = 0.323$ (equal variances assumed)

Engagement and Gender Variable

ENGAGEMENT

GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Male	31	46.81	6.140	31	60
Female	38	46.47	7.210	27	59
Total	69	46.62	6.704	27	60

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ENGAGEMENT	Equal variances assumed	.390	.535	.204	67	.839	.333	1.634	-2.929	3.594
	Equal variances not assumed			.207	66.859	.837	.333	1.607	-2.876	3.541

There is *no* significant difference between the mean scores for ENG and GENDER $t(67) = 0.204$; $p = 0.839$ (equal variances assumed)

Independent, Critical Thinking and Years of Teaching Variable

INDEPENDENCE

YEARS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1-5	19	44.63	4.833	37	53
6-10	7	44.00	5.477	33	49
11-15	16	45.44	7.375	28	58
16-20	10	46.50	7.307	32	55
21+	17	46.88	5.851	36	58
Total	69	45.58	6.084	28	58

INDEPENDENCE

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	72.188	4	18.047	.472	.756
Within Groups	2444.623	64	38.197		
Total	2516.812	68			

There is *no* significant difference between the mean scores for IND and YEAR
 $F(4,64) = 0.472$; $p = 0.756$

Engagement and Years of Teaching Variable

ENGAGEMENT

YEARS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1-5	19	46.26	6.393	31	59
6-10	7	41.57	7.161	28	49
11-15	16	48.94	5.893	33	60
16-20	10	45.60	8.644	27	56
21+	17	47.53	5.746	33	55
Total	69	46.62	6.704	27	60

ENGAGEMENT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	291.232	4	72.808	1.685	.164
Within Groups	2764.971	64	43.203		
Total	3056.203	68			

There is *no* significant difference between the mean scores for ENG and YEAR
 $F(4.64) = 1.685$; $p = 0.164$

Engagement and Leader Variable

Notably, the t-test *did* reveal statistically significant results for both dimensions in relationship to the respondents' scores when categorised as either leaders or classroom-based teachers (i.e. non-leaders):

ENGAGEMENT

LEADER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
No	31	44.45	7.320	27	59
Yes	38	48.39	5.655	31	60
Total	69	46.62	6.704	27	60

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ENGAGEMENT	Equal variances assumed	2.716	.104	2.524	67	.014	3.943	1.562	.825	7.061
	Equal variances not assumed			2.460	55.627	.017	3.943	1.603	.731	7.155

There *is* a significant difference between the mean scores for ENG and LEADER
 $t(67) = 2.524$; $p = 0.014$ (equal variances assumed)

Independent, Critical Thinking and Leader Variable

INDEPENDENCE

LEADER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
No	31	42.68	6.013	28	53
Yes	38	47.95	5.088	38	58
Total	69	45.58	6.084	28	58

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
INDEPENDENCE	Equal variances assumed	1.644	.204	3.944	67	.000	5.270	1.336	2.603	7.937
	Equal variances not assumed			3.877	58.968	.000	5.270	1.359	2.550	7.990

There *is* a highly significant difference between the mean scores for IND and LEADER $t(67) = 3.944$; $p = 0.000$ (equal variances assumed)

Summary of Quantitative Findings (RQ3)

Data collected via Kelley's Followership Model questionnaire (n=69) provides an opportunity to categorise follower types and, thus, better understand the followership behaviour of the respondents. In response to RQ3, (how do teachers follow?), the key findings of the quantitative data are summarised below:

1. Of the 69 questionnaire respondents, 31 (45%) were male and 38 (55%) were female;
2. 27.5% (n=19) of respondents (n=69) reported between 1 and 5 years of teaching experience, while 62% (n=43) reported at least 11 years of teaching experience. Within this group, 25% (n=17) of the respondents reported at least 21 years of experience;
3. Of the 69 questionnaire respondents, 38 (55%) held a leadership role and 31 (45%) did not;
4. Two of Kelley's follower types emerged from the completed questionnaires - i.e. 58 (84%) of the respondents recorded as exemplary followers and 11 (16%) as pragmatic followers;

5. Three of Kelley's follower types were unreported - i.e. the alienated follower, the conformist follower and the passive follower;
6. The two dimensions of Kelly's Followership Model questionnaire, i.e. independent, critical thinking and engagement, have a moderately strong positive correlation (+0.67) that is statistically significant ($p= 0.000$);
7. The ANOVA and t-tests revealed that the scores for gender and years of teaching had no statistically significant relationship with neither the independent, critical thinking nor engagement dimensions of the questionnaire;
8. However, the t-tests did reveal statistically significant results for the leader variable - i.e. there was a statistically significant difference recorded in the mean scores of the 38 teachers with a leadership responsibility and the 31 without;
9. In this case, the results indicate that those respondents that held a leadership responsibility scored differently (in this instance, more highly) on both the independent, critical thinking and engagement dimensions than those that did not.

Qualitative Findings (RQ3)

In order to better understand the participants' followership behaviour, each participant was asked to discuss how they behaved and interacted with their line manager/s. This approach is consistent with the interpretation of followership used in this study (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). This period of questioning took place at the close of the interview and immediately prior to the completion of the followership questionnaire.

The questions focused on asking participants about the nature of their relationship with their line manager/s; the types of activities that they did together; the role they played in the leadership equation; and the types of behaviours they displayed while interacting with their line manager/s. This approach enabled the interviewer to avoid the term 'follower'; thereby evading the associated negative connotations.

Once the data was analysed in line with the process outlined in Chapter Three, several key activities and associated behaviours were identified, which aligned to those identified by Uhl-Bien et al., (2014, p. 97) in their review of followership theory. It is worth noting that while the desired focus was on participants providing examples of their followership behaviours, discussions became blurred at times with issues they believed motivated and influenced their interactions with their line manager/s (see Table 4.3).

Activity → Behaviour ↓	Engaging in Decision-Making	Teaching Related Activities	Maintaining Work- Life Balance	Line Management Relationships
Upward Influencing	✓		✓	✓
Challenging	✓	✓	✓	✓
Self Managing		✓	✓	✓
Pro-Active and Engaging	✓	✓		✓
Passivity	✓		✓	✓
Dissenting	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 4.3: Key Activities and Associated Behaviours Reported by Participants

Upward Influencing

One of the most common behaviours reported by participants was associated with how and when they attempted to influence their line manager. According to the participants, while this regularly occurred in a range of areas, a popular activity associated with this behaviour was decision-making.

The majority of participants spoke positively about how they engaged in decision-making. Many indicated that decisions that affected them were often made either jointly with their line manager or with some involvement on their part:

I think that we make decisions jointly and that is what inspires me. And I think that's probably what's kept me here such a long time is that my line manager always had such a massive amount of respect for what I say and do.

With my manager, it's more sort of equals. So, we would work together but at the end of the day I have to appreciate that she is my boss. So, if she asks me to do something, then you have to do it. But it's more a consultation.

Continuing this theme, one participant spoke of how she made decisions, independently of her manager; and her manager made decisions without her involvement:

We don't make decisions jointly. I make my own decisions; she (*Head of Department*) makes her own decisions. Or she'll tell me or us that's what's going to happen. I'll decide how I'm going to do things as a result and tell her, or she'll decide how she's going to do things and tell me.

Challenging

A corollary to discussions regarding decision-making was the notion of participants challenging their line manager's decisions. Numerous examples were offered where participants challenged their line manager in circumstances in which they were either not comfortable with or unsure of decisions that were being made:

So, I think I'm quite lucky because I can go and tell him that I disagree. I feel like I can now turn up in the office and say, "Do you know what? I don't agree with this." So, this is what I'm thinking. And I don't always get my own way. But you know, they'll come back to me with a reason, the explanation if I'm not going to get my own way.

If I don't agree with it I will challenge it and it goes into discussion. She doesn't do anything to make me feel like what I'm saying isn't valued. If she thinks, no, then yes I would have to back down on that because it would be her decision. But I don't feel like her subordinate.

One participant spoke of how she would happily challenge her line managers; even the most senior:

The Head absolutely hated me challenging him and we used to have a briefing every day in the staff room and he would say the most scarlet and outrageous things to members of staff - men and women - but particularly to women. So if he said something sexist, I'd say, "Would you like to reconsider your phrasing there, it's very sexist. I'm sure you didn't intend it"...and of course he did!

A further participant expressed how, if necessary, she would circumvent her line manager to challenge decisions with which she was unhappy. Meanwhile, another described an environment that discouraged challenging behaviour and open discussion:

If I'm not happy I'll go and moan to her boss (*laughs*). I'll go above her head.

There are no good forums for discussing things here and I know this is case in few schools where I have friends. Here, you get the feeling there's a deliberately manufactured culture in order to prevent things being voiced or challenged. Very tightly-controlled meetings, you know, with talked-down agendas.

Finally, a small number of participants spoke of how they choose not to challenge:

I don't challenge because I generally assume he knows best. I'm definitely subordinate. Definitely, but I'm quite happy to be that. He's the boss and I even call him the boss.

Self-Managing

When participants referred to their classroom teaching role, they spoke mostly of how they managed and organised themselves in this capacity, rather than it being controlled by their line manager. Indeed, while most participants acknowledged that their teaching activity was a key point of interaction with their line managers; they emphasised this as a largely self-managed domain:

In the classroom, even when I'm terrified and stressed out, I have to behave like the one in charge; the one that they know has everything under control. And that means it's down to me and I have to be really well-organised.

So, I did a year as an NQT and then I got pulled into the head's office. And he said, "I don't think we've ever had an NQT that's made...so little fuss. We haven't heard anything of you. There's not been a parent on the phone. There's been no letters going home. You've just got on with it." And at that time, behaviour here was a little bit difficult. But I saw this as my responsibility and I was so organised....and I still am.

Pro-Active and Engaging

Behaviours associated with being pro-active and engaging were commonplace among participants; for example, creating or controlling situations and acting in advance to deal with expected issues:

The person I'm teaching with in media is on the same wavelength and we believe strongly in what we're doing, and that side of things is really, really good. I work hard to keep things going, sorting things out in advance or just getting things done so we can focus on achieving the best results. You have to be engaged, if not, you're lost.

I want every student that I teach to take something from that class and from me. I know what I have to teach and I just make sure I do it as well as I can and that means loads of preparation in advance of the class and making time afterwards. It's really demanding but you have to stay one step ahead.

Passivity

A small number of participants expressed how they were comfortable yielding to the will of their line manager. For example, participants spoke of how they did not wish to be involved in decision-making, leaving the responsibility of such leadership-style activities to their line manager:

I think I'm a follower a bit...my line manager is happy to ask us for our own opinions before implementing anything. But I think I would be quite happy to just being given tasks and just get on with them. I'm not really the sort of person who would say, oh why don't we do it this way or that way. If something doesn't look right I would say well, maybe we should do it another way. But if it comes from the top and they say we all have to do this, I'm not going to challenge it.

I do feel quite overwhelmed by the amount of work so the idea of taking anything else on has always kind of, oh no, no, I don't want to do that, I don't want it, you know what I mean? I don't want to take any extra responsibility on because I already feel that the amount of responsibility I have is stretching me.

Passivity can also refer to the trait of remaining inactive; demonstrating a lack of initiative and 'standing back' and behaviour in line with this interpretation was also reported by a small number of participants:

I am at the point where it is a job. I'm doing it for the money; yes there is a sense in that that I'm doing it for the money. I'm not dragging myself in there and inflicting that on the children at least I don't think I am? I do an awful lot of what I want to do, playing the game. I mean, the school are happy - I think the school is happy for me to do what I do as long as I play the game when Ofsted come in.

Dissenting

A small number of the participants provided examples of behaviours associated with dissent. Dissent can mean to express a difference of opinion or to disagree. This interpretation overlaps with the challenging behaviour of our participants highlighted previously. However, dissent can also mean refusal to conform and it is in line with this interpretation that the behaviour of a small number of participants is reported below:

In my interview I said, "I do not do A-Level, I do not do top set, I'm not interested in promotion, I just want to work, teaching these kids vocational science, getting them a qualification so they can get into colleges" and that's what I've been doing.

I don't buy into the idea of everybody's got to be a winner all the time. I don't buy into that and a lot of people at the school do. Like, everybody's always got to be a winner, everybody's always got to be winner and I kind of feel like, everyone's got to pass, you know, in BTEC, everybody's got to pass, OK? And they haven't just got to pass, they've got to, like, get As, right? And I don't buy into that, OK.

A number of additional themes arose in the followership-related discussions and were raised regularly by participants when asked to speak of interactions with their line managers.

Drive and Commitment

Participants spoke of how they demonstrated drive and commitment in their behaviour during their interactions with their line manager/s. This topic was typically aligned to comments regarding their motivation to teach and their personal desire to learn and improve:

You have to be committed. You know, you do work evenings, you do work weekends. You have to be passionate and committed to it otherwise the students are never going to learn anything and it's not just about the targets, they're not going to be able to do anything that will help them in their future. And I just find it so important. You have to understand, you have to have that lifestyle because if you don't put 100 percent in, then it's your students who lose out.

There is an element of being busy and a new challenge. I need to feel like I'm constantly being challenged. It's just about a...really just you know, a very personal need to sort of feel challenged, be happy in my work. So, I push my manager all of the time to challenge me.

In a few instances, participants linked discussions on this theme to promotion seeking:

For me the ultimate goal would be to become a head teacher, otherwise what's the point? Right from when I first started teaching, I've always got involved in all sorts of stuff and this is brilliant. I can even bring my own interests into my job and that's part of the big pull, along with, it sounds very corny, but along with continually learning. So I'm pushing to show the senior team what I can do all the time.

The counterpoint to this stance was taken by a number of participants who reported their lack of drive and commitment:

Yeah, I don't think I'm committed enough to the extra work. And it would be the extra work I don't like, for me, it seems like the stuff I hate, it would be more of the stuff I hate and less of the stuff I like. So it would be a bad trade off.

I guess the most important thing at the end of the day is I am doing as much for them as I can, you know, within reasonable limits.

One participant spoke passionately regarding her view as to why teachers fail to be driven and committed:

At the moment, the paperwork, the admin, the data collection is so onerous it takes any joy out of the job entirely. If you want to find out why teachers don't go for promotion, really, you should be talking to the teachers that aren't in the classroom, the ones that have quit because it was only two out of every five teachers that qualify are still in the job three years or four years later. Well, they've not even stayed in the classroom to get promoted. I mean, there are more teachers out there not teaching than teaching.

