

Active Followership: An Essential Component of the Teacher-Principal Relationship

by

Robert Darwin Nigel Ammon
B.Ed., University of Victoria, 2005

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in the Department of Educational Psychology and Leadership Studies

© Robert Ammon, 2013
University of Victoria

All rights reserved. This thesis may not be reproduced in whole or in part, by photocopy
or other means, without the permission of the author.

Supervisory Committee

Active Followership: An Essential Component of the Teacher-Principal Relationship

by

Robert Darwin Nigel Ammon
B. Ed., University of Victoria, 2005

Supervisory Committee

Dr. Carolyn Crippen, (Department of Educational Psychology and Leadership Studies)
Supervisor

Dr. Tatiana Gounko, (Department of Educational Psychology and Leadership Studies)
Departmental Member

Abstract

Supervisory Committee

Dr. Carolyn Crippen, (Department of Educational Psychology and Leadership Studies)

Supervisor

Dr. Tatiana Gounko, (Department of Educational Psychology and Leadership Studies)

Departmental Member

Arguably, the leadership demonstrated by a school principal determines the success of an educational organization, a school. This viewpoint, grounded in literature, maintains that the role of a leader (school principal) determines the effectiveness of followers (teachers). While accurate, this premise does not consider the role of followers to influence the significance of the leader. Therefore, it is appropriate to examine the teacher-principal relationship from the perspective of the follower. Specifically, what motivates teachers to follow a school principal? A qualitative research design was employed; data collection consisted of interviews, a questionnaire and survey, where a limited number of semi-structured open-ended questions were posited. Conclusively, the study identified an *exemplary followership style* as predominant among participants (followers), and several specific and general *professional qualities* and *personal characteristics*, expected and modeled by principals (leaders). Collectively, style, criteria, and rationale established that active followership is an essential component of the teacher-principal relationship.

Table of Contents

Supervisory Committee	ii
Abstract	iii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
Acknowledgments	x
Dedication	xi
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Personal Philosophy	1
Educational Philosophy	2
Professional Philosophy	4
Research Background	6
Research Problem	7
Research Purpose	7
Research Questions	8
Definition of Terms	8
Personal Significance	9
Educational Significance	10
Professional Significance	10
Research Framework	11
Research Objectives	11
Chapter 2: Literature Review	13
Evolution of Leadership	13
Pre-Bureaucratic	14
Great Man Theory	14
Trait Theory	14
Bureaucratic	16
Post-Bureaucratic	17
George Elton Mayo (1880-1949)	18
Abraham Maslow (1908-1970)	18
Frederick Herzberg (1923-2000)	19
Behavioural	19
Chester Irving Barnard (1886-1916)	20
Douglas McGregor (1906-1964)	20
Situational/Contingency	23
Paul Hersey (1931-2012) and Ken Blanchard (1939-Present)	23
Fred Fielder (1922-Present)	24
Transactional	25
Transformational	26
James MacGregor Burns (1918-Present)	26
Servant Leadership	29
Robert K. Greenleaf (1904-1990)	31

Followership in Perspective.....	33
Followers.....	34
Followership.....	34
Leadership-Followership Interrelation.....	37
Followership through Actions.....	38
Followership through Ideals.....	40
Followership through Conditions.....	41
Followership in Context.....	42
Educational Environment.....	43
Teacher-Principal Interrelation.....	44
Teacher Motivation.....	45
Synopsis.....	46
Research Questions.....	47
Chapter 3: Design and Methodology.....	48
Overall Approach and Rationale.....	48
Researcher's Position.....	49
Research Questions.....	49
Selection of Population.....	49
Selection of Participants.....	50
Selection of Site.....	51
Sampling Strategy.....	52
Access to Facility and Participants.....	53
Research Ethics.....	54
Professional Ethics.....	56
Data Collection Methods.....	56
Data Analysis Procedures.....	58
Limitations.....	60
Delimitations.....	60
Trustworthiness and Credibility.....	61
Chapter 4: Findings.....	62
Thematic Description.....	62
Style of Followership.....	62
Followership Style Questionnaire.....	64
Independent, Critical Thinking vs. Dependent, Uncritical Thinking.....	64
Passive vs. Active Behaviours.....	64
Results.....	65
Effective Followership Survey.....	67
Essential Qualities.....	67
Results.....	68
Research Question 1: How do teachers follow?.....	72
Interview Protocol #1 and #2.....	73
Criteria for Followership.....	73
Results.....	73
Supportive.....	74
Decisive.....	74
Communicative.....	75

Research Question 2: Who do teachers follow?	76
Rationale for Followership	77
Results	78
Trust	78
Respect	79
Vision	80
Research Question 3: Why do teachers follow?	81
Structural Description	82
Triangulation Strategy	84
Peer Debriefing	84
Results	85
Member Checking	86
Results	86
Research Questions	88
Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusions	89
Discussion of Findings	89
Research Questions	89
Research Question 1: How do teachers follow?	90
Behavioural Characteristics	90
Exemplary Followership Style	90
Effective Follower	92
Essential Qualities	92
Research Question 2: Who do teachers follow?	93
Professional Qualities	93
Specific	93
General	96
Research Question 3: Why do teachers follow?	97
Personal Characteristics	97
Specific	97
General	100
Limitations	101
Major Conclusions	102
Style of Followership	102
Criteria for Followership	103
Rationale for Followership	103
Summary	104
Recommendations	105
Practitioners	105
Policy Makers	105
Future Research	106
References	107
Appendix A: Approval for Human Participant Research – University of Victoria	129
Appendix B: Approval to Conduct Research – Victoria High School	130
Appendix C: Interview Protocol #1	131
Appendix D: Followership Style Questionnaire	132
Appendix E: Effective Followership Survey	135

Appendix F: Interview Protocol #2..... 137

List of Tables

Table 1 Participants Results of Followership Style Questionnaire.....	66
Table 2 Participants Results of Effective Followership Survey	69

List of Figures

Figure 1 Thematic Model of Teacher-Principal Followership 63

Acknowledgments

The following individuals represented a new beginning for me, and it is with this in mind that I acknowledge them in no particular order. Ambrose Chu, my first roommate in my undergrad at University of Victoria and without a doubt, my most trusted friend. Michael and Pat Balderston, my very first introduction to Victoria and all it had to offer, thank you for taking a chance. Richard Ammon, you are the preacher, the voice of hope and inspiration, thank you. Roger Ammon, you are the supervisor, the voice of reason and judgement, thank you. Rupert Ammon, you are the advisor, the voice of wisdom and experience, thank you. Dr. Carolyn Crippen, there are not enough words to capture your impact in my life, both personally and professionally. So, I leave you with these few words:

“First to serve, then to lead” (Crippen, 2005). This quote has always spoken to me quite profoundly. I have tried all my life to be an example to others by living a life that honours everyone who I come in contact with. I have learned through the examples of others that the greatest gift that you can give to and receive from others is *time*. I am reminded of the following quote, “A Servant-Leader is neither a martyr nor a co-dependent in implementing the growth of others. He or she is tough-minded, compassionate and a wise *partner* in growth—including his or her own growth and development” (Sipe & Frick, 2009, pp. 40-41).

Thank you Dr. Crippen for your unwavering support throughout this journey!

Dedication

To Muriel Ammon

Chapter 1: Introduction

Personal Philosophy

In July 2000, I moved to Victoria, British Columbia to attend University of Victoria, Bachelor of Education program to become a secondary school teacher, teaching mathematics and physical education. Prior to this decision, I was living a facade created to deal with the countless circumstances confronted over my short life. However, on a hot summers day following a coaching session, I was having a conversation with one of my athletes regarding unfulfilled goals—education, career, relationships, etc. It was at that very moment I realized that I too had not fulfilled my goals and full potential. I remembered quite vividly saying to the athlete, “you have to decide what type of person you want to be, someone who is willing to do the work necessary to achieve their goals, or someone who just talks about their goals.” I literally heard myself saying these words and in that moment, I knew that my perspective had changed forever. It is no exaggeration to state that these words had profoundly altered my life and would significantly influence my leadership style. Even though we are each faced with numerous circumstances in our life that assist in shaping us as human beings, we all have choices to make. My personal philosophy is anchored on a belief that we are not defined by our circumstances; it is our actions that define us. Arguably, my “actions” as a leader and a follower were meaningfully changed on that hot summer day.

Both *leadership* and *followership* (see definitions p. 8) relate specifically to the way I choose to influence others. I believe that to be an effective leader, one must lead by example—you must be a role model. Categorically, my entire life is a lesson of “*learn by example*”, where each circumstance is an opportunity to acquire the requisite

skill-sets necessary to “*lead by example*”. These requisite skill-sets were not acquired unconsciously, but necessitated active participation throughout the acquisition process. In addition, my early family influences, notably my grandmother, provided the foundation, which continued to define my leadership style, specifically the qualities of a leader. Of course, to learn by example, one must have the capacity to follow what is being modeled and to instill in others what has been acquired—*first to follow, then to lead*.

Undoubtedly, the legacy of my life is a testament of the choices that I have made. It has not been determined exclusively by the various circumstances that I have experienced or by the numerous social influences that I have encountered, but instead by my actions. Consequently, it is my belief that to be an effective leader, an aspiring servant-leader (see definition p. 9), one must model examples of leadership and followership predicated on a foundation of actions. Simply stated, *what you do, determines who you are*.

Educational Philosophy

In June 2004, I selected a full-year (Internship) teaching practicum to complete my Bachelor of Education degree—teaching areas included mathematics and physical education at the secondary level (grade 9 to 12). The principal at Victoria High School (Vic High) chose me from among numerous applicants based on, what I would find out later was, my *fit for the school*. As life circumstances dictated, I would remain at Vic High following my teaching practicum and through to the present. While Vic High contributed significantly to my current educational ideology, it was in June 2010 that I decided to apply to University of Victoria, Department of Education Psychology and

Leadership Studies (EPLS), to complete a Master of Arts degree in Leadership Studies. In so doing, I was challenged to consider the role of a leader in context of a secondary school setting.

Starratt's (2011) moral dimensions of *human resource development* (see definition p. 8) correspond well with the very foundation of my educational leadership philosophy. Specifically, authenticity, presence, and responsibility (both individually and collectively) contributed meaningfully to transforming *present learners* into *future leaders*. Throughout my dealings with learners, I tried to demonstrate a level of authenticity that exemplified honesty and integrity, virtues I cherished. Attention was focused on what was said, how it was said, and to whom it was said. Ultimately, my goal was to always be positive and to challenge all learners to do the same. "In teaching, being an authentic teacher involves the following competencies: a good understanding of the material being taught, a professional mastery of a variety of pedagogical strategies, as well as caring relationships with learners" (Starratt, 2011, p. 91).

Of equal importance was being present, which I know now how extremely important and necessary this virtue was to engendering the success of all learners. Accordingly, I strived to affirm and enable all learners, acknowledging their many talents through building of relationships, and encouraging their willingness to come with me on the journey of *learning in context*. Intentionally, I provided my *time* and honoured them by *listening* to what they had to say. Furthermore, I was purposeful in my criticisms, seeking to develop, in all learners, the skill-set of always asking questions, no matter what. "An enabling presence communicates both a respect for the other, as well as a

confidence that the other already may have the answer they are seeking, but needs to explore its dimensions more explicitly” (Starratt, 2011, p. 96).

Lastly, the virtue of responsibility, as it pertains to the profession of education, calls all teachers to be proactive not reactive in the process of learning. Acknowledging that teaching was my calling required of me a commitment to inspire in all young learners the capacity to create opportunities—*be the change you want to see in the world*. “The kind of community that can be formed by a culture of authenticity, presence, and responsibility can itself be a form of teaching that young learners absorb and imitate in their own relationships” (Starratt, 2011, p. 104).

Professional Philosophy

In January 2011, I began the journey to complete a Master of Arts in Leadership Studies. At the time, I had absolutely no intention of pursuing a professional role related to education administration. In fact, I was quite adamant that under no circumstance would I consider becoming a school administrator (principal or vice principal). Besides, the sole purpose of completing an advanced degree was to prepare for a future as a motivational speaker, following my teaching career. However, as life often teaches us many lessons, some necessary, and some not entirely evident, I began to entertain the possibility of applying for the position of secondary school principal. As I continued to deliberate such a premise, I found myself pondering my beliefs regarding the role of the leader within the context of an education organization, a school. It occurred to me that the role of a secondary school principal required someone who possessed all of the attributes associated with the intentions of public education as outlined by the Ministry of Education: a) reflecting on the past, b) realizing the present, and c) influencing the future.

First, reflecting on the past assists in being thoughtful and informed when making decisions. Second, realizing the present allows for thorough analysis and deliberate problem solving. Third, influencing the future requires foresight and a keen awareness of the decisions that have been made and that are being contemplated.

While these attributes are important, leadership, followership, and service also have significant influence in the success of a secondary school principal. Leadership provides the opportunity to influence the lives of each and every person that you may encounter, followership promotes collaboration and allows you to learn from others and in certain contexts to teach others, and service addresses the highest calling of all. For it is through our interactions with others, that we realize the very person that we will become; therefore, to be an aspiring secondary school principal, one must first be an aspiring servant-leader—*first walking the talk, then talking the talk*.

Unquestionably, the numerous courses that have been completed in preparation for my Master's thesis have suggestively framed my perspective regarding the type of leader I aspire to be. However, of particular influence were several courses related to the philosophy of servant-leadership. It is without exaggeration that I acknowledge the importance that this philosophy of leadership has had on my personal and professional life. It was as if I had been reacquainted with an old friend, someone I had known for a lifetime but could not quite remember his or her name, an "Aha!" moment, to quote Oprah. According to Sipe and Frick (2009), "Many who have embraced the fusion of servant and leader say they do so simply because "Servant-Leader" describes who they already are deep down..." (pp. 1-2). The preceding encapsulates the very essence of my realizations following the very first day that I was introduced to the term *servant-leader*.

According to Robert K. Greenleaf, “The first and most important choice a leader makes is the choice to serve, without which one’s capacity to lead is severely limited” (Sipe & Frick, 2009, p. 1). Therefore, as I aspired to be a servant-leader, I found myself pondering the significance of the follower and their *motivation* (see definition p. 8) to follow. Kellerman (2008) concluded, “The followers’ readiness to be so motivated—depends on the leader’s ability to ‘behave in a way that exemplifies the values and ideals that are shared by the groups they lead’ (Haslam & Platow, 2001)” (p. 72). Quite poignantly, Riggio, Chaleff, and Lipman-Blumen’s (2008) *The Art of Followership* included an introduction by Warren Bennis which declared, “Indeed, the moment when each of us realizes he or she is mostly a follower, not a leader, is a genuine developmental milestone...” (p. xxiii).

Research Background

An organization’s success is often influenced by the effectiveness of its leader. Within the context of a school setting, the principal occupies this role. Currently, there exists a viewpoint that an effective leader empowers others (Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Burns, 1978). In fact, there are numerous studies that have focused on the role of a school principal from a leadership perspective, specifically their ability to lead teachers (Lipham, 1981; Wolcott, 1973); however, in order to lead, one must have individuals willing to follow. Arguably, a teacher’s willingness to follow is essential to a principal’s effectiveness as a leader. At present, there is no research that has examined the teacher-principal relationship from the perspective of the follower. So, perhaps the question of principal’s leadership should be examined from the perspective of teacher’s followership. Precisely, *what motivates teachers to follow a school principal?*

Research Problem

The current discourse as it relates to the effectiveness of a school principal has focused on the characteristic of leadership. As a result, numerous researchers have defined leadership as the behaviour of directing a group through interpersonal influence where the initiation of interaction between persons was viewed as being authentic (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Jacobs, 1970; Janda, 1960; Kochan, Schmidt, & DeCotiis, 1975; Stogdill, 1974; Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961). While this definition emphasizes the actions of the leader, it neglects to consider the contributions of the follower. Nonetheless, several researchers have described followership as a process of attaining one's goal through being influenced, where participation is motivated by accomplishing some greater common purpose (Heller & Van Til, 1982; Hollander & Webb, 1955; Howell & Costley, 2006; Kelley, 1988; Townsend & Gebhardt, 1997; Wortman, 1982). According to this description, the follower has to have some reason in order to follow thereby contributing to the leader's ultimate success or lack thereof. Therefore, the inter-reliant relationship between the leader (a school principal) and the follower (a teacher), and the often-neglected importance of the follower's role in this relationship defines the research problem as a *willingness to follow*—teacher self-interest.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand what motivates teachers to follow a school principal? The analysis of this study was conducted through the theoretical perspective of followership. At this point in the research, followership will be defined as “the ability to effectively follow the directives and support the efforts of a

leader to maximize a structured organization” (Bjugstad, Thach, Thompson, & Morris, 2006, p. 304).

Research Questions

This qualitative study endeavoured to answer the following research questions:

1. How do teachers follow?
2. Who do teachers follow?
3. Why do teachers follow?

Definition of Terms

In order to assist the reader to better understand this qualitative study, a list of terms and their definitions are included:

Followership – “The ability to effectively follow the directives and support the efforts of a leader to maximize a structured organization” (Bjugstad et. al., 2006, p. 304).

Human Resource Development – “The core work of the educational enterprise, and therefore should be the primary focus of educational leadership” (Starratt, 2011, p. xiv).

Leadership – “An influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (Rost, 1993, p. 102).

Motivation – “The complex forces, incentives, needs, tensions and other mechanisms which energise, canalise and sustain human behaviour to carry out a particular action” (Drafke & Kossen, 1998, p. 273).

Servant-Leader – “The servant-leader is servant first... It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead....” (Greenleaf, 1970, p. 7).

21st Century Learner – “A multi-tasker that uses sound and images to convey content whenever possible. Text, the primary medium of traditional academics, is tolerated only when the technology does not (yet) support something better” (Rodgers, Runyon, Starrett, & Von Holzen, 2006, p. 1).

Personal Significance

The personal significance of this research relates to my goal to continue graduate studies toward completing a Ph.D. It was hoped that some valuable inferences would be garnered from the study of the teacher-principal relationship, which would then be applied to future inquiry related to additional leader-follower relationships. Furthermore, the results that emerged from this investigation would be used to better situate future research questions related to students’ motivation to follow a teacher. It was not my contention to interpret these two educational interrelations as equally comparable; however, given that each shared the same contextual environment, there could be useful outcomes that would inform future research among similar constituents. In addition, it was anticipated that some valuable insights into the phenomena of followership would contribute significantly to my current understanding of the Servant Leadership philosophy (Greenleaf, 1970).

Educational Significance

It is hoped that this research will lay a theoretical foundation for future investigations, allowing for the implementation of identified motivators in additional educational relationships: teacher-parent, teacher-teacher, and teacher-counsellor. Furthermore, this research would provide school districts additional opportunities to develop strategies that solicit these motivators through professional development. Finally, research results would be expected to contribute to a better understanding of the teacher-principal relationship, clarifying the perspective of the teacher as a follower, and enhancing the perception of the teacher as a leader, a servant-leader (Greenleaf, 1970).

Professional Significance

The professional implication of this research was premised on the desire to add to the understanding and discussion associated with the educational needs of the 21st century learner (see definition p. 9). Within the current educational construct, students' needs are centred on their ability to implement personalized educational plans. It was postulated that the scholastic requirements of this cohort were rather unique, requiring greater emphasis on followership competencies, in my estimation. Furthermore, contemporary students were presumed to require, through personalized learning strategies, additional skill-sets to effectively demonstrate expertise in both academic and social milieus. Additionally, contemporary teachers are presumed tasked with providing the necessities outlined to ultimately impact and facilitate students' success. Obviously, teachers are trained professionals and it is in their job description to follow a school principal who represents the school board and ultimately the public at large. Therefore, if this research can identify what motivates teachers to follow a school principal, then it was

hoped that these identified skill-sets might be then applied to students in an effort to encourage learned leadership through followership, and it is my hope to pursue this thinking in further research.