Collegiality

A further finding of this section of the study was that the majority of participants described their line management relationship/s in a positive, collegiate manner:

It's a very good relationship, solid and I go to her more for advice than anything and she is really supportive and helpful. I've not been here long but we have a really good relationship. She supports me and checks that everything is okay. We have a line management meeting every couple of weeks. I think it has motivated me to be honest; to get on with things and take a lead where I can.

Further, it was notable how several participants referred to their line managers as a friend and their schools as friendly places to work:

This school is such an amazing place to work, and I've got friends here because I've been here for so long. And I know the students and the students know me.

I've got a really good relationship with her. And personally we get on very well as well. We're very close friends too. She is my boss, but when my son was born and I'd introduced her as my boss she got quite offended.

Maintaining a Work-Life Balance

A number of participants mentioned their behaviour in relation to managing their work-life balance. For some, the perceived threat to achieving and/or maintaining a

desirable work-life balance came from within the classroom:

I find that it is a constant, time sink, you know, I've got a pile of coursework that I need to plough through and it stresses me out constantly. A constant stress, you know, I neglect everything else because of that work-wise. And yeah, it's just really tough and I've had that from day one so I don't want to take anything extra on because of that. Only last week my boss said to me, "I just want to make sure," he said, "you don't want anything extra do you? You don't want any extra responsibility?" And I said, "No, I'm (laughs) I'm really happy as it is."

For others, avoiding the responsibility of line management-related responsibilities protected their work-life balance:

I want to have a work-life balance and now I've been here a few years, I've got a better work-life balance than when I started. And if I was to suddenly change my role, then that would be taken away from me and I think that's a big factor. I have seen other people, and I've seen them not happy. And I think that's a massive thing.

Well, yes I think there have been a few opportunities for promotion. I do think that a lot of people are in those posts, they do not seem to have a life anymore. Yes, a lot of them I see coming early in the morning, leaving very late. They just seem to be working all the time.

Summary of Qualitative Findings (RQ3)

This section of the chapter sought to identify followership behaviours at play in the interaction between the participants and their line manager/s. The key findings of this element of the qualitative data, drawn from the 15 interviewees, are summarised below:

1. A range of followership behaviours were identified by the participants and are categorised as: upward influencing; challenging; self-managing; pro-active and engaging; passivity; and dissenting;
2. The aforementioned behaviours were linked to a number of key activities that

engaged both participants and their line manager/s, including: decision-making; classroom teaching; maintaining a work-life balance; and line management relationships;

3. Participants identified further characteristics and activities that impacted upon their behaviour vis-à-vis their line manager, including: drive and commitment; collegiality; and the importance of work-life balance.

These qualitative findings, combined with the aforementioned quantitative findings, are considered in the Discussion of Findings chapter, in preparation for the study to respond to RQ3: how do teachers follow?

CHAPTER FIVE - DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This study has investigated followership among secondary school teachers. This generated three research questions considered central to this study:

RQ1. What is known about followership in an educational context?

RQ2. Why do teachers become followers?

RQ3. How do teachers follow?

The response to research question one, which added to the theoretical grounding of the study, was presented within the literature review chapter and is returned to in the concluding chapter. In order to understand *why* teachers follow, the study embraced Gronn's (1999) Career Model, with its three key phases of formation, accession and incumbency providing a framework to investigate the context in which participants have lived and worked. The emergent qualitative findings underpin the study's response to research question two. To develop an understanding of *how* teachers follow, the response draws upon both the qualitative findings from the 15 interviewees, and the quantitative findings derived from Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire (n=69).

RQ2: Why do Teachers become Followers?

Educational leadership scholars have examined the career journey of leaders,

investigating the distinctive life stages through which individuals pass. Gronn (1999), a leading proponent of this approach, stressed the importance of context when investigating an individual's leadership journey in the search to understand why they became leaders. In the field of followership, Uhl-Bien and Pillai (2007) reaffirmed the legitimacy of this stance when they observed that an individual's approach to followership is developed through socialisation and the experience of working with both leaders and followers.

This chapter now commences with a discussion of the emerging findings related to research question two, considering each phase in turn and drawing on the substantive issues raised in the preceding chapters.

The Formation Phase

In lay terms, the formation phase relates to the period of everyday life we lived growing up and the 'know-how' we have gained as a result. The importance of this stage is highlighted by de Vine (1995, p. 205), who observed that 'shaping an individual's personality begins in early life. The foundations are laid for the kind of person we are going to be and are likely to remain for the rest of our lives.' In this study, the formation phase runs from early years through to the point at which participants complete their compulsory schooling. A number of influences at large within the formation phase have been reported in this study and these, alongside the findings from studies that have examined the career journeys of educational leaders, are now discussed in more detail.

The participants in this study highlighted the impact of their parents on the formation stage of their lives. The majority of the participants were born into working class families where parents had left school on completion of their compulsory education. Further, most reported that their parents had valued education highly and of how they had been pushed to achieve, with support and encouragement present throughout this stage of their lives.

In this study, a number of the participants also spoke of how their parents had influenced them vis-à-vis the development of a social conscience. On this point, participants raised the notion of service and 'giving back' and while this is developed more deeply in the later phases of their lives, it was evident that during this early stage these core values and beliefs were being nurtured. Parental influence is a finding reflected in Gronn's (1999) Career Model, where parents are identified as a key socialisation agency. Further, the influence of parents on the development of educational leaders has also been reported by a number of other scholars. For instance, Rayner and Ribbins' (1999) highlighted how they were influential in shaping the attitudes and values of the headteachers engaged in their study; as did Parker (2002) who referred to parents that had aspirations for their children, shaping the thinking of the headteachers included in his study 'at intensely formative moments of their lives' (p. 35). More recently, Mackenzie-Batterbury (2011) spoke of how the parents of the respondents in her study had influenced them to assign great value to education later in their lives.

It is evident from the interview data captured in this study that within the formation stage, the influence of the participants' parents was significant. It is also evident

that this finding aligns closely with those reported by studies that have investigated the career journeys of educational leaders. This alignment may be a result of the inclusion of leaders (albeit not senior leaders, which were the focus of the aforementioned leadership studies) within the sample of participants used in this study. It may also be a result of participants being united by the bond of education. However, within the context of this study, what is significant is the impact of the largely working class parents on the participants' stance towards education. Indeed, the encouragement received from their parents to recognise the importance of education in terms of the opportunity it could provide them, plus the positive impact it could have at a societal level, has evidently shaped the behaviour of many of the participants in later life.

When participants reflected on their own schooling, the starting point for most was their secondary school experience rather than primary school. While all participants of Ouston's (1997) study spoke of their primary experience, with most rating it negatively; the participants of the more recent studies of Inman (2007) and Mackenzie-Batterbury (2011) reflect the experience of this study, i.e. that participants prioritised the impact of their secondary school experience over primary education. In this study, it is possible that the participants' affinity to secondary education has in some way coloured their view of primary education; or perhaps they perceive it as too distant or in some way less significant to their life today? While it is difficult to theorise without this information to hand, an emerging finding from this study is that primary education was deemed less relevant to the participants in their formative years than their secondary education.

The harmony shared by the participants of this study regarding the influence of their parents, is equally so for the part played by their secondary school teachers. Many recounted how these teachers had encouraged and inspired them; stimulating their interest in a subject, leading them to study it further and eventually to teach the subject themselves. Participants also described their teachers as role models, influencing the way in which they behaved, thought and presented themselves. What has emerged from this study is the strength of feeling expressed by the participants regarding the influence of their secondary school teachers. Of note is that Rayner and Ribbins (1999) reported that few participants recalled influential secondary school teachers. Further, while teachers are mentioned alongside other influential people within the educational leadership literature, in this study, their level of influence is described as considerable. The extent to which this finding is a result of the participants themselves working in the secondary education sector is unclear; however, the prevailing view was that their secondary school teachers had been highly influential in determining their future career and behaviour.

During the formation phase, with the exception of four participants who had embraced the idea of becoming a teacher, the majority of participants reported that they had formed only a general idea regarding a future career. Indeed, it is evident at this juncture that the key agencies of parents and school had not significantly influenced the group in this area. Related to this, Ouston (1997, p. 174) reported a similar situation in her study, observing that 'overall, one does not get a picture of a uniformly parental influence acting directly on our leaders' choice of careers.' In this study, one explanation for this may be that the predominantly working class parents, who had largely concluded their education on completion of compulsory

schooling, were ill-equipped to offer professional careers guidance.

Summary - The Formation Phase

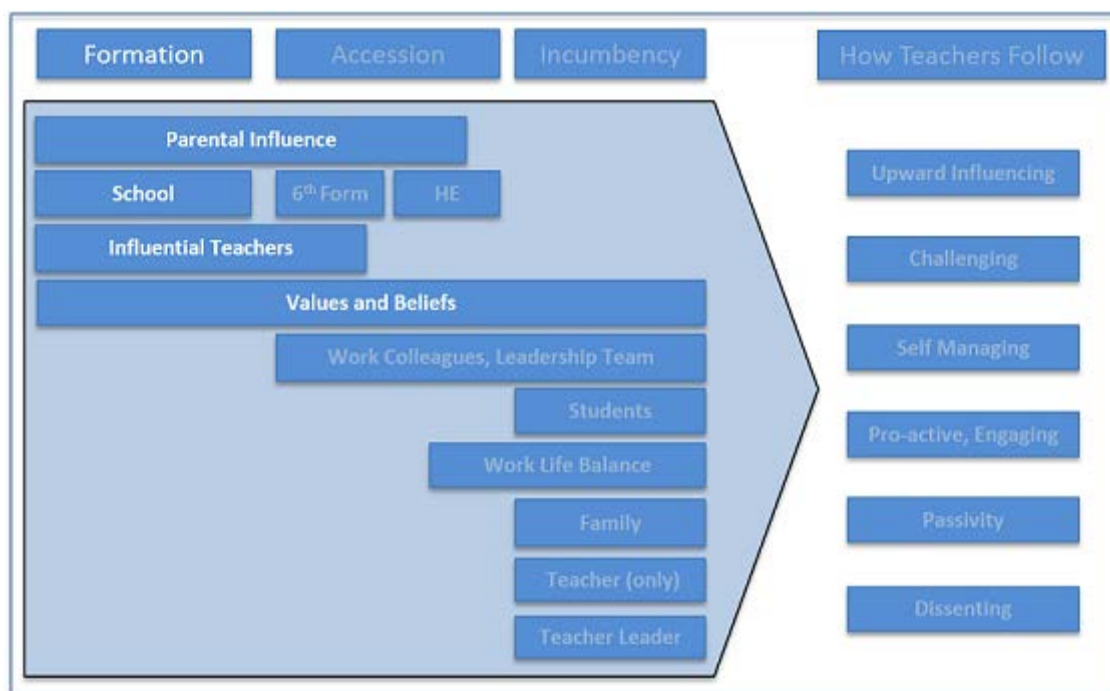


Figure 5.1: Summary of Formation Phase

The impact of parents and how they had influenced the participants' agency has emerged as a dominant influence in the formative phase of their lives; as is the influence of the participants' schooling and in particular, their secondary school teachers. Further, this study found that a number of participants emphasised the impact of the societal context in which they grew up and how what they had experienced and witnessed during this period had influenced their future thinking regarding their sense of fairness and justice. Here, participants spoke of the early stage development of guiding principles and values such as the importance of education, a respect for authority and the notion of service; factors seen to aid their thinking, the decisions they made and the manner in which they behaved as they

progressed through their lives. It is of note that unlike other dominant influences recorded at this phase, the impact of core values and beliefs is less evident within the educational leadership literature; as is the impact of secondary school teachers. This may be due to the dominant characteristics of this particular group, i.e. secondary school teachers active in the classroom, motivated to join a profession in order to work with and develop young people, as opposed to headteachers motivated to lead a school.

At this point of the study, what has emerged are a number of factors that, for the most part, bind together the participants of this study and also links them to those within the literature examining the career journeys of educational leaders. In sum, the role of parents, schooling and teachers has dominated the discussions and their influence has been identified as a stimulus for the participants' developed behaviours, beliefs and aspirations - factors, which help determine why they follow as they do.

The Accession Phase

The accession phase in this study relates to the period of time following compulsory education to the point at which the participant enters teaching. Here too, the study went in search of influences in the lives of the participants and as a result, a number of key findings emerged from the interview data. Similar to the formation phase, the impact of key people was once more reported as influential. Data revealed that parents continued to reinforce the importance of education and to influence the development of the participants' key values. In this study, although the

accession stage embraces both university education in addition to sixth form schooling, participants chose to emphasise the influence of their secondary school teachers, rather than their lecturers. Teachers were once more linked to developing the participants' interest in a subject, encouraging them to expand their learning and in a number of cases, inspiring them to become teachers themselves. Similar to formation, in this phase many participants spoke of how their teachers had acted as role models and had been a major influence in who they had become.

An emerging finding from this research is that the participants' university experience was less impactful than their school experience vis-à-vis their behaviour today; and this is a point of difference with the educational leadership literature. There are a number of potential reasons for this; for example, it is possible that fewer references were made to influential lecturing staff due to the participants' affinity towards secondary school education. Further, being older while at university, it is possible that the participants were less easily influenced at this stage of their lives. However, what is clear is that this finding reinforces the significance of the part played by secondary school teachers in influencing the behaviour of the participants engaged in this study.

During both the formation and accession phases, a number of participants spoke of the ongoing development of core values and beliefs, with the attraction of being of value to society remaining a key driver. During this stage, once again participants spoke of 'giving back' and helping those less fortunate than themselves; and in some cases, this was presented as if it were a duty:

I believe in, you know, society and I like the idea of dedicating your time at work to the right causes, you know, what I see as the right causes. I felt like

the job that I was doing wasn't good for society. And I didn't really want to be doing that, even though the money was good and I realised there was lots of prospects, I didn't like what I was doing. So I volunteered at a school to see if maybe I wanted to be a teacher. I wanted a job that was valuable to society.

What emerges from the data is that this belief resonated among many of the participants in this study; a finding that is less reported within the research concerned with the lives of educational leaders. Further, it is conceivable that this strength of feeling was influential for many of the participants vis-à-vis maintaining their commitment to teaching, rather than them aspiring to senior leadership.