Research Framework

As an educational researcher, I was specifically curious about the *motivation* associated with teachers' professional work. My research approach was based on the premise that all realities are constructed by the choices that we make and by the experiences that we encounter. Therefore, by employing a social constructivist worldview, I sought to understand what motivates teachers to do what they do. By focusing on what motivates teachers, a level of complexity was inherent and expected based on the numerous perspectives established through unique professional experiences. The interview research questions posed were broad, general, and open-ended, providing the opportunity for participants to construct their own meanings negotiated both socially and historically. These suppositions, while subjective, were not predetermined and did not result from any shared experiences and interactions, but instead flow from individuals' interpretations of their lived experiences. To clarify, I assumed that all experiences related to human interactions were influential; however, each person, beyond these experiences, formulates opinions that could be intellectually based, absent of first-hand experiences and unique to the individual. In the literature review, I will address this through the works of (Kellerman, 2008; Kelley, 1992).

Research Objectives

Additionally, I was interested in the *process* of the interaction between teachers and a school principal because these interactions help to establish the norm that is the

teacher-principal relationship. Therefore, by investigating teachers in their natural environment (a school setting) it was assumed that greater insights related to their personal views would occur—environment matters. As a point of clarification, I recognized that as a teacher, any interpretation of the data collected would be influenced by my prior knowledge of the teaching environment and profession as a whole. However, I chose to view this as a positive because it allowed me to decode the data collected more authentically. Moreover, my goal was to relay teachers' interpretation of the teacher-principal relationship as honestly as possible. To establish empirical consistency, I analyzed the data collected through a theoretical perspective—*followership*. As well, by employing a social constructivist worldview, I made the following assumptions: (a) as teachers engage in their environment, meanings are constructed, (b) constructed meanings are interpreted based on social perspectives, and (c) socially constructed meanings are determined through human interactions (Creswell, 2009).

This chapter presented my personal, educational, and professional philosophy to assist in situating my interest in exploring the research question. In addition, it outlined the background, problem and purpose statements, and research questions succinctly. As well, the personal, professional, and educational significance of the study is included to suggest context to the reader. Finally, an overview of the research framework and objectives are specified to offer a rationale to conduct the research related to the worldview, strategy, and method proposed.

In the next chapter, I have integrated a thorough review of the literature associated with the evolution of leadership, followership in perspective, and followership in context.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter 2 provides a thorough review of the literature and research related to the leader-follower relationship. The chapter will be divided into sections that include (a) evolution of leadership, (b) followership in perspective, and (c) followership in context.

Evolution of Leadership

While there have been countless definitions and theories related to leadership, it could be argued that there is a great deal of duplication among them (Wren, 1995). In fact, Rost (1993) noted that several researchers have been critical of the lack of consistency as it relates to the definition of leadership (Bass, 1981; Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik, 1961). Among the many descriptions of leadership offered, Rost (1993) believed, “leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (p. 102).

Although this definition seeks to address several of the emergent themes related to today’s organizational perspectives, Stone and Patterson (2005) emphasized that there are several transformational elements of organizational perspectives which may be associated to individuals’ feeling of being empowered, encouraged, and supported in their personal and professional growth throughout their careers. If in fact these elements represent a change from the norm of leadership, then it is important to examine what were the factors that influenced and shaped the current perspectives of organizational leadership.

Pre-Bureaucratic

Since the beginning of civilization, leadership has been studied in great depth. Stone and Patterson (2005) stated that work, leaders, leadership, leadership style, and a myriad of other work-related variables have preoccupied these studies for almost two centuries. In fact, throughout the centuries there have been numerous notable individuals who have been assessed through the lens of leadership. The following will provide a brief overview of the most common leadership understandings.

Great Man Theory

In the early part of the 19th century, there were those who postulated that history itself could be attributed to the overwhelming influence of specific individuals, *great men*, who possessed either outstanding personal skill-sets or positions of power through privilege (Carlyle, 1902; Woods, 1913). The *Great Man Theory* sought to position significant historical events in the context of the individuals involved, conjecturing that these *heroes* were inextricably and uniquely responsible literally for the historic outcomes of the era (Carlyle, 1902). In contrast, (Grinin, 2010; Hook, 1943; James, 2005; Spencer, 1896; Tolstoy, 2010) believed that Carlyle's *great men* were simply products of their social environment. In fact, Spencer (1896) stated of *great men*, "before he can re-make his society, his society must make him" (p. 31). Accepting the premise of the *Great Man Theory* leads naturally to consider the characteristics or *traits* associated.

Trait Theory

The *Trait Theory* was primarily interested in identifying characteristics, which Kassin (2003) defined as habitual patterns of behaviour, thought, and emotion. In fact,

traits were thought to display three identifiable characteristics: (a) consistently enduring, (b) differentiates individuals, and (c) impacts behaviour. Furthermore, one of the earliest contributors to *Trait Theory*, Allport (1937) classified *dispositions*, his expression for *traits*, into four distinct categories: (a) central traits—associated with personality, (b) secondary traits—associated with peripheral influences, (c) common traits—associated with cultural norms, and (d) cardinal traits—associated with defining characteristics. While numerous traits have been identified, there exist among researchers an ongoing debate related to the precise number (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Eysenck, 1967, 1991; McCrae & Costa, 1987). However, most trait models included extraversion versus introversion, and neuroticism among their defining constituents of human personality. Specifically, Thompson (2008) described each in the following way: (a) extraversion—outgoing, talkative, energetic behaviour, (b) introversion—reserved, quiet, shy behaviours, and (c) neuroticism—anxiety, moodiness, worry, envy and jealousy.

All trait models, within the leadership perspective context, sought to examine which characteristics were attributed to leaders and could these characteristics be assimilated. Particularly, “(Bernard, 1926; Bingham & Davis, 1927; Kilbourne, 1935; Tead, 1935) all attempted to explain leadership in terms of traits of personality and character” (Polleys, 2002, p. 121). Again, numerous traits were investigated and two significant conclusions were offered: (i) Bird (1940) found that traits were but a single factor influencing leaders; and (ii) Stogdill (1959) agreed with Bird and also determined situational emphases impacted leadership competences. It was clear from these early observations that simply considering *traits* as a predictor of who would make an effective leader was problematic and so the next natural progress was to contemplate the question

of leadership from the perspective of leadership development. Thus, the character traits of the leader became secondary to the principal focus, the role of leader. This fundamental shift in perspective provided the foundation for the next group of researchers to examine leaders in terms of their observed actions.

Bureaucratic

The Industrial Revolution represented a fundamental change in the economy of the America's. As a consequence, the reliance on an agricultural framework was replaced with that of industrial considerations (efficiency, productivity, etc.) Naturally, there was a redefining of the role of leader and follower, whereby the followers "common people" demonstrated greater leverage as a result of their expertise (Clawson, 1999). However, with the mechanization and atomization of such expertise, followers became simply an asset to be managed, creating a hierarchical structure in the process (Morgan, 1997). Contributing to this organizational perspective was Max Weber (1864-1920), a German sociologist, who observed the associations between the repetitiveness of industry with the bureaucratic rudiments of organizations. While Weber's bureaucratic perspective was critical and influential, its impact was minimal with regards to the two most prominent viewpoints of the time, "classical management theory" and "scientific management". Notably, both approaches shared structural components, classical management theory focused on organizational design—*the whole*, while scientific management focused on individual job systemization—*the parts*. In fact, despite Weber's expressed viewpoints, which were in opposition of the bureaucratization of organizations, several theorists supported and contributed significantly to the realization of such an approach (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Morgan, 1997). In addition, Frederick

Taylor (1856-1915), the architect of scientific management, incorporated the characteristics of an engineering background to further formalize the functional components of organizations, efficiency and attention to detail, among them. While classical management theory and scientific management contributed significantly to the organization structure of the time, it is important to note, as stated by Stone and Patterson (2005) that the focus of a leader was on the needs of the organization and not on the individual workers (followers). Morgan (1997) would argue that there was an emphasis on viewing the organization as a machine and not an organism. While there were significant beneficial results associated with this type of leadership, there were important considerations still to be addressed, that of the humans (followers) that were being influenced.

Post-Bureaucratic

While there were significant advantages associated with the hierarchical constructs of classical management theory and scientific management, the middle of the twentieth century facilitated a foundational change in the focus, requiring an acknowledgment of the necessity to integrate both the needs of the management (leaders) and those of the workers (followers). According to Stone and Patterson (2005), researchers such as Mayo, Maslow, and Herzberg, respectively, began to offer insights related to leaders' behaviour and followers' satisfaction situated around organizational productivity and profitability.

George Elton Mayo (1880-1949)

The *Hawthorne Studies* conducted by Mayo highlighted the effect that changes in the work environment had on workers' perceived satisfaction. As previously outlined, there was great emphasis placed on organizational design and systemization of individual jobs with the goal of maximizing profitability; however, it became apparent that the systemization of individual jobs required an absent of concerns surrounding workers' needs. Specifically, Morgan (1997) expressed Frederick Taylor's alleged belief that workers (followers) were simply modifiable parts of the greater machine able to be simply adjusted by management (leaders) as needed. In response to such notions, new theories were postulated which focused on workers and their needs.

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970)

The *Hierarchy of Needs Theory* developed by Maslow sought to illustrate the connection between the intrinsic and extrinsic needs of workers (followers). Maslow (1959) hypothesized that if an individual acquires the most basic of needs (breathing, food, water, sex, sleep, homeostasis, and excretion), then they are more likely (motivated) to strive to achieve and perhaps surpass what is expected. Maslow further conjectured that an individual's productivity was directly linked to two equally important prerequisites, intrinsic and extrinsic needs; given only the former, an individual's motivation would be compromised. Although Maslow's viewpoints were theoretically grounded, others sought to enhance his perspective.

Frederick Herzberg (1923-2000)

The *Motivation-Hygiene or Dual Factor Theory* advanced by Herzberg expanded Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs by also focusing on the intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing workers' satisfaction or dissatisfaction. In fact, Herzberg (1966) investigated factors associated with satisfaction (achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth) and factors associated with dissatisfaction (company policy, supervision, relationship with supervisor, work conditions, salary, and relationship with peers) and concluded that both environmental (physiological) and motivational (psychological) factors impact workers' productivity simultaneously. Furthermore, Herzberg reasoned that if productivity of workers (followers) is the goal, then management (leaders) must meet both their intrinsic and extrinsic needs simultaneously. While these observations may be interpreted as obvious, they represented a continued shift in focus from a bureaucratic to a communicative perspective.

Behavioural

While Mayo, Maslow, and Herzberg's contributed significantly to understanding organizational leadership from the perspective of workers' needs, numerous researchers endeavoured to build upon the leadership perspectives that had been previously articulated (bureaucratic and post-bureaucratic). Consequently, subsequent researchers began to examine the question of organizational leadership through a communicative perspective theoretical framework. Stone and Patterson (2005) outlined the important role both Barnard and McGregor provided in evaluating linkages of a leader's role in a follower's satisfaction and productivity.

Chester Irving Barnard (1886-1916)

The *Functions of the Executive* (1968), authored by Barnard, labeled organizations as mediums of human interactions where executives (leaders) should seek to create environments of “*cooperative social systems*” where workers (followers) can realize their needs thereby increasing both effectiveness and efficiency. Barnard (1968) questioned the sustainability of any organizational structure and offered two contributing factors which he viewed as essential to their longevity: (a) *effectiveness*, described as the applied accomplishing of stated goals, and (b) *efficiency*, defined as the extent to which the motives of individuals can be satisfied. Furthermore, he postulated that in so far as one’s individual (implicit) motives were satisfied, while at the same time realizing an organization’s established (explicit) goals, cooperation among executives (leaders) and workers (followers) would endure. To accomplish this enduring relationship, Barnard advocated both an authority and incentive based approach where the communication system utilized was clear and concise, involving all participants. While these elements are important, others have offered additional viewpoints focused on how needs are met—*human affairs*.

Douglas McGregor (1906-1964)

McGregor developed *Theory X and Theory Y*, both theories of human motivation, in response to emergent theses of management of workers’ needs; specifically, satisfaction of needs equates to enhanced efficiency. According to McGregor (1960), organizational structures are based upon hierarchal configurations and systems of control,

which are designed to influence assumptions grounded in the norms and motivations of human beings. Supporting this premise, McGregor created two theories:

Theory X

Assumed that workers are lazy by nature, will avoid work at all times, and fundamentally do not like work. As a consequence, they require constant supervision and established organizational structures to ensure productivity. Furthermore, incentives must be included to promote compliance of individual jobs and managers must resort to punitive strategies to further ensure adherence of expectations. Finally, if there are any concerns associated with job completion, the characteristics of the worker will be criticized first, rather than examining the system, policies, or preparation afforded the workers. While contemplating the accurateness of *Theory X* and reviewing Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, McGregor concluded that the assumptions expressed were at best generalization and at most inaccurate and contributed to many negative outcomes related to achieving organizational goals—*Theory Y* proposed.

Theory Y

Assumed that workers were ambitious, self-motivated, and capable of demonstrating self-control. As a consequence, they welcome opportunities to articulate their ideas and to participate in the problem-solving elements of their organizations. Furthermore, a genuine desire to do a good job is exhibited by workers resulting in feelings of satisfaction and overall motivation. Managers in this model are more likely to take a supportive role, providing feedback as needed, and offering positive reinforcement often. Finally, the organizational structure prevalent in the *Theory Y* scenario sought to

create a cooperative environment where trust was pervasive, and both managers (leaders) and workers (followers) shared equally in realizing the goals of the organization.

A natural consequence of McGregor's *Theory X and Theory Y*, as they relate to organizational leadership, was a continued shift in perspective of workers as active participants in achieving organizational goals rather than as machines (classical management theory and scientific management). Actually, it could be reasoned that McGregor enhanced the somewhat *traits-based* propositions outline in previously discussed leadership perspectives. Moreover, McGregor's theories served to foster the emerging notion that workers and their needs were much more multifaceted than previously understood. It is this multifaceted component of workers and the response to it that provides the foundation for emerging organizational leadership perspective situated around the interrelationship between managers (leaders) and workers (followers) to cooperatively realized organizational goals. Given Barnard and McGregor's compelling argument regarding the importance of considering the cooperative components of organizational structures, it is important to contemplate how these realizations influenced impending leadership perspectives. In fact, Stone and Patterson (2005) stated that McGregor's work, along with other behaviourist, were perhaps precursors of the transformational leadership perspective. While true, it is important to chronicle the progression of organizational leadership perspectives as they successively occurred. While the current perspective sought to address the complexity of the manager-worker interaction, numerous societal changes influence a continued shift in focus to a conditional perspective.

Situational/Contingency

While behavioural researchers such as Barnard and McGregor have added to the discourse of organizational leadership focused on the leader's perceptions of the follower's motivation, others have dedicated their time to continuing the discussion through analyzing the impact social change had on organizational leadership. Of particular interest were the social changes, which shifted the focus from economic affluence to individual liberties. In fact, the greatest contributor to the shift to a conditional perspective of leadership was technology (the advent of computers) and its impact on managers (leaders) reliance on workers (followers) who possessed skill-sets requiring more *brains* and less *brawn*. In some ways, the tables had been turned, and for the first time, workers had the leverage; managers were now faced with relying on numerous sources to realize their organizational objectives. According to Stone and Patterson (2005), there was transference of control from those doing the work to those possessing the knowledge as to how the work should best be done. Fundamentally, there was a proverbial levelling of the playing field for leaders and followers requiring a new approach to organizational leadership—*reaction versus action*.

Paul Hersey (1931-2012) and Ken Blanchard (1939-Present)

The *Situational Theory* developed by Hersey and Blanchard was premised on one predominant idea; there is no single “*best*” style of leadership. Hersey and Blanchard (1996) advocated that effective leadership is dynamic and dependent on *maturity* factors associated with the tasks related to the job and the nature of the person(s) requiring leadership. Job maturity is concerned with task relevance, technical knowledge, and skills and psychological maturity includes workers' level of self-confidence and self-

concept (Yukl, 2002). In summary, a worker demonstrating a higher level of both job and psychological maturity would require very minimal direction, while workers who possess low levels of job and psychological maturity would require greater instructional supervision. Of course, not all theorists agree with Hersey and Blanchard's hypothesis that leaders have greater ability to impact followers' behaviour (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1993).

Fred Fielder (1922-Present)

The *Contingency Model* postulated that leaders effectiveness was less likely to be influenced by followers *maturity*, as coined by Hersey and Blanchard, but instead was greatly influenced by leaders placement in "*best fit*" situational contexts which ensured their success. In other words, it was less about the leader's ability to adapt to situations and more about leaders being placed in situations, which matched their skill-sets. Fielder (1978) noted that if the leader is accepted and respected by followers, if the task assigned is relatively well structured, and if the leader is perceived as being in complete control of all decisions, then the situation was favourable. In fact, numerous researchers supported Fielder's contingency model and its premise of matching organizational environments with compatible organizers (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Scott, 1981; Thompson, 1967). Although Hersey, Blanchard, and Fielder's efforts delineating the conditional perspective of leadership, a new and persuasive viewpoint emerged, that focused on a transactional perspective of organizational leadership.

Transactional

The transactional perspective pursued a focus where leaders provided incentives as motivators to improve the organizational performance of followers. Essential to the transactional perspective was the exchange of rewards (acknowledgement, compensation, and promotion) for compliance, a concept born out of the bureaucratic perspective of organizational leadership where the leader represented, through their appointment, the ultimate decision-making authority (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994). Avolio, Waldman, and Yanimarina (1991) believed that transactional leaders were preoccupied with managing existing organizational routines related to daily operations, but were not particularly adept at identifying long-term organizational objectives and/or assessing workers' role in realizing those objectives, thereby enhancing organizational successes—increased productivity and profitability. Likewise, Crosby (1996) criticized the transactional perspective of leadership for being too narrow-minded, focused only on incentives and missing the bigger picture—knowing what's important and why.

Burns (1978) viewed the transactional perspective of organizational leadership as an inter-reliant relationship between leaders and followers where each reinforced their respective position of influence over time. Furthermore, this mutual reciprocation of influence represented the majority of the interactions between leaders and followers and was necessitated by shared organizational objectives. In addition, this perspective was considered value-free, meaning that there was complete objectivity regarding the specific rewards administered and to whom they were administered. While the transactional perspective was the most prevalent leadership approach at the time, it was primarily focused on control; however, as societal changes demanded greater adaptation, a new

transformational perspective of organizational leadership emerged requiring active involvement from the follower (McGregor, 1960).

Transformational

While the transactional perspective considers where an organization was currently and seeks to maintain the status quo, the transformational perspective goes further by considering where an organization was heading and how best to achieve that reality within the context of the constituents involved, endeavouring to merge the needs of both internal and external contributors. It employs collaboration as necessary toward achieving a goal, motivating individuals to actively participate in the process of actualizing a given objective, thereby creating an environment enduring efficiency. According to (Patterson, 2003; Pawar & Eastman, 1997; Rainey & Watson, 1996; Stone & Patterson, 2005), the transformational perspective has been the dominant organizational leadership perspective for the past three decades. Several researchers have contributed significantly to the study of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Burns, 1978); Burns is considered the leader in the field.

James MacGregor Burns (1918-Present)

Considered the architect of both transactional and transformational leadership, Burns' (1978) *Leadership* distinguished transactional leadership as focused on the relationship between leaders and followers and transformational leadership as the leader's focus on the beliefs, values, and needs of the followers. According to Burns (1978), the job of a transformational leader is to instigate progress through the implementation of a collaborative process where followers actively participate to realize stipulated goals.