The accession phase also documented the participants' route into teaching, as this study was keen to understand whether their experience aligned in some way with existing studies associated with educational leadership journeys. Three routes emerged from the data; with the 'planned' group consisting of participants set on a teaching career, who had been inspired by their teachers and keen to join what they viewed as a credible profession. These participants had mapped out their future from an early age; clear in their plans to become a teacher.

The 'unplanned' group consisted of participants who decided on teaching as a career on conclusion of their undergraduate studies. Typically, these participants entered teaching with limited strategic intent, with serendipity playing a part in some instances. For example, one participant chose teaching because she feared she would not get meaningful employment as a dancer, while another enrolled on the funded PGCE course solely to extend her time as a student.

The largest group (re-trained) included participants who had undertaken an initial

period of non-teaching work prior to entering the profession. With the exception of one participant who left school aged sixteen and became a teacher a decade later, a result of the encouragement of a work colleague and the support of her benevolent employer, the remainder spent a relatively short time in non-teaching employment. For these, the motivation to re-train to become a teacher was driven by a perceived dissatisfaction in their non-teaching employment and a belief that teaching would offer a greater fit with their beliefs and motivations.

Irrespective of the route into teaching, participants reported that they had entered teaching to satisfy a desire to share their knowledge and passion for their subject; to work with young people and guide them in their life journey. In addition, participants spoke of wishing to join a credible profession, which would accommodate the advancement of their developing values and beliefs, and allow them to make a positive contribution to society. The emphasis placed on this finding by the participants is a point of distinction from the existing career-focused, educational leadership research. Further, it provides evidence to suggest that for a significant number of participants in this study, being an effective teacher was a key priority.

Summary - The Accession Phase

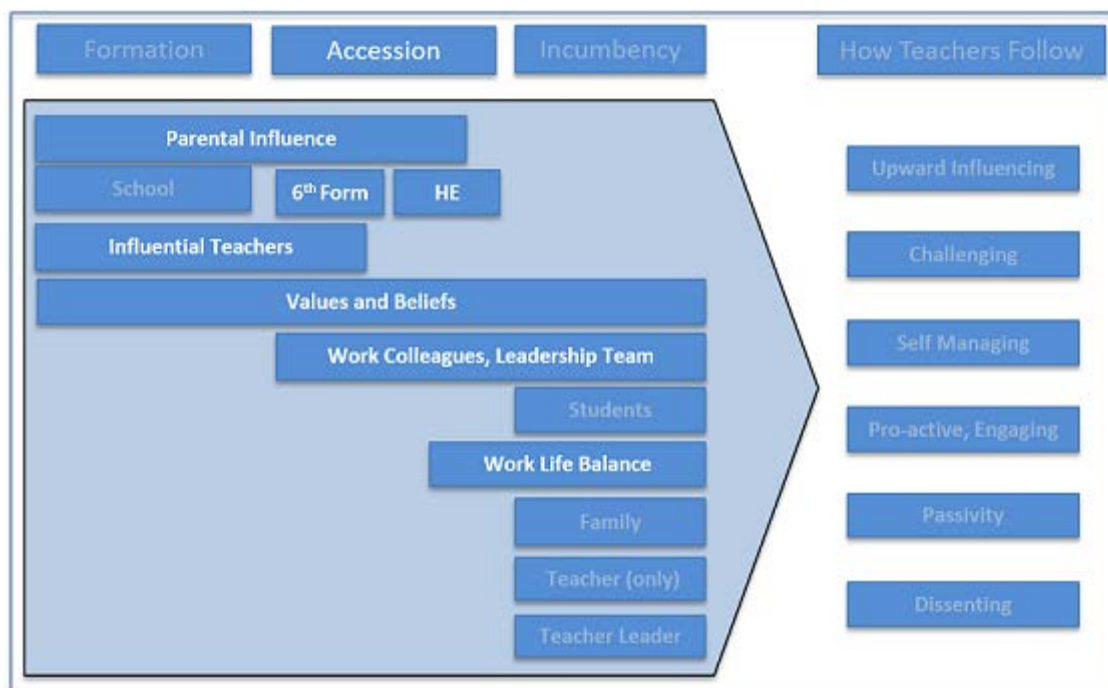


Figure 5.2: Summary of Accession Phase

The accession phase contains a number of influences in common with formation, not least the influence of parents and teachers, and the further development of the participants' values and beliefs. In addition, the data associated with the participants' routes into teaching revealed three distinct paths, with a mix of strategic intent, piecemeal advancement and serendipity playing a role.

Consequently, what emerges from this study is a lack of commonality regarding how the participants entered the profession. This finding aligns with existing studies that have investigated the lives of senior educationalists; revealing pathways described by Gunter (2001, p. 79) as neither uniform nor predictable.

Information was also gleaned on the participants' motivation to teach and here a

range of factors, common to all participants prevailed. Participants spoke once more of their core values and beliefs and of their enthusiasm to work with young people. On this point, one could align these findings with the idea of viewing teaching as a vocation to which like-minded individuals are drawn, i.e. a professional calling. While this may well be the case for many of the participants in this study (and this notion is discussed in the next section), this is not what is being directly contended at this point. Rather, attention is drawn to the link between the aforementioned values and beliefs and how they determine *why* the participating teachers follow as they do; as it is this finding emerging from the data that responds directly to the second research question.

The Incumbency Phase

The third and final stage entitled incumbency is concerned with the period of time spent employed as a teacher through to the current day. Here, a number of new themes emerged and these are discussed below, along with a range of previously identified themes from the two earlier phases.

When asked how people may have influenced them in this phase in their lives, the focus of the participants shifted from teachers and parents, to work colleagues and the young people that they taught at school. Regarding influential work colleagues, typically participants referred to their line manager or members of the senior team. Related to this, participants were also quick to comment on the collegiality enjoyed with colleagues, including their leaders, with the suggestion that this has a positive influence on the nature of their working relationships. The impact of work

colleagues is a finding that aligns with those reported by the 'journey to leadership' researchers. For example, Gronn (1999) spoke of the importance of mentors in the career journeys of educational leaders, as did Parker (2002, p. 34), who acknowledged the importance of work colleagues who had influenced the participants of his study.

The participating teachers in this study had been teaching on average for almost 14 years (with a minimum of 5 years and maximum of 38 years), so it is notable that most remained highly positive about their teaching role. While all 15 highlighted the attraction of working with young people, a range of additional factors were also reported to drive them in their role as teachers. For some, this aligned strongly to the aforementioned values associated with sharing knowledge and of positively impacting society. However, while all participants spoke positively about teaching, a small number were also quick to comment on how factors had impacted negatively on their view of teaching and the manner in which they approached the role today. Common themes among these participants were the pressure to conform to target-driven teaching practices and the 'ever-increasing' bureaucracy associated with being a teacher.

Almost half of the participants spoke of how family life had impacted upon their professional life, influencing the appeal of teaching and opportunities within the profession. One participant spoke of how she had voluntarily prioritised her husband's career over her own, while another felt strongly about the difficulties associated with having a young family. Linked to this, the notion of work-life balance was explicitly raised as an important factor. What became clear from

conversations on this subject was that for a small number of participants, an acceptable work-life balance was something actively pursued and when required, actively protected.

A number of the participants were longstanding classroom-based teachers and for some, this was driven by their desire to maintain a work-life balance. However, for others, their classroom-based status was retained by them due to them choosing to avoid leadership, something that this group viewed as either a distraction from teaching (their *raison d'être*), or as too great a challenge for them to consider.

Significantly, as a result of their reported self-imposed subordination, this group of participants acknowledged that this then influenced the nature of their workplace relationships and how they enacted followership. Finally, the participants holding a formal leadership responsibility also acknowledged that this too had affected the nature of their relationship with their line manager/s and the manner in which they undertook their work role. It is noteworthy that this final set of findings emerging from the data is less evident within the previously referred to educational leadership research. At the incumbency stage, this simplistic distinction may be due to one group primarily focused on teaching and the others on leading.

Summary - The Incumbency Phase

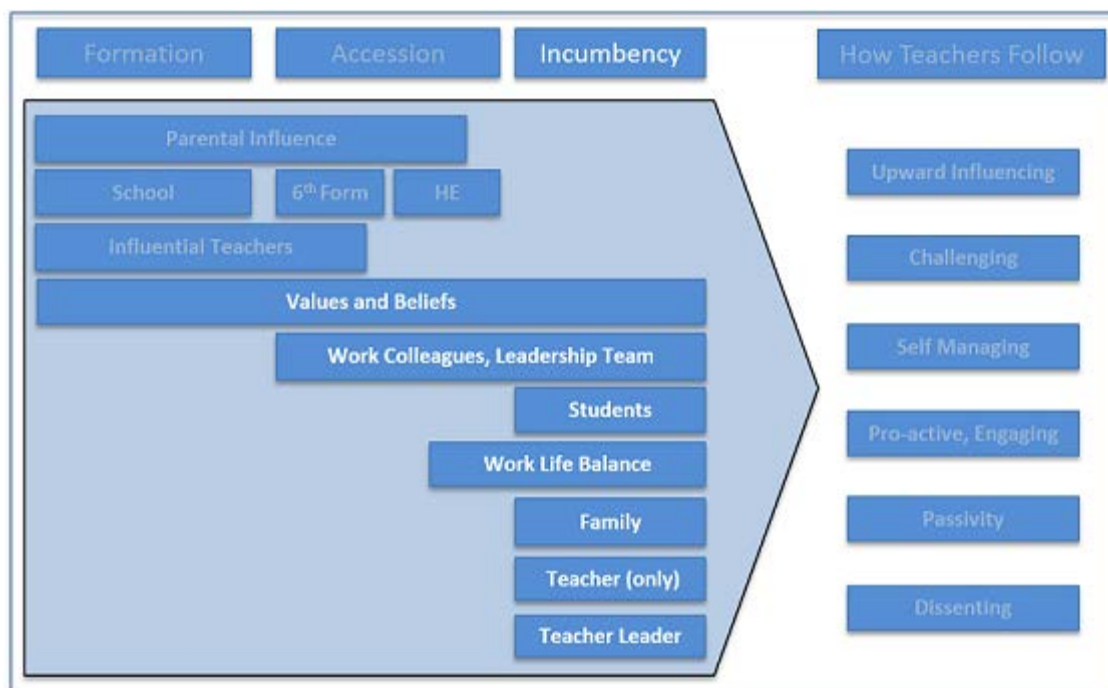


Figure 5.3: Summary of Incumbency Phase

This final stage of reflection revealed the influence of a number of recurring themes reported in the two earlier phases. Unsurprisingly, what emerged was that influential people remained a key influence; however, the emphasis had shifted from parents and teachers to their work colleagues. Of note is that senior leadership alongside work colleagues were deemed influential and in many instances described as friends who enhanced the attraction of the job.

A further emergent finding at this phase of the study is that the participants remained very largely positive regarding their teaching role. Here, counterintuitively, while some expressed negativity over a range of issues, citing matters such as growing bureaucracy and the pressure of working in an increasingly results-driven

environment, all the participants remained emphatic regarding their enthusiasm to work with children, passing on their knowledge and preparing them for the world of work. In addition to taking this literally, at least two perspectives could be supported by the data, i.e., the provision of socially desirable answers (could a teacher say that they disliked children?) and cognitive dissonance; where having spent a large part of their life devoted to becoming educated and trained and then teaching, deep down these participants were thinking that they really should have achieved more. Finally, participants recognised that their status as leaders and as classroom-based teachers had affected the manner in which they interacted with their work colleagues, including their line managers and thus, how they enacted followership.

Summary Conclusion - RQ2: Why do Teachers become Followers?

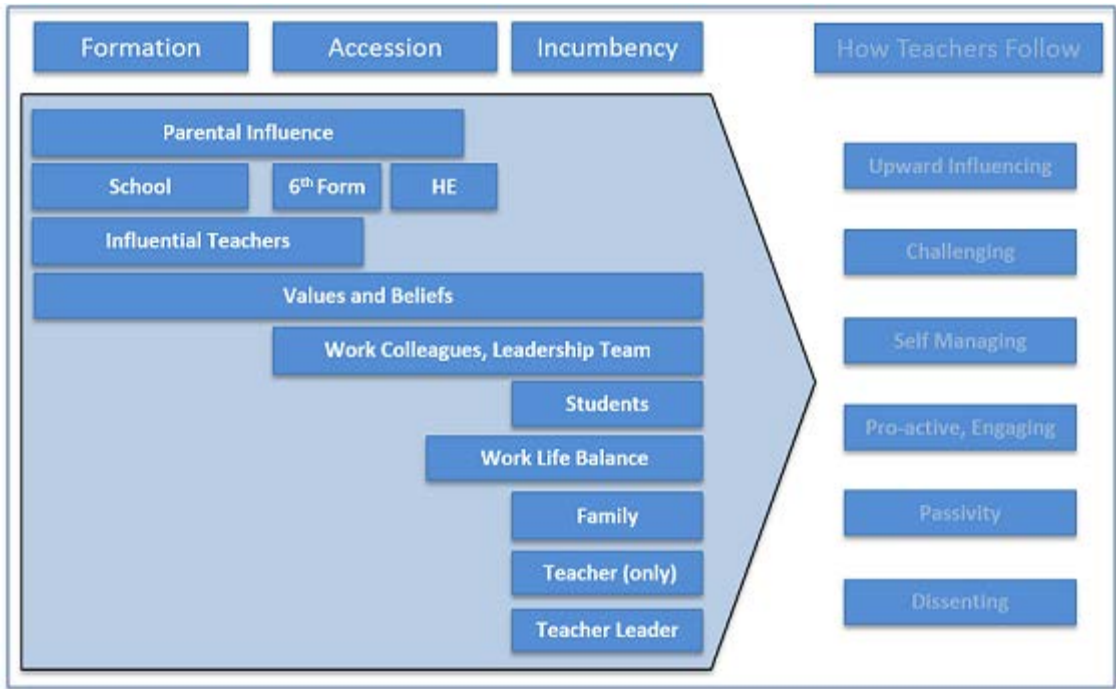


Figure 5.4: Summary of why Teachers become Followers

The basic premise upon which the study has responded to RQ2 is that an individual's approach to followership is developed through socialisation. Consequently, in order to understand *why* teachers follow, the study utilised Gronn's (1999) Career Model to investigate how the participants had been influenced by the historical, cultural and societal context in which they have lived and worked.