Furthermore, he believed that transformational leader's request of followers, complete self-sacrifice, putting the welfare of colleagues, organizations, and communities above their own. Succinctly, the transformational perspective of organizational leadership moved the focus away from the leader's personal characteristics and put it squarely on the follower's ability to be empowered towards a shared goal (Burns, 1978). It should be noted that there exists a significant common ground between Burns' transformational leadership theory and Robert K. Greenleaf's (1904-1990) servant leadership philosophy, discourse to follow (Burns, 2003; Greenleaf, 1977; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004).

Similarly, Yukl (2002) asserted that the transformational perspective engages leaders to be committedly attuned to the psychological necessities of followers which Stone and Patterson (2005) described as feeling trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward a leader. In fact, this style of leadership motivates followers to do more than is expected, transcending their own personal expectations while realizing the personal expectations of others (Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988; Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Bennis, 1989; Keeley, 2009). Furthermore, Yukl (2002) stipulated that the leader's focus in a transformational perspective is the organization's objectives; however, these objectives are realized through the leader's modeling of behaviours that are desired towards accomplishing those objectives. In contrast to the transactional perspective, which functions based on the provision of incentives for performance, the transformational perspective is premised on activating followers' motivation beyond what is required to satisfy organizational goals.

Likewise, Avolio et al. (1991) identified four consistent behaviours exhibited by transformational leaders: (a) idealized influence (or charismatic influence), (b)

inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individual consideration. Each of these behaviours is values-based and illustrates the leader's ability to foster an environment where trust is at a premium, and shared goals are achieved through a collective mindset of executing established plans towards organizational objectives. Several researchers attribute the transformational leader's influence to one of power over followers, where power is described as the ability to impact the values, beliefs, and motivations of others (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Shamir, 1995).

In addition, Peters and Waterman (1982) described values-based behaviours of the transformational leader as skill-sets related to their managing of organizational expectations where followers are encouraged to utilize their own personal values while executing the everyday expectations of the organization. As previously cited, Barnard's (1968) "*cooperative social systems*" was based on a premise of moral authority where leaders' capacity to lead was greatly influenced by their ability to distinguish precisely the shared values of the group (followers). Similarly, Carlson and Perrewe (1995) noted that the managing of multiple values, beliefs, and motivations defines the transformational leadership perspective where a harmonious balance of numerous participants must be established, re-examined, and most importantly, maintained.

Yukl (2002) determined that transformational leaders' success could be measured by (a) an ability to express a clear vision, (b) a capacity to provide resources, (c) a demonstration of genuine confidence in the followers, (d) a supportive attitude fostered by actions, and (e) an encouragement of followers' vision. Although these competencies have been identified as significant to success, Stone and Patterson (2005) outlined fifteen

specific accompanying attributes (vision, trust, respect, risk-sharing, integrity, modeling, commitment to goals, communication, enthusiasm, rationality, problem-solving, personal attention, mentoring, listening, and empowering), which supplement the four functional attributes introduced by Avolio et al. (1991). While each of the accompanying attributes is important, Covey (1989) stipulated that “*trust*” was the most important attribute of the transformational leader. According to Covey (1989), “Trust is the highest form of human motivation because it brings out the very best in people” (p. 178). Similarly, Ford (1991) stated that trust is the necessary ingredient of morality and provides the essential elements required for values-based transformational leadership. Furthermore, leadership from a position of moral authority serves to engage all constituents in a process of personal growth (Bottum & Lenz, 1998; Clawson, 1999).

As numerous researchers continued to classify the personal values of the leader as influential to organizational success (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Kouzes & Posner, 1987), a new organizational leadership perspective had emerged, which focused on the needs of the followers, in a philosophy called servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970), which I will now explain.

Servant Leadership

Like the transformational leadership perspective, the servant leadership perspective was premised on workers’ (followers’) needs and its impact on efficiency and subsequently productivity. Some researchers have suggested that there was a need within our society to re-examine the relationships between organizations and the individuals they employ, where teamwork, community, values, service, and caring behaviour should be paramount (Block, 1993; Caldwell, Bischoff, & Karri, 2002). Stone and Patterson

(2004) viewed servant leadership as a natural progression of transformational leadership where the needs of the followers are primary, and the needs of the organization are secondary, an emphasis on human relationships. Harvey (2001) stated that the main objective of the servant-leader was to serve using the following priorities: (a) employees' personal growth, (b) customers projected needs, and (c) organizations' overall outcomes; through service, the social contract of the organization was accomplished. In fact, the servant-leader was not preoccupied with service outcomes, but instead with service quality. (Bass, 2000; Lubin, 2001) affirmed that the most significant responsibility of a servant-leader was accommodating the needs of the follower, sometimes neglecting organizational objectives.

According to Russell and Stone (2002), servant-leaders utilized their all-embracing commitment to serve as the primary tool in their arsenal of service, thereby garnering a tremendous ability to influence the values, beliefs, and motivations of those they serve. Patterson (2005) identified seven virtues (expressed as behaviours) common to servant-leaders, which motivates those being served to strive towards previously established organizational objectives. In essence, the servant-leader by their action provide a model of service which influences those being served toward the action of service, thereby creating a cyclical effect of service between leaders and followers. While other researchers have interpreted the servant-leader perspective, Robert K. Greenleaf, credited with originating the philosophy, was by far the most credible.

Robert K. Greenleaf (1904-1990)

Greenleaf, convinced that organizations could be governed by employing a servant leadership perspective, authored an essay in 1972 entitled, *The Institution as Servant*. The following passage is most cited as the “credo” of servant leadership:

This is my thesis: caring for persons, the more able and the less able serving each other, is the rock upon which a good society is built. Whereas, until recently, caring was largely person to person, now most of it is mediated through institutions—often large, complex, powerful, impersonal; not always competent; sometimes corrupt. If a better society is to be built, one that is more just and more loving, one that provides greater creative opportunity for its people, then the most open course is to raise both the capacity to serve and the very performance as servant of existing major institutions by new regenerative forces operating within them. (p. 9)

Within the context of this passage, Greenleaf emphasized the roman notion of *primus inter pares*, “*first among equal*”, a philosophy of organizational leadership, which challenged the leader to care for the institution, and the individuals associated therein. Greenleaf (1977, 1996) stated that the primary focus of servant leadership was to meet the needs of others (followers). Furthermore, servant-leaders are selfless, concerned entirely on understanding how to execute leadership through service. Greenleaf (1977) explained that self-interest should not motivate servant-leaders to accomplish personal goals, but instead should inspire an overwhelming motivation to realize the needs of others (followers).

While numerous theories have identified organizational leadership perspectives, the first (classical and scientific management theories) tend to establish a foundation whereby all others are considered. In fact, the natural consequences of societal changes prevalent in the last two centuries have framed the theoretical perspectives that have emerged, leading to countless interpretations of organizational leadership previously discussed. In this context, it is prudent to recognize that the current organizational perspective (servant leadership) may eventually give way to yet another perspective, only time will tell.

At present, there is a great debate related to the needs of followers in 21st century organizations. Specifically, what are the needs of the follower, and how will today's leaders accommodate these needs? With the seemingly endless access to information afforded this generation of leaders and followers, the role of the leader is evolving to one of facilitator rather than one of ultimate authority. In fact, today's leaders are expected to lead in environments where those being led are fully capable of leading themselves, demonstrating leadership skill-sets through the action of followers. So, the stage is now set to investigate the next organizational leadership perspective ensuing from the needs of 21st century leaders and followers. Like the past Industrial Revolution, which instigated an examination of the emergent role of leaders to influence followers, the current Technology Revolution is contributing significantly to a paradigm shift focused on followers and their power to influence leaders—reversing the lens to followership. The following will provide a brief overview of the most common followership understandings.

Followership in Perspective

A tremendous amount of time has been dedicated to the study of leadership; however, there are those who believe that it is still a misunderstood area of study (Burns, 1978; Rost, 1993). These misunderstandings included the notion that a person can be exclusively a leader, an opinion not shared by Hackman and Wageman (2007). In fact, (Ciulla, 2003; Gronn, 1998) believed that the majority of a leader's working life was spent following rather than leading. Furthermore, it was Kelley's (1992) seminal work *The Power of Followership*, while provocative at the time, which established the foundation for the inclusion of followership in the numerous texts and articles on leadership authored (Allio, 2009; DuBrin, Danlgish, & Miller, 2006; Goffee & Jones, 2006; Johnson, 2007; Rosenbach & Taylor, 2006; Yukl, 2002).

According to Agho (2009), inclusion did not necessarily translate to prominence; simply because there were perceptions which existed that were predicated on the assumption that followership was based on "*know how*" and that leadership was based on "*learn how*". While these opinions were evolving, Horsfall (2001) concluded that the current organizational environment premised on climates of shared, distributed, or dispersed leadership provided numerous opportunities to examine followership in context. Furthermore, Agho (2009) maintained that current societal considerations should encourage an ongoing emphasis on followership and its impact on leaders' competencies and organizational effectiveness, currently contemplated by several authors (Bjugstad et al., 2006; Rosenbach & Taylor, 2006).

Significant to the historical relevance of followership is the work of Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933) who believed that "leaders and followers are both following the

invisible leader—the common purpose... (cited in Graham, 1995, p. 168)...the leader guides the group and is at the same time...guided by the group, is always part of the group... (cited in Hurst, 1992, p. 58)” (Selber & Austin, 1997, pp. 7-8).

Followers

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) employed the term *follower* in place of the more notable (at the time) *subordinate* in an attempt to counteract negative associations.

However, some authors opted to use other terms (*participants*, *collaborators*, and *partners*) to convey more positive associations (Agho, 2009; Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Similarly, individual authors preferred a more neutral term such as *constituent* to describe the follower within a political context (DuBrin, Danlgish, & Miller, 2006). Likewise, Kellerman (2008) described the follower inside a hierarchical structure, using the term *subordinates* to situate the follower within the organizational framework.