Figure 5.4 identifies the key findings in response to RQ2, illustrating the complex interplay between agency and structure occurring within the participants' lives. This study argues that while the inculcation of the importance of education and other key values by parents and teachers have been highly significant, a range of additional factors at large within the personal and professional lives of the participants have collectively influenced why they choose to enact followership as they do. While a number of the factors highlighted align with the findings reported by research into the lives and careers of educational leaders, there are some distinctions. In this study, the emphasis placed on strongly held values and beliefs, developed from an early age, appear to have guided a number of the participants towards teaching above all else, including aspirations towards senior leadership. For these participants, career motivation, in terms of their ability to be of service to others and to make a difference in the lives of their students, is a key finding which this study believes has influenced how the participants behave as a teacher and as a follower.

This chapter now continues with a discussion of the emerging findings related to questions three.

RQ3: How do Teachers Follow?

The third research question seeks to understand how the secondary school teachers engaged in this study, follow. A number of scholars have attempted to categorise the types of followership behaviour displayed by individuals and the well-known typology models developed in this field have been explored in the literature review chapter of this study. The most popular, Kelley's (1992) Followership Model, was used to support this research, with the accompanying questionnaire administered to 69 respondents. A mixed methods approach was incorporated into this aspect of the study, enabling qualitative data collected from the 15 interviewees to be used in combination with data drawn from Kelley's questionnaire in order to discover how teachers enact followership. This section begins by focusing on the quantitative findings and then moves to the qualitative findings; in both cases, drawing on the substantive issues raised in the preceding chapters.

The descriptive statistics of the questionnaire respondents are summarised in Chapter 4, along with the key findings of the quantitative data analysis. It is worth restating that the 69 questionnaire respondents were closely split gender-wise, with 55% of the group being female and 45% male. Further, the majority were long standing teachers, with 43 of the respondents (62%) having at least 11 years teaching experience and 17 (25%) having taught for over 21 years. Also, within the group, 38 (55%) respondents held a leadership role in addition to teaching, while 31 (45%) were classroom-based teachers, holding no leadership responsibilities beyond the classroom.

A key finding emerging from the data is that the respondents were found to practice followership in line with two of Kelley's five follower types, with 84% (n=58) of respondents recorded as exemplary followers and 16% (n=11) as pragmatic followers. Of note, Kelley's (1992) research, which focused upon the corporate world, suggested that exemplary followers typically represent between 5 and 30% of followers. Consequently, the dominance of exemplary followers among this study's respondents appears significant. Further, it suggests that the context of education provides a richer source of effective followership than those upon which Kelley based his findings. Before attempting to theorise why these findings might be so, it is worthwhile first considering them alongside the small number of existing studies that have used Kelley's Followership Model in an educational setting.

The literature review chapter contains the details of the 17 followership-centric studies undertaken in the field of education located by this study. Of these, eight utilised Kelley's questionnaire to determine the followership types of their subjects. These studies were undertaken in five different countries (i.e. Botswana; China; Malaysia; Thailand; and US) and sought to determine the follower types of headteachers (x1), lecturers (x3), students (x1) and teachers (x3). In two of the three studies that examined lecturers' follower styles, the most popular group identified were pragmatic followers; with exemplary followers revealed as the largest group in the third study. The findings of the student-focused study reported conformist followers as the largest group (52%); and in the study that considered headteachers, 88% of the respondents were identified as pragmatic followers.

An appropriate comparator set for this piece of research is the three studies that

focused specifically on school teachers. Of note, all three reported exemplary followers as the dominant group among their respondents. In Mertler et al.'s (1997), study, which was undertaken in the US, a reported 57% of respondents practiced exemplary followership. Johnson's (2003) study also based in the US reported 92% as exemplary followers, while Al-Anshory and Ali's (2014) Malaysian-based study identified 42% of respondents as exemplary followers and the most common follower type.

It is of note that each aligns with this study in finding exemplary followers dominant among their school teacher respondents. Also of note is that each study found pragmatic followers to be the second largest group, again in keeping with this research. The unity enjoyed by the teacher-focused studies is arguably made more emphatic due to exemplary follower dominance being absent from the findings of four of the other five aforementioned educational-based studies. Of course, it is not ideal to refer to a reference group made up of only a small number of studies, particularly when they are dispersed both historically and geographically. However, in this instance, these were the only studies discovered after a prolonged search; and as such are considered a small yet pertinent point of comparison; one to which this study adds to the unity of its findings.

Focusing on this study, a number of questions arise from this set of results, not least why there is such a surfeit of exemplary followers reported among the school teachers; why pragmatic followers are the only other type recorded; and the extent to which the followership-centric qualitative data collected by this study support these findings. To respond to these questions, the study first returns to the analysis

of the quantitative data.

The statistical analysis of data drawn from Kelley's (1992) questionnaire identified a number of pertinent findings. For example, the two dimensions of the questionnaire, i.e. independent, critical thinking and engagement, were found to have a moderately strong positive linear correlation (+0.67) that was statistically significant ($p= 0.000$). In this instance, the results indicate that the higher the independent, critical thinking score of the respondent (i.e. the more that they think for themselves; give constructive criticism; are innovative and creative), then the higher their engagement score (i.e. the more that they take initiative; assume ownership; and go above and beyond the job); and vice versa. The analysis also tested for relationships between key variables associated with the respondents and the questionnaire results. Here, the ANOVA and t-tests revealed that the scores for gender and years of teaching had no statistically significant relationship with the independent, critical thinking or engagement dimension of the questionnaire.

Of the three existing teacher-focused studies using Kelley's questionnaire, Johnson (2003) reported a similar outcome, finding no difference in followers' independent, critical thinking and engagement scores based on gender or teaching experience. Al-Anshory and Ali (2014) also tested for gender and they too found no statistically significant difference in their study. However, Mertler et al.'s (1997) earlier study did report a statistically significant difference regarding gender, finding that females scored more highly than males on the engagement dimension. In this study, finding no significant difference between the questionnaire scores of the respondents based upon their age and length of service generally falls in line with the findings of

the aforementioned teacher-focused studies. However, drawing on the qualitative data, two of the four male interview participants demonstrated considerably less willingness to engage in their role (i.e. take initiative; assume ownership; and go above and beyond the job) than all other participants engaged in the study.

Consequently, while not claiming that this is a sound basis to generalise, Mertler et al.'s (1997) finding does resonate with these particular male participants.

Teacher Leadership and Exemplary Followership

A key finding in this study revealed by the t-tests is the statistically significant result regarding the leader variable. Here, the analysis identified a significant difference recorded in the scores of the 38 teachers with a leadership responsibility and those 31 without. In this case, the results indicated that those respondents holding a leadership role scored differently on both the independent, critical thinking and the engagement dimensions than classroom-based teachers. Importantly, those teachers with a leadership responsibility scored *more highly* than their classroom-based colleagues. Further scrutiny of the questionnaire data indicates that 34 of the 38 respondents (89%) holding a leadership role recorded as exemplary followers. This finding suggests a positive link between leadership practice and exemplary followership.

Teacher Leadership beyond the Classroom

One explanation, which could explain this finding that is supported by the data, is that by practising leadership (in simple terms, setting direction and exercising

influence), a teacher has opportunity to demonstrate and develop those behaviours associated with exemplary followership. In support, Bass (2008) believes the elements that go into being an effective leader are closely aligned to those necessary to be an effective follower. Further, Kellerman (2008) spoke of how leaders need awareness, diplomacy, courage, and critical thinking (i.e. competence, motivation, intelligence), qualities that she argues are also wanted in the very best followers. Indeed, looking at how Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (1995) describe the characteristics of their exemplary and partner followers, it is possible to build a compelling case in support of the commonality between the characteristics of effective leaders and followers. On this basis, teachers who practice leadership in some guise will score more highly on a followership measure that has been constructed with this philosophy in mind.

When taken at face value, this interpretation might reasonably encourage the facilitation of greater opportunities for engagement in leadership-related activities by all staff, with the hope that this then encourages more teachers to exhibit exemplary followership. Such an interpretation conveniently leads us back to the study's earlier discussion of distributed leadership. And as mentioned then, the possibility of headteachers taking leadership seriously and engaging teachers effectively in this activity is an attractive proposition; and one that is revisited in the concluding chapter of this study.

Teachers as Professionals

While the exemplary follower is clearly dominant among the leadership group of

respondents, the data also indicate that 24 of the 31 (77%) classroom-based teachers also recorded as exemplary followers. While the statistical analysis supports the assertion that holding a leadership role enhances exemplary followership, that 77% of the classroom-based teachers also achieved this classification suggests that exposure to formal leadership practice may not be the only factor in play.

It is conceivable that the classroom-based teachers in this study who practice exemplary followership are driven by their over-riding commitment to teaching; one that leads them to engage positively in their role. Here, the attraction of using their subject expertise to make a difference in the lives of their students, which in turn satisfies their desire to do something of value in their working lives, provides a further, compelling explanation for the predominance of exemplary followership found among the classroom-based teachers engaged in this study.

Teacher Leadership within the Classroom

This study suggests an additional explanation for the predominance of exemplary followership among the classroom-based teachers; one which combines the aforementioned leadership and professional calling propositions. Simply put, this group of teachers practice leadership in their classrooms. This is supported by the qualitative data, which offers numerous examples of exemplary followership behaviours linked to activities inside the classroom; an environment in which teachers provide direction and exercise influence, both of which are core functions of leadership. Jackson (2001, p. 1) supports this interpretation, as he observes that

there is a strong case to recognise teachers as leaders *within* the classroom:

It is unarguable that they (teachers) instil, mould, and ultimately control much of the learning and intellectual development of the young people in their charge. It would be difficult to find a more authentic but unacknowledged example of leadership in modern life.'

What has emerged from the analysis is three factors that this study proposes influence why the majority of teachers were found to practice exemplary followership. These are identified in this study as 'teachers as leaders beyond the classroom'; 'teachers as professionals'; and 'teachers as leaders within the classroom.' Individually or in combination, this study suggests that they have been influential in the manner in which the teachers' engage as followers.

The Limited Evidence of Pragmatic Followers

The explanations for the predominance of exemplary followership may also explain why such limited evidence of other follower types was found within the study. Here, the remaining 14% (n=11) of questionnaire respondents recorded as pragmatic followers; five of whom were interview participants. Of note, while these participants spoke of the appeal of teaching (in line with all other interview participants) this group were quick to highlight its challenges. One such challenge, and arguably a key agenda for these individuals, was the maintenance of an acceptable work-life balance; and from their narratives comes a sense that much of what had occurred in their working life was done to enable and protect this balance. Unsurprisingly, a common approach demonstrated throughout their interviews was their pragmatism, as illustrated in the comment below:

And they haven't just got to pass, they've got to get A's, right? And I don't buy into that, okay....Now, I have to do it because otherwise I'm going to lose my job and I'm not an idiot, I've got a mortgage, right.

In sum, the results drawn from Kelley's (1992) questionnaire report a predominance of exemplary followership among the respondents of this study, accompanied by a much smaller number of pragmatic followers. Thus, in response to the research question of how teachers follow, the quantitative findings suggest that they do this largely by practising exemplary followership. Further, this study argues that the associated behaviours with this approach have been influenced by the participants' engagement with leadership, both in a formal sense and also in the classroom. In addition to this is their over-riding commitment to teaching, one that leads them to engage positively in their role.

Followership Behaviours

In order to provide a more informed response to research question three, the study now focuses on the qualitative data and reviews the narratives of those participants adjudged to practise exemplary and pragmatic followership. By doing this, the study is able to reflect upon the manner in which the participants have described their followership behaviours; and thus determine the extent to which this aligns with their acquired typology label. Among the interview participants, 10 (67%) recorded as exemplary followers and while in percentage terms this is lower than those found among the questionnaire respondents (86%), the exemplary followers remain dominant among the interviewees and provide credible insight into this approach to followership. Further, as five of the participants recorded as pragmatic followers, their view is also well represented among the interviewees.

The findings of the qualitative data which focused upon the participants' followership behaviour are presented in Chapter 4. These findings are drawn from responses to questions asked about the nature of the participants' relationship with their line manager/s; the types of activities that they did together; the role they played in the leadership equation; and the types of behaviours they displayed while interacting with their line manager/s. This pool of data revealed a range of followership behaviours and these were subsequently categorised as: upward influencing; challenging; self-managing; pro-active and engaging; passivity; and dissenting. Participants also linked these behaviours to a number of key activities that engaged them with their line manager/s, including: decision-making; classroom teaching; maintaining a work-life balance; and line management relationships. Participants also identified additional factors that they felt had impacted on their behaviour vis-à-vis their line manager, including: drive and commitment and collegiality.

What emerges from the qualitative analysis is that the findings associated with these behaviours align closely to those used to describe Kelley's (1992) exemplary and pragmatic followers. For example, those behaviours categorised as pro-active and engaging were found to be mostly attributable to the exemplary followers within the group, with numerous examples of how these participants demonstrated this behaviour in their working lives.

The narratives discussing upward influencing and challenging behaviours were linked to both types of follower, particularly in the context of decision-making. Regarding the exemplary followers, Kelley (1992) argued that as they possess a

critical mind-set, they would look to influence on matters that are important to them, or in which they hold expertise. In his view the exemplary follower works collaboratively with their leaders, happy to challenge when disagreement exists. Chaleff (2005) described this as speaking truth to power; a core component of outstanding followership in his view. Numerous examples of this behaviour emerge from the data, closely binding personal narratives to their status as exemplary followers. As pragmatists are seen to draw qualities from all four follower types, it is not surprising that they too reported upward influencing and challenging behaviours. However, as argued by Kelley (1992) this group adopts a style, which when aligned with the prevailing situation, looks to benefit their own agenda. In this study, a key agenda for the pragmatic followers was achieving a work-life balance. Indeed, participants spoke at length of how they would attempt to influence, challenge and negotiate with their leaders, in order to maximise this in their favour.

Passivity and dissent were two further behaviours reported by pragmatic followers, with these participants speaking of letting others take responsibility, being comfortable standing back, allowing them to get on with what they choose to do. They were also quick to complain about the frailties of the teaching profession; although through their actions, it was evident that they were prepared to accept them as part of their working life. In addition, a number of the exemplary followers also spoke of them demonstrating passivity and dissent; however, this appeared to be driven by their desire to maintain their focus on teaching, avoiding what they saw as the distractions going on outside of their classroom.

Participants also identified the importance of drive and commitment as factors that

had influenced their followership behaviour. These were reported in a positive sense by the exemplary followers; a number of whom spoke of teaching as a lifestyle, one which they accepted demanded energy and dedication. Of note, the pragmatic followers also spoke of commitment, but typically did so in the context of them lacking it, often attributed to them being overwhelmed by what they perceived as the increasingly bureaucratic education system in which they worked. The notion of commitment sits comfortably with Kelley's (1992) description of exemplary followers, as he referred to these individuals as being committed to the goal, vision, or cause of the organisation. He also suggests that exemplary followers are committed to causes and ideas bigger than themselves and this ties in closely with the notion of teachers having a professional calling. Kelley (1992) also spoke of how exemplary followers focus less on status and titles, seeing their leaders as part of the team, one committed to accomplishing its goals. This final point aligns with those exemplary follow participants who spoke of the importance of collegiality as a further influential factor regarding how they chose to follow.

To conclude this section of the chapter it is appropriate to return to Kelley (1988; 1992) and re-visit the findings, which led him to propose what he believed to be the four essential qualities that characterised effective followership. In his view exemplary followers manage themselves well, requiring limited supervision. Secondly, they are committed to their organisation and focus their commitment to its goals. Thirdly, effective followers are competent and master the skills necessary to perform well in their work environment and to be useful for their organisation. Fourthly, effective followers are credible, courageous and honest, unafraid to challenge the decisions made by their leaders.

In sum, the qualitative data has captured a more complete portrait of the quantitative findings of this study, one which reveals considerable overlap between Kelley's findings vis-à-vis the characteristics of effective followership and the behaviours of the exemplary followers at large among the teachers engaged in this study.

Overall Summary of Main Findings

The main findings that have emerged from the data relating to research question two (why teachers become followers) are:

1. The significant influence of parents and secondary schooling during the formative and accession phases of the teachers' lives and how these findings align with those reported in the career models of educational leadership literature;
2. The significant influence of secondary school teachers reported by the majority of the participants and how this finding is less prevalent in the career models of educational leadership literature;
3. The significant influence of the congruence between participants' core values and beliefs and the teaching profession and how this finding is less prevalent within the career models of educational leadership literature;
4. The importance of maintaining a work-life balance being a significant influence for a small number of like-minded participants;
5. That the participants' routes into teaching are largely non-uniform and unpredictable, a finding that aligns with the career models of educational

leadership literature;

6. The influence of work colleagues, including senior leaders, during the incumbency phase; a finding that aligns with the career models of educational leadership literature;
7. That all participants spoke positively about their teacher role including, counter-intuitively, those participants who had highlighted weaknesses associated with it. The study suggests that this may be a result of participants providing socially desirable answers and/or being subject to cognitive dissonance.

The main findings that have emerged from the data relating to research question three (how do teachers follow) are:

1. That followership types did not vary extensively within this study, with just two of Kelley's (1992) five follower types reported;
2. The dominance among the respondents (n=69) of the exemplary follower (86%); with the remaining 14% of respondents recorded as pragmatic followers;
3. The unity shared by this study and the three existing studies that have used Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire to investigate the followership of school teachers, i.e. all finding exemplary followers to be the dominant follower type, with pragmatic followers found to be the second most popular;
4. That the statistical analysis of the questionnaire data revealed no relationships between the two dimensions of Kelley's (1992) Followership

- Model and the gender and length of service of the respondents;
5. That the t-tests revealed statistically significant results for both dimensions of the Followership Model and the leader variable, indicating that those respondents with a formal leadership role scored more highly in follower effectiveness than those without;
 6. That a significant number of teachers without a formal leadership responsibility also recorded as exemplary followers;
 7. That the participants were found to practice six key followership behaviours, i.e. upward influencing; challenging; self-managing; pro-active and engaging; passivity; and dissenting; and these were attributed to the participants in line with Kelley's (1992) descriptors of exemplary and pragmatic followers;
 8. Finally, that this study argues that the predominance of exemplary followership is encouraged by teacher engagement with leadership, both within and beyond the classroom; and as a result of their professionalism in post, influenced by the congruence between their core values and the teaching role.

The final chapter seeks to form conclusions based upon the research findings and it is here that the study now turns.

CHAPTER SIX - CONCLUSION

Introduction

The broad aim of this study was to contribute to the limited body of research aimed exclusively at followership in the field of education. It looked to do this by investigating the followership of school teachers working in the secondary education sector. The study identified three research questions, which looked to reveal the extent of followership-centric research at large in this field and also provide insight into why and how teachers follow.

In this concluding chapter I return to the three research questions, linking them to the key findings emergent from the data. Here, they are considered in light of the contribution they make collectively to the knowledge base of followership in the field of education; and how they might be applied in practice. The methodological limitations of the study are then identified and finally recommendations are suggested for further research.

RQ1: What is known about Followership in an Educational Context?

It has been much reported that the attention of leadership scholars has focused mainly on the leader, greatly overshadowing the critical role of the follower (Bass, 2008; Carsten et al., 2010; Kellerman, 2008; Shamir et al., 2007; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Further, it is evident that while followership has received attention in the general research domain of business leadership, this is not the case in the field of

education where it is barely evident at all. As reported earlier in the literature review chapter, a simple search for the key terms of leadership and followership, carried out in June 2015 using Google Scholar, returned a hit rate of 158 to 1 in favour of leadership.

In response to the first research question, the study undertook a search for all published followership-centric research, located in the field of education. The result of this search identified just 17 published studies (see Table 2.1). A simple analysis of the research revealed that Shamir's (2007) wish for researchers to 'reverse the lens' and focus on followers rather than leaders, has enjoyed limited success in the field of education. More positively, the located papers did, as he suggests, undertake empirical research and, importantly, focus on followers themselves.

As the most popular host country for the studies was the US, it is perhaps unsurprising that the majority of these studies took a quantitative approach; although it should be noted that qualitative research underpinned a third of the research. A key thrust for the research was to better understand how people followed and central to this was the use of Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire. Of the eight studies that used his questionnaire, three did so to study the followership of school teachers; and this small cluster of studies forms a natural, albeit small comparator set for the current study; one with which it aligns closely.

As this is a UK based study, it was of note that followership-centric research carried out in UK is poorly represented; and this is surprising bearing in mind its rich heritage in educational leadership research. In 2000, Thody published an article on

followership in the 'Management in Education' journal, which she followed up in 2003 with the publication of the results of a mapping exercise of educational followership types. Some 12 years later, with the exception of a paper published in 2014 by myself (see Appendix 11 for information on dissemination of research), her work stands alone as the UK's sole contribution to published followership-centric research within the educational leadership domain.

The field of education in the UK is fertile ground for followership-centric research, not least, as there is much talk of the suitability of distributed leadership in this setting. An informed discussion on this subject is beyond the scope of this study. However, as reported earlier, that headteachers take sharing leadership to heart and engage teachers more effectively in this activity, is an attractive proposition. Such action demands that more is known about the role of the follower and this is highlighted at the close of the chapter.

RQ2: Why do Teachers become Followers?

The investigation to establish why teachers become followers was predicated on the understanding that followership behaviour is developed through a process of socialisation. Consequently, this study focused on the contexts in which the private and professional lives of the participants was played out, as it was here that agency had been exercised and structured, influencing them both as teachers and as followers.

The qualitative data revealed a number of significant factors deemed influential in

determining why teachers become followers. The teachers engaged in this study highlighted the influence of their parents and their schooling in shaping the manner in which they had come to be; and these findings are in line with research carried out on the career journeys of senior educational leaders. In this study, teachers placed particular emphasis on the impact of their secondary school teachers, and this finding is more in evidence here than in the aforementioned educational leadership literature. This may be so due to the participants themselves being secondary school teachers; an affinity that has led them to prioritise its importance. Even so, the strength of feeling shared by the participants regarding the impact of their secondary school teachers, is striking.

Participants also reported how the congruence between their core values and beliefs and the teaching profession had also influenced how they developed and behaved. Here, interview narratives were infused with references to values and beliefs typically linked to helping people and them wishing to serve society positively. These two influences emerge as significant for the participating teachers and appear more distinctive findings from those reported by scholars who have focused on the making of educational leaders.

RQ3: How do Teachers Follow?

The mixed methods approach that underpins this study provided qualitative and quantitative insights into how the teachers in this study, follow. The administration of Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire provided an acknowledged mechanism to categorise followership. The results revealed that among the

respondents of this study, the majority of teachers practiced exemplary followership and this aligns with the three existing studies that have examined the followership of school teachers.

The qualitative data provided further opportunity to understand how the participating teachers enacted followership, i.e. how they behaved in relation to their leader.

This also provided opportunity to test the findings drawn from the Kelley's (1992) questionnaire. The qualitative data provided a rich source of information and emergent from this were six key followership behaviours, i.e. upward influencing; challenging; self-managing; pro-active and engaging; passivity; and dissenting. Of note, these behaviours were attributed to the participants in line with Kelley's (1992) descriptors of exemplary and pragmatic followers. Further, while some of these behaviours linked more readily to one follower type, e.g. pro-active and engaging (exemplary) and passivity (pragmatic), both types of follower engaged to some extent in all six behaviours.

Having established how teachers follow, the study looked to understand what had encouraged the predominance of exemplary followership. A starting point was the statistical analysis, which generated one statistically significant result. This finding linked the performance of those teachers holding a leadership role with higher follower effectiveness scores than those teachers based within the classroom.

Further, findings drawn from the qualitative data suggest that for many of the teachers, their motivation to teach and subsequent commitment to task resulting in exemplary followership, was driven by the congruence between the teaching role and their core values and beliefs. Also of note was that exemplary followership was

dominant among those respondents holding no formal leadership role.

As a consequence, this study proposes a number of explanations for the dominance of exemplary followership among the teachers engaged in this study.

The first, supported by the statistical analysis, is that those teachers holding a formal leadership role score most highly as effective followers. This study suggests that this is due to the significant overlap between leadership and followership behaviour; a situation acknowledged by the creator of the followership questionnaire used in this research. This study also argues that exemplary followership was also found to be dominant among classroom-based teachers as they too practice leadership; but in their case, within the confines of the classroom. The third proposition is that the predominance of exemplary followership among teachers is a result of their professionalism in post; and this is influenced by the congruence between their core values and beliefs and the teaching role. The teacher journey to exemplary followership is presented diagrammatically in Figure 6.1.

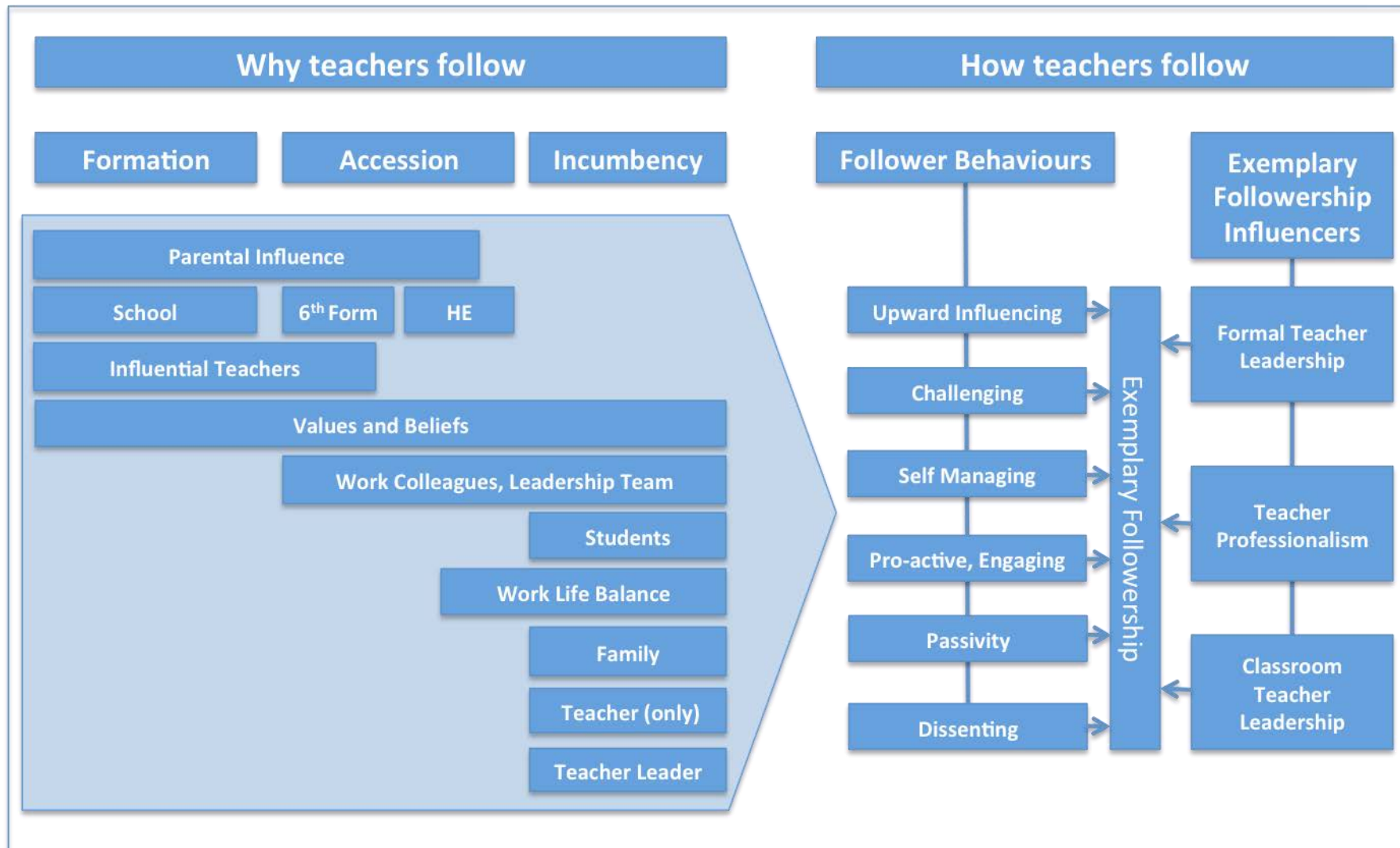


Figure 6.1: The Teacher Journey to Exemplary Followership

Contribution to Knowledge and its Application

This study has yielded a number of findings that make a new contribution to the understanding of followership within the field of education. The key research findings have clarified understanding regarding:

1. The scarcity of followership-centric research undertaken in the field of educational leadership;
2. The influence of the key socialisation agencies of parents and education; and how these findings align with those reported in the research on the careers of senior educational leaders;
3. The influence of secondary school teachers as a further, significant socialisation agency; a finding that is less prevalent within the aforementioned educational leadership literature;
4. The congruence between the teachers' core values and beliefs and the teaching profession; and how this finding is also less prevalent within the educational leadership literature;
5. The dominance of exemplary followership among school teachers; and how this finding is directly in line the three existing studies that have used Kelley's (1992) Followership Model questionnaire to investigate the followership of school teachers;
6. The identification of six key followership behaviours used by teachers during their interactions with line management, i.e. upward influencing; challenging; self-managing; pro-active and engaging; passivity; and dissenting;
7. The proposed link between the practice of exemplary followership and

- teacher engagement with leadership, both within and beyond the classroom;
8. The proposed link between the practice of exemplary followership and teacher professionalism; with motivation to teach and subsequent commitment to task influenced by the congruence between their core values and the teaching role.