Followership

Crossman and Crossman (2011) reviewed the literature on followership and noted that only five of thirty authors specifically defined followership. Among the limited uses of the term *followership* included were the following: (a) the antithesis of leadership, (b) an influential activity, and (c) the act of being led (Atchison, 2004; Briggs, 2004; Russell, 2003; Seteroff, 2003). Evidently, the term followership was restricted to the construct of leadership, implying that the latter necessitated the former. However, there are those who view followership and leadership as inter-dependent roles capable of existing independently, but interacting mutually towards common objectives (Baker, 2007; Heller & Van Til, 1982; Kelley, 1988).

Hollander and Webb (1955) offered a definition of followership, from the perspective of leaders in a military context, related to the degree that an individual is needed. Within the same context, Townsend and Gebhardt (1997) added that absent expressed instructions, followership enables individuals to determine appropriate actions needed to realize known objectives. Likewise, Bjugstad et al. (2006) described followership as characteristics of competence and cooperation facilitating organizational cohesion.

Conversely, Wortman (1982) placed the emphasis on the inherent needs of the follower and the associated actions needed to actualize those needs while at the same time appreciating the leader's need to accomplish the organization's goals. Similarly, Howell and Costley (2006) defined followership as an interaction between leader and follower, where each is equally responsible for the acquisition of the organizational objectives as opposed to the hierarchical perspective proffered by Kellerman (2008), which assumed that the leader provides the objectives, and the follower produces the outcomes.

Kelley's (1988) *In Praise of Followers* published in *Harvard Business Review* represented the first substantial discourse on followership and was ground breaking at the time for its premise "that followers had an active role to play in organizational success: Success was not solely dependent on dynamic leaders" (Baker, 2007). According to Kelley (1988), leadership and followership were exclusive and as such should be defined independently. Leadership was defined as incorporating five essential components: (a) articulate a vision, (b) create consensus, (c) communicate enthusiasm, (d) coordinate efforts, and (e) desire to lead. On the other hand, followership was defined as including

five essential components: (a) perceive a vision (b) collaborate capacity, (c) character of humility, (d) moral integrity, and (e) desire to follow. Kelley, through his distinctive definitions, created a contrast between the leader (who is influenced by extrinsic motivators) and the follower (who is influenced by intrinsic motivators).

While collectively these authors present their analysis through a hierarchical framework, using active descriptors to explain followership and passive descriptors to describe followers, not all of their colleagues supported such contentions. As a counterpoint, (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Rost, 1995, 2008; Stech, 2008) each supported the notion that followership and leadership illustrates an interrelation between the individual parts *process* and the whole *state*. Similarly, Agho (2009) argued that to be an effective leader one must have success being an effective follower, implying that followership represents the adhesive that necessitates the unanimity that is leadership. Likewise, Rost (1995) presented an alternative perspective, suggesting that followers need not lead to exert influence, but in fact demonstrate leadership through competencies and collaboration.

Finally, Carsten, Uhl-bien, West, Patera, and McGregor (2010) offered a definition of followership, as a complementary relationship between likeminded individuals each striving toward common objectives—a neutrality of influences. So perhaps (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Foster, 1989) stated it best when they concluded that leadership and followership are *interchangeable* expressions that can be situated on either side of the equation of organizational success. It may simply be about balancing the equation, perhaps leadership equals followership, while alternatively followership equals leadership—the question remains unanswered, who leads and who follows?

Leadership-Followership Interrelation

Throughout the literature on leadership, the role of the follower has always been acknowledged (Follett, 1949; Hollander, 1992). According to Crossman and Crossman (2011) there are four broad categorizations interrelating leadership and followership: (a) leader-centric, (b) leader-centred, (c) multiple leadership, and (d) followership. First, leader-centric refers to an individualized perspective of leadership where qualities are highlighted (Burns, 1978; Mumford, Antes, Caughron, & Friedrich, 2008; Sashkin, 2004). Second, leader-centred signifies an attempt to understand leadership from the perspective of the follower (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2005; Meindl, 1995; Nye, 2005; Uhl-Bien, 2005). Third, multiple leadership addressed a recognized change in a hierarchical organizational structure to a team-based environment (Gronn, 2003; Offermann & Scuderi, 2007). In fact, there were those who rejected both the leader-centric and follower-centred approach, maintaining that there were no real differences between leaders and followers and that there could be multiple leaders within a group dynamic (Shamir, 2007). Fourth, followership sought to explain the active role that followers occupy within the leader-follower dichotomy (Baker, 2007).

Chaleff (1995) and Kelley (1992) who focused on the intermediate level of the management hierarchy, contributed significantly to the discourse on followership. Despite their focus, both have been criticized for their perceived lack of empirical results based on a qualitative approach (Baker, 2007). Among those who addressed this criticism, (Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, & Bullock, 2009; Thompson & Vecchio, 2009) each attempted to substantiate Kelley's findings, with the former having greater success. In addition, Bjugstad et al. (2006) offered three broad theoretical areas when

describing followership: (i) motivations, (ii) values and trust, and (iii) characteristics of effective and ineffective followers. Additionally, Baker (2007) concluded that (a) followership and leadership are roles, (b) followership is active not passive, (c) followership and leadership aspire common purposes, and (d) connections amongst followers and leaders are congruous.

Although these studies examined followership from an inter-relation perspective focused on the leader-follower constituent, Crossman and Crossman (2011) offered an alternative viewpoint, arguing that followership can be divided into three specific groups: (i) descriptive behaviours—what followers actually do, (ii) prescriptive behaviours—what followers should do, and (iii) situational factors—what followers do in relation to leaders. While three specific groups have been recognized, they are interconnected and exhibit common strands related to individuality and motivation.

Followership through Actions

Notably, the *descriptive* group may consist of followers satisfied to follow and/ or followers determined not to follow, perhaps attempting to dominate the leader-follower interaction (Zaleznik, 1965). However, the overall consensus of this perspective is centred on designating what followers actually *do*. In fact, Kelley (1992) describes followers' behaviour as either active or passive, demonstrated within the context of perceived needs. The *passive* follower is described as apprehensive, unwilling or unable to express his or her needs, and relegated to the sidelines whether by choice or necessity. Conversely, the *conformist* follower is *active* in their avoidance of perceived conflict, choosing instead to exist just under the radar, undetected as either helper or hinderer; Kelley (1998, 2008) referred to these followers as *yes people*. Additionally, Kelley

(2008) identified the ideal follower as an *exemplar or star*, exemplifying qualities that promote organizational objectives while enhancing agreement between peers and leaders, and having the courage of conviction to offer an alternative to the leader's perspective. Furthermore, Kelley (1992) offered a caution regarding the *alienated* follower, motivated by viewpoints that are pessimistic, and overly critical of peers, leaders, and organizational objectives; Kelley suggested that these followers were *troublemakers*, undermining any positive leader-interaction. Finally, Kelley (1992) identified the *pragmatist* follower as one who completes tasks as requested, performing at a standard that minimizes the necessity to go beyond what is needed by peers, the leader, and the organization as a whole.

Given Kelley's significance in the contribution of followership theory, it is not surprising that several authors followed a similar analysis. Potter and Rosenbach (2006) stated that the ideal follower is a *partner* who equally commits to the quality of the work required and to the relational considerations associated with the leader-follower relationship. Additionally, followers were classified as *politicians* and *contributors*, where the former values relationship quality over task performance and the latter the reverse. Steger, Manners, and Zimmerman (1982) offered a perspective that juxtaposed individuals' need for recognition of a job well done with their want to be insulated from failure based on job performance. Kellerman (2007, 2008) focus on motivators related to the leader-follower dynamics: (a) level of engagement, (b) dominance, and (c) deference. Collectively, the authors associated with followership studies asserting a *descriptive* behaviours perspective, appeared to distribute these behaviours between two extremes. At one end, behaviours that exemplify a lack of commitment, and at the other end,

behaviours, which characterize complete commitment (Kellerman, 2008; Kelley, 1992; Potter & Rosenbach, 2006; Steger, Manners, & Zimmerman, 1982; Zaleznik, 1965).

Whilst the *descriptive* behaviours perspective may be prominent in followership literature, there are other researchers who have offered another perspective situated in *prescriptive* behaviours, which focus not on what followers *do*, but on what followers *should* do.

Followership through Ideals

Particularly, Chaleff (1995) offered five (5) components of what he called courageous followership premised on ideal behaviours: (i) assumed responsibility absent of guarantees, (ii) commitment to service of others, (iii) personal conviction to challenge authority, (iv) participate fully in change process, and (v) prepared to actively withdraw support. Following further analysis, Chaleff offered two refinements related to components (iii) and (iv). Specifically, Chaleff (2008) identified four types of followers and their associated characteristics as they relate to effective followership: (i) resource—minimally meeting expectations, (ii) individualist—perceived as maverick, (iii) implementer—contributes costly mistakes, and (iv) partner—assumes full responsibility. Contributing to the empirical rigor of the research on *prescriptive* behaviours, Alcorn (1992), Dixon and Westbrook (2003), Jaussi, Stefanovich, and Devlin (2008) utilized the work of Chaleff (1995) and Kelley (1992) as a platform on which to postulate further arguments related to followership; however, the *prescriptive* behaviours viewpoint was followed by the *situational* context perspective which conjectured that followership should be evaluated through the lens of the environment in which leader and follower interactions primarily occur.

Followership through Conditions

Consequently, the *situational* perspective focused on the contextual factors influencing leadership and followership. Wortman (1982) hypothesized that leadership occurs from the top down and followership from the bottom up. As well, Wortman argued that context mattered, finding that conservative organizations valued stability and efficiency while innovative organizations encouraged creativity and initiative. Likewise, Potter and Rosenbach (2006) as cited earlier, emphasized the connection between organizational environment and the types of follower sought to complement said environment. Among the numerous researchers who have contributed significantly to the *situational* perspective as outlined earlier are Bjugstad et al. (2006), Gibbons (1992) Hersey and Blanchard (1982) and Kelley (1992), each offering models which focused on the relational aspects of leadership and followership.