The research underpinning this study has led to the development of a model, which encapsulates why and how school teachers follow. Specifically, this enables the conceptualisation of the teacher journey to exemplary followership (see Figure 6.1). While the findings are not intended to be generalisable to all settings, the study recognises that, within limits, they may be transferable to other settings, adding to an individual's existing knowledge. Used appropriately, with this knowledge one can design environments and situations that can attract, accommodate, develop and retain exemplary followers within schools.

While the debate continues over the practice of distributed leadership, arguably the focus has shifted from judgements about its appeal, to how it can be made to work effectively. Understanding the part played by the follower in this scenario is crucial. To this end, it is intended that the application of this research can edge discussions about the relationship between leaders and followers out of the shadows.

Headteachers need to be acutely aware of the followers that they are creating and spend energy and focus in nurturing an environment which allows effective followership to flourish. The six core behaviours, along with other follower-specific traits identified by this research, can guide school leaders. Indeed, the key findings

can inform target setting for the improvement of engagement and communications strategies and also help tailor development plans for staff.

The findings of this small-scale study can also serve to broaden the practitioners' knowledge and understanding of how effective followership can contribute to school leadership effectiveness. As highlighted above, headteachers must do all they can to enhance the leadership in their schools and the results from this study could be used to stimulate discussion into how the followership practices of their staff can contribute to achieving organisational goals, such as raising teaching standards in their schools. Policy makers may also benefit from the findings of this study as maximising effective followership will benefit all schools, potentially leading to improved learner outcomes - a key objective for such officials and an important yardstick as evidenced by its centrality in league tables. Finally, the findings from this research may encourage future researchers to explore followership, moving the follower evermore into the limelight.

Limitations of the Study

There are a number of limitations that exist in relation to this study and these are listed below:

1. The population from which the sample was drawn was limited to teachers from just five secondary schools in Randleshire - a single county in England. Consequently, while the results of this study are not insignificant, they are not generalisable;

2. As the participants volunteered to engage in this study, this may have attracted certain people while deterring others from participating, possibly skewing the results as a consequence;
3. This study relied exclusively on self-reported data, which can be distorted; for example, by people giving socially desirable responses, not wishing to reveal their true feelings, and/or simply by misunderstanding questions;
4. Regarding RQ2, while I am confident in the soundness of the data collected, a second opportunity to discuss the findings with the participants would have been advantageous with regards to maximising the credibility of the data;
5. While the mixed-methods approach embraced by the study went some way to help validate the findings drawn from data, it would be preferable to have triangulated the data via a work colleague and/or line manager for each of the participants;
6. While the quantitative analysis reveals some statistically significant results, it is important to be mindful that statistically significant data are not necessarily 'socially' significant.

Recommendations for Future Research

On the basis of the findings, the study makes the following recommendations for future research:

1. It is evident from the discussion in the literature review that there is a shortage of research into the followership of school teachers (and all those involved in education for that matter). Consequently, future research may

choose to repeat the approach taken in this study and extend the sample, including teachers in different locations and embracing those working in the primary sector;

2. The list of limitations associated with the research indicated that this study lacked a mechanism to test the veracity of the self-reported data. Therefore, if future research in the vein of this study should be undertaken, then an attempt to include line managers and/or work colleagues to address this limitation would be a positive step forward;
3. This study reinforces the importance of the relationship between leader and follower. With this in mind, future research would benefit from investigating the best fit between leadership style and exemplary followership;
4. Thody's (2003) work has led the way for followership researchers in the field of education. Future research could re-visit her lexicon of follower types and investigate their currency today;
5. A key proposition of this study is the beneficial link between leadership practice and exemplary followership. The proposed link requires further investigation, not least as greater engagement with leadership by all must be carefully managed if it is to avoid the criticisms faced by today's mechanisms for sharing leadership.

In conclusion, a key finding of this study is the identification of a range of followership-related behaviours displayed by the school teachers engaged in this study. With its focus on followership in hierarchical roles, this study identified these behaviours in the interactions of the teachers with their line managers. However, followership researchers are today moving beyond the confines of this role-based

approach to the study of followership. These researchers argue that leadership and followership are co-created in social interactions between people. In sum, they believe that leaders are not always leading and followers are not solely following. In their view, both parties lead and follow, depending on the situation. Although this study has been undertaken during this transition in the approach to the study of followership, it is hoped that its findings will offer scope to those researchers who today prioritise behaviour over role in their search for a greater understanding of followership practice.

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Appendix 1 - Google Scholar Search for terms - Leadership and Followership

Back to leadership - Google Scholar (Alt+Left)

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BM Bass, RM Stogdill - 1990 - ulb-tu-darmstadt.de

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[M Van Vugt, R Hogan, RB Kaiser - American Psychologist, 2008 - psycnet.apa.org](#)

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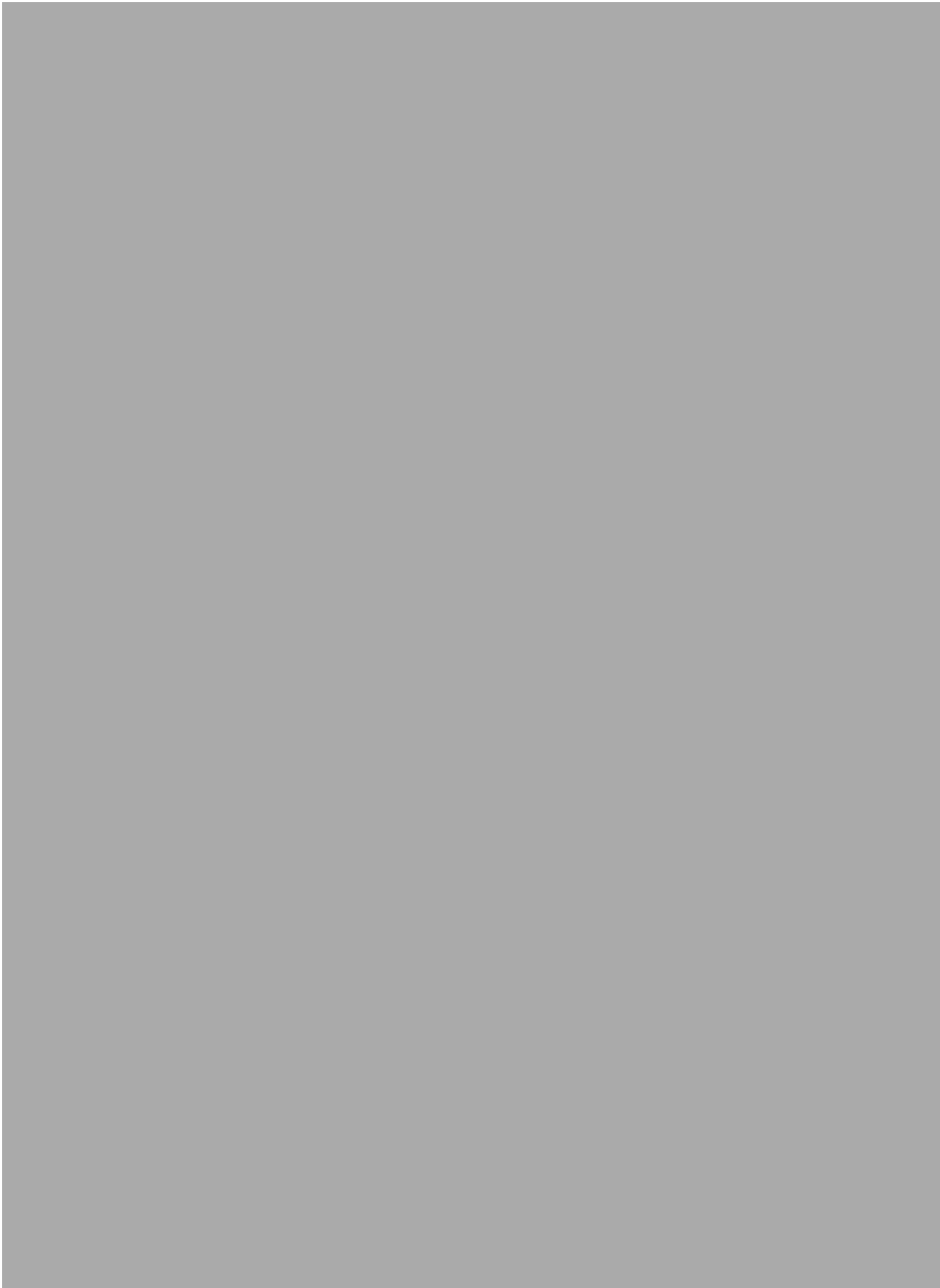
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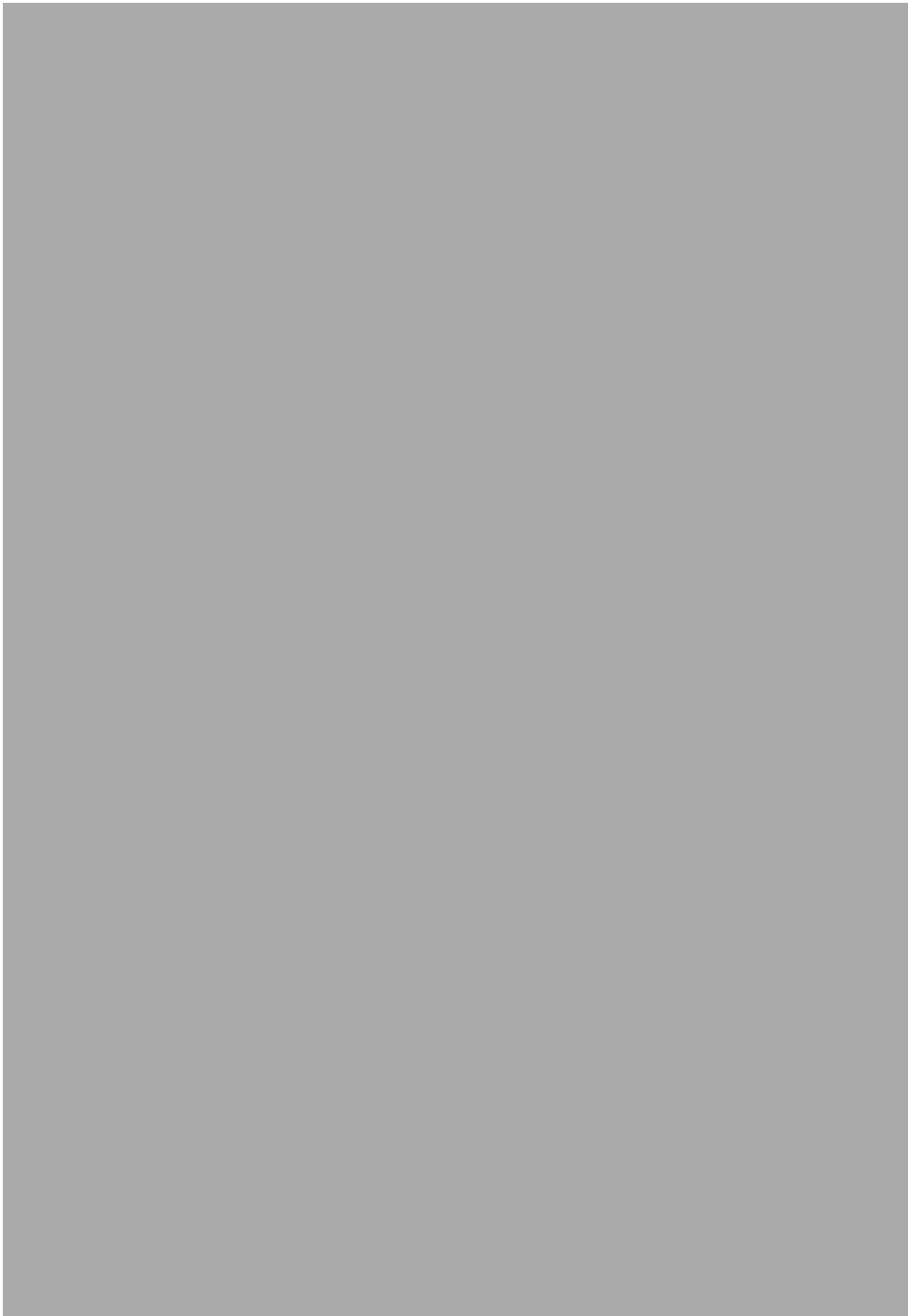
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Appendix 2 - Follower Types and Roles (taken from Thody, 2003; p. 5-8)