While Baker (2007) concluded that the recent works by (Collinson 2006; Gardner et al., 2005; Howell & Shamir, 2005) emphasized the relational nature of follower and leader, *followership research* seeks to highlight the impact of followers on leaders by contemplating two primary questions: (1) how do the personal qualities of followers influence leaders, and (2) how can followers, through their actions, engage in self-leadership? Followership theory suggests, “leader and follower are not either/or propositions in which leaders and followers are found at opposite ends of a continuum” (Hollander & Webb, 1955). Frew (1977) discussed the importance of followers to leaders’ success and developed an instrument that measured followership in the context of the kinds of leadership styles followers preferred in supervisors. Steger et al. (1982) noted that as managers increase their managerial positions (upward mobility), they

encounter different types of “followership” (p. 85) and that additional training was necessitated by the aforementioned move, to understand different follower styles and how to motivate the followers.

Additionally, empirical researchers such as Mushonga and Torrance (2008) have developed a five-factor model of personality descriptors, which were compared to Kelley’s (1988) follower attributes; no strong correlation was identified. Likewise, Agho (2009) investigated senior directors in terms of desirable factors of followers and leaders; dependability, loyalty and cooperation favoured followers. Similarly, Carsten et al. (2010) studied followers at various hierarchical levels to determine how they themselves constructed followership; participants categorized themselves into three distinct classes: (a) passive—loyal, supportive, obedient, (b) active—honest, obedient, loyal, and (c) proactive—constructively challenge manager if needed. As well, Carsten et al.’s (2010) research sought to re-examine Hackman and Wageman’s (2007) research question regarding leadership models, specifically how they could be designed to include leader and follower as interchangeable. Similarly, Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky’s (2009) research on ‘adaptive leadership’ was addressed by Agho’s (2009) and Carsten et al.’s (2010) findings, which provided a practical application to their call for ‘adaptive leadership’—leadership in transition, illustrating fluidity based on specific circumstances.

Followership in Context

Given the various characterizations of *followers* and *followership* that have been presented and numerous models and theories, which have been offered, no determination was provided regarding the dominance of one versus the others. Furthermore, almost all of the studies discussed originated in the corporate world. While it is important to

articulate their significance, there are numerous environments that demand further consideration with regards to *followership research*, specifically the education sector as it relates to the teacher-principal relationship.

According to Bjugstad (2004), a book search on the Amazon.com website revealed 95, 220 titles devoted to leadership and 792 titles related to followership, with the majority focused on spiritual or political perspectives, meaning that the ratio of leadership to followership books was 120:1. Correspondingly, Riggio et al. (2008) concluded that a 2007 Google search of the term *follower* resulted in over 187,000 hits, and over 92,000 hits for *followership research* associated with a variety of environments including business, sports, nursing, and education.

Educational Environment

Followership is prevalent in all educational environments and impact the action of following and leading uniquely. Thody's (2003) research in educational organizations classified followers' behaviour as positive and/or negative as it relates to the responsibilities they adopt. Metaphorically, if the educational environment is described as a pyramid, then it is perceived that the roles at the top of the pyramid consist of fewer followership opportunities and the roles at the base of the pyramid consists of greater followership opportunities. However, the extent to which individuals portray the role of follower is significantly influenced by the context of the situation and the decisions considered. Conceivably, followership is as natural as leadership given "the proclivity to follow...exists, at least latently, in every human being" (Gardner, 1997, p. 34). Thus, followers are an integral part of any educational organization and the quality of the

teacher-principal relationship contributes to the success and/or failure of an organization's achievements (Baker, 2007).

Teacher-Principal Interrelation

Several studies have examined the teacher-principal relationship (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Eres, 2011; Eyal & Roth, 2011; Moye, Henkin, & Egley, 2005) and have concluded that there are numerous factors that support the success of this relationship. Among these factors, teacher motivation, as it relates to job satisfaction and a willingness to do a good job beyond what is expected and/or required, is often cited. Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) suggested that teacher motivation (*intrinsic motivation*) might be associated with principals' leadership style. Alternatively, Kark and Van Dijk (2007) argued that the instructional elements of principals' leadership style, such as articulating expectations, providing feedback, and requesting adherence, may have a negative impact on teacher motivation, at least to the extent that *extrinsic motivation* was affected.

Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) outlined additional factors affecting teacher motivation including providing opportunities that promote success and recognition for a job well done. Likewise, Matthews (1979) argued that attitude and perception were contributing factors to teacher motivation and principals' expectations as it relates to productivity. Lawler and Porter (1967) also emphasized the importance of rewards, both their value and their perceived delivery based on effort. Likewise, Matthews and Brown (1976) offered a comprehensive model to examine essential elements of teacher motivation: attitudes toward principals, and perceptions of principals' expectations, among them.

As previously mentioned, some studies have investigated the question of teacher motivation from the perspective of the leader (something done *to* the teacher to solicit an action); however, none have examined the question from the perspective of the follower (something done *by* the teacher to demonstrate an action). In fact, there is a perception that followers' motivation is entirely determined by the leader (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; House, 1977).

Teacher Motivation

Presently, researchers have concluded that educators' motivation is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Barnabé & Burns, 1994; Eimers, 1997). Intrinsic motivation is described as the actions derived within the context of the work (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Eimers, 1997; Fresko, Kfir & Nasser, 1997). Extrinsic motivation is defined as actions that occur as a result of influences outside of the work (Eimers, 1997; Fresko et al., 1997). As well, investigators have determined that factors occurring within the context of work have a greater influence on motivation than those that are external; consequently, a framework was developed to better understand the phenomena of motivation.

Correspondingly, Drafke and Kossen (1998) postulated models of motivation describing the behaviours and attitudes of individuals within the job setting. These models were subsequently divided into two broad categories: content theories and cognitive or process theories (Barnabé & Burns, 1994; McKenna, 2000; Rowley 1996; Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 1997). As previously referenced, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's two-factor (motivation-maintenance) model are examples of content theories which attempt to identify factors within individuals and their

environment that contribute to sustained behaviours. Alternatively, Operant Learning, Equity, and Expectancy theory are examples of cognitive or process theories that attempt to explain how environmental considerations are mediated, by individuals' personality and psychological state, to both encourage and hinder sustained behaviours (Barnabé & Burns, 1994; McKenna, 2000). Therefore, motivation can be regarded as *an incentive, which causes action* (Drafke & Kossen, 1998).

Synopsis

The purpose of this literature review is to outline the roles that leadership and followership research has contributed to the current discourse related to teacher motivation within the context of the teacher-principal relationship, currently viewed as a leadership-followership interrelation. This review, comprising of three subsections, attempts to organize the vast body of research associated with leadership and followership in a comprehensive and consistent approach.

First, it began by defining leadership and outlining the various theories associated with the evolution of leadership from a historical perspective. Second, followers and followership were defined and numerous theoretical models were examined to further understand the followership perspective. Third, some emergent research studies were included to situate followership contextually and to establish the gap in the research on followership as it pertains to an educational organizational environment. Additionally, research concerning teacher motivation within the context of the teacher-principal relationship was included to help frame the research questions.

Research Questions

This qualitative study endeavours to answer the following research questions:

1. How do teachers follow?
2. Who do teachers follow?
3. Why do teachers follow?

This concludes the literature review, and chapter three will address the methodology and methods used for this study.

Chapter 3: Design and Methodology

Overall Approach and Rationale

According to Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest, and Namey (2005), qualitative research is a type of scientific research which includes an investigation that does the following: (i) seeks answers to a given question, (ii) systematically uses a predefined set of procedures to answer the question, (iii) collects evidence, (iv) produces findings that were not determined in advance, and (v) produces findings that are applicable beyond the immediate boundaries of the study. Additionally, qualitative research seeks to gather in-depth understanding of the research problem or question from participants who are uniquely qualified to explain their behaviours and the rationales that dictate those behaviours. Finally, qualitative research offers the opportunity to decipher complexities that are predominant throughout participants' lived experiences.

Qualitative research methods are effective in defining phenomena related to social norms that are not noticeably evident and when combined with qualitative research methodology, provides compelling interpretations regarding the given research problem or question and how these interpretations are gathered from the qualitative data collected. Although these interpretations may be generalized, qualitative research methodology does not seek to apply findings beyond the population investigated. Perhaps this is a limitation of qualitative research methodology, which may not be present in quantitative research methodology and methods.

Researcher's Position

Given the limited amount of research that exists regarding teacher motivation as it pertains to the teacher-principal relationship, it is imperative to investigate teachers from the perspective of followership and to garner what motivates them to follow a school principal. My personal interest in this question is related to an overall belief that teachers, by in large, are motivated to do an effective job independent of the effectiveness of a school principal. However, if a school principal provides opportunities for individual teachers to realize their own goals, which are presumably, related to the overall objectives of the school and thus the school principal, then the teacher's motivation will be enhanced. Furthermore, given the above perspective, teachers would more likely seek out greater professional development opportunity to improve their best-teaching practices and in turn affect the prescribed learning outcomes of their students.

Research Questions

This qualitative study endeavours to answer the following research questions:

1. How do teachers follow?
2. Who do teachers follow?
3. Why do teachers follow?

Selection of Population

All participants were secondary school teachers with at least ten years teaching experience at the secondary school level (grades 9 to 12); they were selected from the same secondary school (Victoria High School), and were representative of both the science and social science faculties. The secondary school selected was representative of

a typical secondary school in Greater Victoria School District, No. 61. Secondary school teachers were chosen because they represent the demographic of educators currently thought to have the most influential roles related to educational reform—specifically, student engagement and curriculum delivery. To limit the scope of this qualitative study, eight (8) participants were selected. Six (6) secondary school teachers, currently teaching at Victoria High School, one former secondary school teacher, currently a secondary school principal at Victoria High School, and one retired secondary school teacher and principal, formerly secondary school principal at Victoria High School. Participants represented both genders (four males and four females) with an average age of forty-five years, with a Master's degree and at least ten years of teaching experience at the *public* secondary school level. In addition, all participants had a school principal of each gender (male and female), ranging in experience from less than one year (novice) to greater than five years (veteran).