Appendix 3 - 2014 International Followership Symposium Agenda

2014 International Followership Symposium Agenda

TIME	EVENT		
	CONTINENTAL BREAKFAST		
8:20 - 8:30	INTRODUCTORY REMARKS AND OVERVIEW Shelly Wilsey - Director, ILA Rob Koonce - 2014 Chair, ILA Followership Learning Community		
8:30 - 9:15	FOLLOWERS AND LEADERS: THE EVOLVING DYNAMIC Robert E. Kelley - Adjunct Professor of Org. Theory & Behavior, Tepper School of Business, Carnegie Mellon University As followers become more assertive in their roles, it is throwing off the old equilibrium in both business and geo-politics. How will this play out and what are the consequences for both followers and leaders? This presentation will explore this new dynamic and identify what will be expected of future followers.		
9:15 - 10:00	FOLLOWERSHIP: THE JOURNEY OF A MEME Ira Chaleff - President, Executive Coaching & Consulting Associates, & author of <i>The Courageous Follower - Standing Up to and For Our Leaders</i> A generation ago the term "Followership" raised quizzical eyebrows. It still does but the arch of the eyebrow is lessened. Increasingly, the subject has found its way into curricula, leadership development programs, social media and common language. How is the meme permeating the culture and how can we as a community of interest steward its evolution and impact?		
10:00 - 10:15	BREAK		
10:15 - 11:15	FOLLOWERSHIP IN A MILITARY AND GLOBAL CONTEXT Moderator: Ted Thomas - Director, Department of Command and Leadership, US Army Command and General Staff College Panelists: Elijah Wee - PhD Candidate, University of Maryland; Linda Pallone - former Director of Coaching and Leadership Trainer for Silk Road Solutions (Afghanistan), leadership trainer and coach (specializing in conflict-affected regions) This panel will focus on operationalizing the concepts of followership in a military context which heavily emphasizes leadership. We will also look at followership across cultures and gender since the military has to work with many different countries whenever and wherever they deploy.		
11:15 - 11:30	BREAK		
11:30 - 11:50	TOPIC TBA Guest Speaker: Edith Eiger - Holocaust Survivor, Clinical Psychologist, Lecturer		
11:50 - 12:35	WHY GOOD FOLLOWERS GO BAD: THE POWER OF MORAL DISENGAGEMENT Craig E. Johnson - Professor of Leadership Studies and Director, DBA Program, George Fox University		
12:35 - 13:15	LUNCH (provided as part of the pre-conference event)		
13:15 - 13:45	BREAKOUTS		
	TRACK 1 - EDUCATION	TRACK 2 - BUSINESS	TRACK 3 - GOVERNMENT
	Comparison of Rwandan and American Followership Styles	What Do Managers Really Do?: A Qualitative Study That Includes Both Leadership and Followership	Followership in Russia: Historical Traditions and Current Meanings
	Deborah Thomas Regent Univ. (USA) / Evangelical Friends Missionary (Rwanda)	Rodger Adair - DeVry Univ. (USA) Marc Hurwitz - Wilfrid Laurier Univ. (Canada) Stephanie Povlosky - Cabrini College (USA)	Yulia Tolstikov-Most - Indiana Institute of Technology (USA)
13:45 - 14:15	Developing a Followership Curriculum for a University Leadership Program	Simultaneously Leaders and Followers: A Middle Manager's Implicit and Explicit Challenge	Leadership from the Fringe: Creating a Leader-Follower Collaborative Dynamic
	Jennifer Baublits Creighton Univ. (USA)	Steven Geer Univ. of Phoenix (USA)	Steven L. Smith Wayland Baptist Univ. (USA)
14:15 - 14:45	Leader-Follower Unity: Grounded Theory Based on Perceptions of Leadership and Followership Experts in the United States	Civic Engagement	Transformation of a Courageous Follower into a Courageous Leader
	Evgenia V. Prilipko Univ. of the Incarnate Word (USA)	Susan Keim - Donnelly College (USA) Angela Spranger - Christopher Newport Univ. (USA) Rob Koonce - Creighton Univ. (USA) Gene Dixon - East Carolina Univ. (USA)	Wajeeha Ghias National Defence University (Pakistan)
14:45 - 15:15	Follower Positioning: The Follower Journey of School Teachers Working in the UK Secondary Education Sector	Demythologizing Leadership and Followership	Teaching Followership in the Federal Government: One Agency's Approach
	Andrew Francis Univ. of Birmingham (UK)	Petros Malakyan Indiana Wesleyan Univ. (USA)	J. Basil Read, III Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (USA)

Appendix 4 - Recruitment Letter to Headteacher

Example of letter:

From: Francis, Andrew F
Sent: 30 April 2014 13:13
To: XXXXX@XXXXX.sch.uk
Subject: For the attention of Mr XXXXX

Dear Mr XXXXX

My name is Andrew Francis and I am a part-time doctoral student at the University of Birmingham.

I am looking to recruit some class-based teachers to participate in my research (a 75 minute interview - outside of teaching time). As I live locally, I thought I'd write to see if you might support me by allowing me to see if any of your staff might be interested?

I have attached two one page documents - one is a bit of background, the other a flyer that could be distributed to staff.

I would be very happy to pop in for a quick face to face meeting if you could find the time and would happily supply copies of the two documents for distribution.

Thanks, in advance, for your consideration.

Regards
Andrew

Participants Required for a Research Study about Teaching

Hello, I am a part time doctoral student in the School of Education at the University of Birmingham. I'm looking for teachers to volunteer to be interviewed as part of my doctoral research project.

What is the study about?

I'm interested in how you approach your job. I'm also interested in your teaching 'journey' and exploring how your life and career has impacted upon this.

Would the study be a good fit for me?

If you are a classroom-based teacher, with or without a management or leadership role, then you fit the bill!

Why should I take part?

Well I hope that you will find it interesting and while quite a lot of information will be sought from me, I will go about this in an efficient manner and with complete anonymity and confidentiality.

What happens if I take part in the study?

If you decide to take part I will interview you at a time and location convenient to you and this will take about 75 minutes.

I'm interested - what is the next step?

For more information about taking part in this study, please contact me, Andrew Francis, on axf130@bham.ac.uk. I will happily explain more about the part that you could play and the approach taken that governs the study and ensures your peace of mind.

Appendix 6 - Participant Information Guide

Participant Information



The Project

The project is the basis of my thesis for my doctoral programme of study - i.e. [Leaders and Leadership in Education Doctorate \(EdD\)](#) at the University of Birmingham.

The broad aim of this study is to explore the journeys of teachers working in the UK secondary education sector. Specifically, I'm keen to understand how characteristics of their life and work may have influenced their career. Further, I wish to understand how teachers, as part of their relationship with leadership, influence and contribute towards the attainment of the school's objectives. Importantly, the study looks to understand *why* and *how* it is that teachers engage as they do and to explore the factors that shape this; and key to this will be the use of the biographical semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire. This approach requires the researcher to seek answers to pre-established questions from the participant. However, while these questions will provide a structured framework to the interview, dialogue between researcher and participant may explore other relevant areas.

The information collected will be considered together with relevant academic literature to form part of my doctoral thesis. For example, it is possible that excerpts from the interview transcript, fully anonymised, may be used in the thesis. Quotations may also be used in research papers, again with identifying features removed, subject to research ethics.

Anonymity and Confidentiality

To be clear, the transcripts of our interviews and any notes taken from our time together will be kept confidential and only used for research purposes. Information will contain no names and no references to specific institutions and care will be taken to maintain anonymity.

Informed Consent

If you have any questions regarding your involvement in this project or any detail of the ethics protocol, or the project in general, please contact me. The interview will be recorded and transcribed, with your consent, within six weeks of the interview taking place. If you would like a copy of the interview transcript (so you can check that it is correct and that you are comfortable with the transcription) please indicate this on the consent form.

Right to Withdraw

You have the right to withdraw from the study up to two months after your interview takes place. If you choose to withdraw, all electronic information will be permanently deleted and information recorded on paper will be shredded.

Feedback

You can request a summary of the findings on the consent form. These will be made available to you once the research is complete.

Contact details: Researcher - Andrew Francis
Supervisor - Dr Thomas Bisschoff



Appendix 7 - Kelley's (1992) Followership Model Questionnaire

Mark an **X** to indicate the appropriate response to each question below using this scale:

Rarely = 0 ... Occasionally = 3 ... Almost Always = 6

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Does your job as a teacher help you fulfil some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?							
2. Are your personal work goals aligned with the school's priority goals?							
3. Are you highly committed to and energised by your work and organisation, giving them your best ideas and performance?							
4. Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energise your co-teachers?							
5. Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what your line manager tells you, do you personally identify which activities are most crucial for achieving the school's priority goals?							
6. Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the school and its leaders?							
7. When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the school and its leaders?							
8. Can the leader give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your work deadline with highest-quality work and that you will "fill in the cracks" if need be?							
9. Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?							
10. When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?							
11. Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the school's goals?							
12. Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organisational), rather than look to the leader to do it for you?							
13. Do you help out other co-teachers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?							

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Do you help the leader or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil's advocate if need be?							
15. Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off their evaluation?							
16. Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?							
17. Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the leader's decision rather than just doing what you are told?							
18. When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say "no" rather than "yes"?							
19. Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader's or the group's standards?							
20. Do you assert your views on important issues, even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the leader?							

Independent Thinking Question	Score	Active Engagement Question	Score
1		2	
5		3	
11		4	
12		6	
14		7	
16		8	
17		9	
18		10	
19		13	
20		15	
Total		Total	

Appendix 8 - Interview Consent Form



RESEARCH INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM

The Teacher Journey Research Project

Andrew Francis (axf130@bham.ac.uk)
Doctoral Student
University of Birmingham

Please Initial Box

- | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|--|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. | I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the study and have had the opportunity to ask questions. | <input type="checkbox"/> | | | | |
| 2. | I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason. | <input type="checkbox"/> | | | | |
| 3. | I agree to take part in the above study. | <input type="checkbox"/> | | | | |
| 4. | I agree to the interview being audio recorded. | <input type="checkbox"/> | | | | |
| 5. | I would like a summary of the interview notes. | <table border="0"><tr><td>Yes</td><td>No</td></tr><tr><td><input type="checkbox"/></td><td><input type="checkbox"/></td></tr></table> | Yes | No | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Yes | No | | | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | | | | | |
| 6. | I would like a summary of the findings once the research is complete. | <table border="0"><tr><td><input type="checkbox"/></td><td><input type="checkbox"/></td></tr></table> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | | | | | |

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Name of Researcher

Date

Signature

Appendix 9 - Example of Interview Transcription

(I = Interviewer, R = Respondent, [inaudible] denotes missing word(s) and 3 dots ... denotes the person did not finish what they were saying or were interrupted by another speaker).

- I I'd like to encourage you to talk about your experiences and influences regarding what I'm going to call your teacher journey, OK? So, and for ease I want to break that into a number of stages or phases of your teacher journey, where you've got to where you are today, and what has influenced and shaped that? So the first stage I'm interested in is the stage from infancy to adulthood, OK?
- R Right.
- I So from being a kid right up to the point of becoming a teacher but not actually being a teacher. So I'd like you to talk to me about experiences and encounters that you had in those early years that may have led you to teaching. Let's start with a rather classic one, which is parents and family, so, how about that?
- R It's the last thing in a million years anyone would have expected.
- I What?
- R Me to be a teacher.
- I Oh, okay. You've leapt ahead a bit. And why do you say that?
- R Just wasn't on the radar in any sort of conversation or...
- I Can you expand on that a bit more then?
- R Get out of school, get a job, I wasn't encouraged to go to university, was nothing, you know, wasn't even mentioned, wasn't even considered.
- I Why do you think that is?
- R Just from, I don't know, just who we were really, it was...
- I OK, well, tell me a bit more about that if you don't mind.
- R Well we just needed to get out of school and get a job and that's how our family works.
- I OK, so I'll probe a bit. Your parents, what type of education did your parents have?
- R One left school with nothing, one left school with something, so mum was like a hairdresser with no qualifications. Dad did work in London, nothing fancy but no sort of degree or anything like that, he was, and it was all about sort of work, work, work. I had part-time jobs from like 11 years old, so that was more of a working ethos than an academic one.
- I OK, so the focus was more like get out to work...
- R Just get through school and get out and get a job.
- I Oh, get through school?
- R Yeah, yeah. They weren't at all disappointed (laughs) when I walked out with, you know, pretty much failed half of everything, sort of, OK, well you know, job time, get a job.
- I And might they have influenced you in any way...

- R What to be a teacher?
- I Yeah?
- R No (laughs). No, God, they were, everyone's as shocked as anything at, you know, 20, 25 when the first, it was only someone I worked with was saying about me, you know, it was an offhanded comment, "Oh you'd make a good teacher," that was it, that's the only thing. And I liked my science teacher at school and then I didn't misbehave in her lessons, she was the only one (laughs) I behaved in, and it was my science teacher at school that gave me passion for science, I still didn't do brilliantly in it, but I always liked it. But no, nobody until I was 25 ever, wouldn't have considered my, crossing my mind being a teacher.
- I Tell me about school?
- R I left school at 16 with minimal, well it was, yeah, GCSEs and got a job. God I'm going back now, I used to work for XXXXXXXXXX then, just literally just in production, just, you know, packing pills in pots and, I don't know, I was quite good at it and was quite good with some of the machinery and I'm very organised, that sort of thing. And XXXXXXXXXX being what it was said, "Oh, you know, would you like to do a qualification?" And I'm like, "No, you're having a laugh, I couldn't study anymore." And they was like, "Go for it," so I ended up doing a BTEC over two years, all part-time, in XXXX. So that was one day a week in XXXX, four days a week working. And I did really, and I really enjoyed it and, not that I'm massively academic because I'm not but it was, it was like oh, you know, actually I can do this whereas at school they just wanted to get rid of us, you know, we were a special nightmare year group as well, so I think they just wanted us gone...
- I You didn't enjoy it then?
- R Didn't really enjoy it. A few great teachers at secondary school, well, one for sure. Primary school was okay. I suppose secondary school and science classes were the best thing.
- I You had a good science teacher at school?
- R Yeah I liked her, the way she taught and I liked science because of her but it would never had crossed my mind then about me being a science teacher...
- I Perhaps we'll talk a bit more about school later. So after school, you go to college...
- R Yeah, it was really hard, really hard work but I kept thinking I can do this. And also, you know, not wanting to let down the company. I wasn't the only one they offered this to so I think probably, you know, competition, because some of the others were like clever as well, so maybe a bit, I was quite driven to do it on my own then. And still, teaching was never considered, it's only...I used to do a lot of, I suppose you'd almost call it teaching, mentoring, you know, with anyone new coming in... In my job, it might have only been putting pills in pots but there was a lot more, you know, the whole process...
- I Okay...
- R Yeah, and I didn't even realise I was doing it, you know, because we were getting bigger and bigger and bigger, our department, and we sort of started off with four of us and it ended up with about 50 of us and a lot of the time I was involved in training them, I suppose. And it was literally an offhand comment by, again a manager that I didn't always particularly get on with, she, you know, and she had a degree and she was really clever and, you know, total opposite of me or who I thought I was and it was her comment that, you know, "You'd make a really good teacher," that then, thought oh, OK...
- I This was part way through the BTEC or...?
- R No, I'd finished the BTEC and she said, "You need to do a degree," they then said, "We'll sponsor you to do a degree."

- I OK.
- R I did loads of A-Level revision, sort of taught myself some stuff and that really helped. And also what really helped is that I was on the part-time, it was one day a week and I was working with a group of people that, some of them were quite like me, that weren't, you know, didn't have A-Levels, weren't from that sort of traditional academic background and we really supported each other.
- I Yes.
- R So, I did my degree part-time for five years.
- I So let me take you on a slightly different direction, so, and I've got here my question, can you recall your original aspirations and hopes regarding entering teaching as a career?
- R Do you know what, I think, my, the biggest thing was I remember when I got this job in a school so I was working four days as an unqualified teacher and they threw me in at the deep end teaching and that's fine, and I coped and you know, was just, well just about coping but it was all OK. And then I went into this room and I went to sit in observation of this teacher that was probably my age that I am now, so she'd been teaching all her life, had the degree, you know, seemed like completely opposite to where I've come from and I watched her, she was with a load of bottom set kids and she couldn't teach them. And I sat there and I thought, I could do that a million times better. And that I think was the turning point that made me the sort of teacher that I am. So it was seeing someone doing it, seeing someone paid a lot of money, who complete opposite from me, doing it badly and letting the kids down.
- I What you're telling me, by the sounds of it, gave you the belief that you could do it?
- R Oh God, yeah.
- I But let's go back, just one step. Why did you become a teacher in the first place?
- R Yeah, just to, you know, get a job for life I suppose really. And yeah, to have a plan for once and to have a decent job with decent money that would fit in around kids and, you know, yeah, that was it really. I didn't all of a sudden wake up and have this burning thing, oh I need to be a teacher, I've got to teach, I've got to teach, I'm born to do this, because I didn't really 100% get it until I was actually doing it and saw other people doing it badly. That's when my passion kicked in.
- I Did you look beyond teaching as a career based in the classroom? Did you have any other aspirations?
- R Oh God, no. No, no, to be a head teacher or a like head of department? God, no. I didn't even get those things existed until I went into a school, obviously head teachers you know, but no, I didn't go in thinking, I really would love to be a head of year or anything like that, no, I just wanted, I don't know, it's almost like I can't explain it, it's almost like it's fate and I was meant to be a teacher and it was, things just fell into place and it happened.
- I Let me ask the same sort of question in a different way and then we'll move on. What, looking back, what did you hope to achieve from being a teacher?
- R I think a secure job for life really. And I knew the money was a bit rubbish at first but I knew it went up to being OK. And I suppose even the holidays in a way because I was working, you know, three jobs at the time, I was just exhausted all the time, you know, even back then and I think the holidays had quite an appeal to it as well, having that time off to sort of do whatever.
- I OK, right so let's move onto the next stage. The second phase which is about the phase from your entry into teaching, pretty much until today.
- R Yeah.

- I So give me a potted history of the key stages or phases in your career, teaching career to date.
- R Yeah, so I was at my first school for four years and I trained there in XXXXXXXX, and very much like this school but not as good. I loved the training. And again it literally was from the first observations with these teachers, you know, that couldn't teach these kids and they were fantastic with top set and I was useless because my confidence was really low and the kids were cleverer than me and I didn't like it, but the bottom set kids, who were written off, I worked with and they got amazing qualifications and I loved that and I loved the fact that I had helped...
- I So adding value?
- R Yeah, totally, and I had, I could build relationships with kids really easily, I can do it to this day, give me any kid that's whatever, and they will work with me. And sort of felt that the work I did with these kids, not just getting their qualifications but, you know, being a teacher that's there for them, you know, especially if they were in my form or whatever, they, it had an impact through the rest of the school, so I sort of have quite a magic touch with these kids and it helped out. And that's what I love and that's what I sort of grew better and better and better at. And then I went to, and then anyway I left because we got a new head of department and she was a bit of a cow to be honest, she was a bit younger and would come in all guns blazing which was not how she should have handled us so loads left. So I went to another school in XXXXX. I was there a year and a bit. And then this school, I knew were looking for teachers and I loved the sound of the deputy and the head teacher, and they were offering this vocational course which is my passion, the vocational science. And I rung them up and said, "I'd like to meet you, I think I'd like to work for you, I'm really unhappy where I am." So I turned up one night, had a chat with XXXX, had a look round, looked at the course and I thought, yeah, and I said to him, you know, "What sort of kids is, will I be working with?" And he said, "Well, these kids that no one else wants to work with." And I said, "Well, that's what I want," you know. But I was really very, very careful before I sort of accepted the job here or, you know, because I thought I've jumped out of the fire into the frying pan and I don't want to do it again. And in my interview, because I had loads of, you know, I came in formally and all of that but you have to have a proper interview and in my interview I said, "I do not do A-Level, I do not do top set, I'm not interested in promotion, I just want to work, teaching these kids vocational science, getting them a qualification so they can get into colleges and they can, you know, have a science qualification," and that's what I've been doing.
- I Interesting. So, right, let me ask a few other things, I'm trying to build up a picture of the most influential factors to date in your teaching journey?
- R Factors, can that be people?
- I Yes, it can be anything.
- R XXXX, for definite, he's just really, really influenced me.
- I XXXX is the deputy head?
- R Yes and the head teacher...he's also science teacher and he's brilliant, he's really influenced me. The head teacher's really influenced me. The kids here have really influenced me, really, you know, made me try and do everything, each year everything's getting better and better and better, you know, in my planning, preparation, delivery of lessons, because I want the best for these kids. I think it is a real drive for me to help the kids and I know that they've got this big battle to get into a decent college course or to get into sixth form, that influences me to sort of do my best.
- I OK. I'm trying to get an idea of how you see the teacher role, you alluded to it a bit already but, can you describe for me how you see it, the teacher role, what's it about?
- R What, to be a classroom teacher?

- I Yes.
- R You need to know your subject, you need to be hard-working, you need to pretty much always put the kids first and do your best for them. Be there for the kids, the teacher role's much more than just about being in the classroom, you have to, well we have so much pressure from above, you know, with results, so it's being able to handle that pressure...
- I What else?
- R Motivating the kids and commitment...I'm very committed to the kids, I'm very committed to, you know, Dennis as the head teacher and his beliefs, not necessarily committed to the science department because I don't rate everything that they do in the science department pretty much. But yeah, it's about the kids, I'm here for the kids, not for sort of anybody else and because I sort of know, it's like about, I know, you know, going back, it's brought it all back really, when I was at school they didn't care about us, they seriously didn't care about us, they literally were, you're all going to get pregnant or be hairdressers, just hurry up, we were such a horrible year group, hurry up and go...
- I This was the teachers at your school?
- R Yeah, they were very negative. And like, you know, that, when I became a teacher I had to re-do my GCSE in maths to get a C because my teachers didn't bother with us, so I'm very negative to them now.
- I So those teachers inspired you but in the non-standard way would you say?
- R They've inspired me to be a really good teacher and to get my best for the kids, now, now that I'm a teacher. When I look back and think, they really did, didn't give a shit about us, they didn't.
- I Back to you as a teacher and your teacher role, You've stayed in the classroom not everyone does. Some teachers take on a leadership role?
- R I have to be a leader with the kids, you know, even when I'm terrified and stressed out as I am now, I have to be the leader, the one in charge, the one that they know has, everything's under control, Miss is in charge, she's our leader, she knows what she's doing, you know, I have to be a leader with my kids, big time. Even when I'm shaking inside and standing up there sometimes thinking, oh my God, oh my God, oh my God, I have to be, they can't see that, so that, I have to have that leadership confidence and ability to lead them.
- I Right, OK. Let's move on. So this part of the interview's going to look at your relationship with your line manager.
- R Oh God, OK.
- I Don't forget, it's all anonymous.
- R Any of my line managers?
- I Yes. What is your perception of you in relation to your line manager?
- R I've never really thought about it. To be honest with you, I'm not on her radar, not important. Well on paper, she's above me obviously...I make my own decisions, she makes her own decisions. Or she'll tell me or us that's what's going to happen. I couldn't tell you a time she's sat down with me and had a conversation with me about something that needs doing, and we've come to an agreement together. I'll either decide how I'm going to do things and tell her or she'll decide how she's going to do things and tell me.

- I OK. That can't always work, can it, can't...? How about if she tells you how to do something or you get an instruction, this is how it's going to be and you don't want it to be like that?
- R I go and strop to XXXX (laughs).
- I So, to be clear, you would challenge decisions?
- R Yes, I do challenge, yeah.
- I Tell me about that?
- R Oh, I just go above her head. I just don't rate her. She doesn't inspire me or, you know, she has favourites and the ones that aren't her favourites she stays out our way. I think she's quite intimidated by me as...
- I Is it a big department, are there a lot of staff?
- R Yeah, there are 9 teaching staff, 2 technicians, so 11. But I don't need her to do my job. I don't need to be having weekly meetings with her about this, this or this. I can do my job with my eyes shut. Yeah, because she wants results and I get them, yeah. I just don't rate her so if I'm coming across as quite negative, I just feel she's very, you know, I think managers, and I've had some fantastic ones in time and that's why, you know, I do go to XXXX for quite a lot of things because he is fantastic. I just think you should be, you know, coming and checking on your department at least once a week, "Are you OK? Can I do anything?" you know, there's lots going on, I'm running this, running that, running that, and you'll never see her pop over and check out things and, you know. But I'm sure she's a very good head of department, we get the results.
- I Do you need leading and managing?
- R Not with what I do, no. Not from the immediate line manager, no. I can do it all with my eyes shut now. I have more conversations with heads of year than I do with my own head of department. And it's not that we dislike each other...A lot of the time they will know that, it's like, you know, today, and yesterday there's a couple of kids that have been naughty in the school and they need to put, they need to isolate them so they will, they tend, not always stick them with me but if I see them coming it's normally because they want something, so sometimes I hide.
- I Do you consider yourself part of a team?
- R The whole school, definitely, but not the XXXX department.
- I Are you a team player?
- R 60% of the time and if I've got a decent head of department, I would do anything. If I've got a lazy one that's got favourites, then no, not interested.
- I How would you describe the level of independence that you have in your role?
- R 100%.
- I So you've stayed in the classroom... Not all teachers do that. I want to talk a little bit more about that this...
- R Because I love it. I tell you there's a good few reasons why I stay in the classroom. One, because I love it, I love working with these kids, I like being there for these kids and doing all of that, and the other one of the main reasons, or the, probably most important reason I've never gone for promotion is because I'd probably be quite shit at it, I would be and...
- I Why do you think that?

- R Managing people, I can manage kids, managing people's different...I don't want to manage people.
- I Could you do it any better yourself - be the Boss?
- R No way, not in a million years. I'd end up either being so nice to everybody that I did all their work for them or completely rowing and falling out with all of them to the extent that none of them would work for me. I've not got the personality to be a leader, head of department, or even a head of year [loud mobile phone] [inaudible] I'm all pastoral...
- I There's nothing about you just simply not believing you could do it?
- R Oh and my confidence as well, definitely, I can be the most unconfident person there is.
- I 14 years, are you not starting to get a clue that perhaps you could do it or sense that you could do it?
- R No.
- I You still don't think you could?
- R No, no way. You give me another 50 grand and I would not want to do it. Look, I love what I do in the classroom.
- I Tell me again, why you have decided against a formal leadership career?
- R Because I'd be shit at it. I need to be with my kids, my kids need me.
- I Right, OK.
- R I'd be rubbish at it and it would take me away from what I do best and what I love so that's why.
- I Right, that's a perfect answer. Now, so just to finish, have you got any questions for me?
- R No.
- I In which case, thanks - you have been my first interviewee and you were great!

[END OF TRANSCRIPTION]

Appendix 10 - Interview Question Schedule

Interview Questions	Possible Prompts	Possible Probes
I'd like you to talk to me about the experiences and encounters in your early years that may have led you into teaching? Why might you have become the teacher you have?	Influence of: Parents/Family? Education? Significant others? Work? Society? Period in History; Culture? Religion?	Educational experience and 'vocation v leadership' stance of parents/family/sig others?
Can you recall your why you entered teaching?	Strategic/serendipity? Opportunities? Leadership aspirations? Vocation?	
What were your original aspirations and hopes regarding teaching as a career? What did you hope to achieve from becoming a teacher?	Career? Promotion? Satisfaction - How?	
Can you take me through the key stages or phases of your teaching career to date? How has your career progressed?	Jobs and roles? Key time periods? Significant events? Why?	
What would you describe as the most influential factors to date in your teacher journey?	Impact of significant others? Sponsors?	
Can you describe the teacher role for me, as you see it?	Self-image? Job motivation? Perception of role?	Commitment? Competence? Decision-making?
Please tell me about your relationship with your HoD/line manager?	How do you see your role in relation to your HoD/line manager? Do you make any decisions jointly? Can you/do you challenge decisions made? Do you need leading/managing? Are you part of a team? Are your talents recognised? What do you do together?	Perception - subordinate? Degree of independence? Level of supervision? Concern with commitment to orgl objectives? Team player?
You've stayed in the classroom - not all teachers do - can you tell me about that? You hold a L role - tell me about it?	Leadership aspirations or not? Always this intention? Tried but didn't enjoy? Never appointed? Future aspirations re: leadership?	How do you feel about this?

Appendix 11 - Dissemination of Research

Francis, A. (2014). *The Follower Positioning of Secondary School Teachers*. Paper presented to BELMAS Annual Conference, Stratford-upon-Avon, 11th-13th July, 2014.

Francis, A. (2014). *Followership among UK Secondary School Teachers*. Paper presented to International Followership Symposium, San Diego, 30th October, 2014.

Francis, A. (2014) *Followership among secondary school teachers*. Paper presented to School of Education Doctoral Research Conference, Birmingham, 29th November, 2014.

Francis, A. (2014). Followership among UK Secondary School Teachers. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 13(4).

Sept 2015 - I have received notification that a jointly prepared case study has been accepted for publication in the forthcoming book - *Followership in Action: Cases and Commentaries*, to be published by Emerald Group Publishing:

Bisschoff, T. and Francis, A. (in press) *Followership in Service Organisations: An English Secondary School Case of Distributed Leadership*.