Selection of Participants

First, all potential participants (secondary school teachers at Victoria High School) received the same district email outlining the purpose of the research study and a request for participants. Next, all potential participants who responded indicating a willingness to participate were contacted via district email or in-person to address any questions or concerns associated with their possible participation in the study and to discuss the significance of the research study and the criteria for participation. As a matter of judiciousness, potential participants were asked to confirm the number of years of teaching experience as well as the completion of a Master's degree. Finally, all potential participants were informed, through informal in-person meetings, of their

selection to participate in the study based on satisfying all established criteria. Again, all participants selected were informed that they should not feel any obligation to participate in the research study, and that if for any reason they wished to withdraw, they may do so. Each participant (a secondary school teacher) was a colleague of the principal investigator and worked at the same workplace (a secondary school) with the principal investigator for the past eight years.

Selection of Site

Victoria High School, commonly referred to as Vic High, is a high school located in the Fernwood community of Victoria, British Columbia, Canada. It is the oldest high school in the province, and is often cited as "the oldest public high school in Western Canada." Vic High is one of seven "high schools" located in Greater Victoria School District, No. 61. Students enrolled at Vic High usually originate from two middle schools in the catchment area: Central and Lansdowne. Currently, there are eight hundred and twenty students enrolled in grades (9 to 12). Vic High has approximately forty teaching staff, twenty support staff (EA's, counsellors, secretaries, custodians, etc.), and three administrators (one principal and two vice-principals). In addition to numerous academic choices, Vic High offers an extensive range of electives including technology, fine arts, home economics, career preparation and apprenticeship opportunities, as well as English as Second Language courses and physical education.

Vic High's greatest strength emanates from its staff, students, and administrative team. Collectively, each contributes to a sentiment of compassion, inclusion, and empowerment. The teaching staff shares an average age of forty-five years and twenty plus years teaching experience—approximately forty percent have completed a Master's

program. Together, these elements provide a “school of compassion,” predicated on “understanding the personality, needs, concerns, and interests of others, as well as a commitment of time and energy to assist individuals to realize their human potential” (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2009, p. 340). The students share diverse backgrounds and socio-economic status and are incredibly authentic, non-judgmental, and emphatic. Together, these components embody inclusion where “all students are of equal worth as human beings and as members of the school community” (Glickman et al., 2009, p. 341). The administrators lead by example, provide support, and facilitate collaboration. Jointly, these aspects serve as an “invitation to become involved in decisions concerning leadership, teaching and learning, instilling in educators and students a commitment to facilitate the empowerment of other members of the community” (Glickman et al., 2009, p. 343).

Sampling Strategy

The sampling strategy utilized for this study was *purposeful random sampling*, which group’s participants according to predetermined criteria unique to a specific research question. As part of this approach, sample sizes were established prior to data collection and were not influenced by available resources, time, and objectives of the study. As well, sample size was not influenced by the needs of the principal investigator to compile additional data necessary to augment current analysis and determinations. Among the advantages of purposive sampling, the principal investigator had the opportunity to review and analyze the data throughout the collection process (Creswell, 2009).

Access to Facility and Participants

Given that all participants are adults and that the principal researcher is a colleague and shares the same workplace as the participants, accessibility is not limited; however, Greater Victoria School District, No. 61 regulation 6162.5 required that an application form “Request To Use Public School Students or Staff In Research” be completed prior to conducting research. The required form was completed and a letter of permission was provided granting approval to conduct research at Victoria High School commencing January 28, 2013 (Appendix B).

As a teacher at Victoria High School, I was uniquely positioned to access the research facility on a daily basis, which provided ongoing opportunity to interact with research participants. My role as the principal investigator was to collect the data and analyze the outcomes with the goal of producing results, which reflect the beliefs and perceptions of all participants. It was hoped that the findings would benefit the participants through their participation. As a colleague of the participants, I achieved a professional relationship built on respect. Through proven relationships, I garnered a level of trust predicated on my actions as a colleague and consequently as a researcher and have established a rapport grounded in my commitment to teacher’s best practices.

Due to the context of the research study (a secondary school), participants (secondary school teachers) were selected from a limited sample (approximately forty teaching staff) and could be known to each other, potentially affecting the results. Recognizing there existed the potential that others outside and/or within the research study could know the participants’ identity, I ensured that all participants were aware of this limitation, during the informal meeting to determine participants’ suitability for the

research study. Furthermore, all participants were instructed and requested, through the consent form, to maintain their own anonymity with regards to their involvement in the research study. It should be noted that all information related to the participants, both collectively and individually, was not shared with anyone other than the participants of the research study.

Research Ethics

Research ethics pertains to the interactions between the researcher and the people they are studying. It was clear that the well-being of the participants was paramount and that the research questions were of secondary priority. As a result, if faced with a choice between the advancement of the research and the inflicting of harm to the participants, there was only one best choice—*do no harm!* The Belmont Report (1979) included the following ethical guidelines:

1. *Respect for persons* requires a commitment to ensuring the autonomy of research participants; people will not be used simply as a means to achieve research objectives.
2. *Beneficence* requires a commitment to minimizing the risk associated with research, maximizing the benefits that accrue to research participants.
3. *Justice* requires a commitment to ensuring a fair distribution of the risks and benefits resulting from research; people who are expected to benefit from the knowledge should be the ones who are asked to participate.

4. *Respect for communities* requires a commitment to respect the values and interests of the community in research; community-wide knowledge, values and relationships are critical to research success.

To facilitate the above guidelines, informed consent was sought from all participants prior to their involvement in the proposed research study. First, I wrote a script to solicit permission from all participants. Second, I provided this script to all participants via email and verbally in hopes of receiving a positive response. Next, I provided each participant who had agreed to participate in the research study with a written consent form outlining the nature of the study and their exact role as participants in the research study. Throughout the research study, all participants were fully informed of their right to withdraw from the research study at any time. Finally, I collected and stored securely all documents related to informed consent from each participant at my private residence in a lock filing cabinet accessible to the principal researcher exclusively. As a matter of procedure and to ensure that all participants had provided ongoing consent to participate in the research study, I provided periodic (bi-weekly) reminders both verbally (in-person) and via district email (requiring priority reply) throughout the research study. In addition, I provided a second consent form to sign, prior to conducting the second interview (Interview Protocol #2). Throughout the disposition of the findings of this research study, all participants' identities were concealed using pseudonyms and further protected through a codifying process, which ensured complete anonymity. As well, each participant will have the opportunity to establish that his or her identity has been satisfactorily disguised following the study.

Professional Ethics

Professional ethics concerns the conduct of the principal investigator with regards to collaboration, intellectual property, fabrication of data, and plagiarism. I have endeavoured to adhere to established ethical practices as they relate to conducting the proposed research. Throughout the data collection and analysis process, established expectations were followed as outlined by University of Victoria to ensure that all concerns related to professional ethics were fulfilled.

Data Collection Methods

The Human Research Ethics Board (HREB), University of Victoria, granted approval to conduct my research study on January 15, 2013 (Appendix A), and all data collection took place between April 5th and 19th, 2013. The primary source of data was a series of in-depth interviews with participants. To facilitate the success of the one-on-one (face-to-face) in-person interviews, a limited number of open-ended questions were developed, one questionnaire, and one survey, which included close-ended questions, were also utilized. All materials were generated based on prior course work, experience, and the literature review completed for this paper; Interview Protocol #1 (Appendix C); Followership Style Questionnaire (Appendix D); Effective Followership Survey (Appendix E); and Interview Protocol #2 (Appendix F).

All interviews were scheduled during the participants' preparation period as to minimize the impact on their time outside of school instructional time. For the convenience of both the principal investigator and the participants, all interviews were conducted at participants' (secondary school teachers) workplace (secondary school), Victoria High School, using a dedicated interview room located at Victoria High School

(Math office, room 301) and accessible exclusively to the principal investigator at the time of data collection. Participants were expected to contribute approximately two hours maximum of their time to participate in two separate in-depth interviews conducted by the principal investigator. Interview questions were not provided beforehand to facilitate authenticity of the responses. However, I had conversations with each of the participants to clarify the data collecting procedure as well as expectation during the interview.

In addition, all participants were explicitly informed in writing that their participation in the research study was completely voluntary and that if they wished to withdraw from participating they may do so at any time without any explanation as to their reason. Also, participants were provided with a copy of their signed consent form to ensure that they were fully aware, as documented, of their rights to withdraw. As well, all participants were reminded that if at any time, during the interview, they did not want to continue, they should let the researcher know and he would stop immediately. Furthermore, participants were informed that they should seek clarification during the interview regarding the interview questions posited and/or the question responses offered. Finally, all participants were informed that they would receive a typed copy of their interview transcribed verbatim to review their responses for clarity, meaning, and accuracy, and to provide verbal feedback following each interview. Following Interview Protocol #1, all participants were requested to return the interview transcript to the principal investigator at the sitting of the Interview Protocol #2; as well, this request was expressed following Interview Protocol #2, with the expectation that the transcript would be returned to the principal investigator in person. All data collected from Interview

Protocol #1 and #2 was then coded and analyzed to establish themes and was destroyed following the conclusion of the data analysis and interpretation process.

Interview Protocol #1 (1 hour in length, approximately) was administered, recorded using a software program (QuickTime) on the principal investigator's laptop, and then transcribed into narrative text. The principal investigator then reviewed all interviews for general impressions, which were used to inform Interview Protocol #2; at this stage in the data collection procedure, the data was not coded or analyzed to establish themes. However, based on the general impressions gathered from Interview Protocol #1, a series of supplemental questions were generated for use in Interview Protocol #2 (1 hour in length, approximately), administered, and recorded using a software program (QuickTime) on the principal investigator's laptop, later transcribed into narrative text. Prior to administering Interview Protocol #2, participants were given a Likert scale Followership Style Questionnaire and a Likert scale Effective Followership Survey (approximately 10 minutes in length) respectively, which included numerous close-ended questions requiring both numeric and symbolic responses; there were two written response questions included on the Effective Followership Survey. Subsequently, questions generated from Interview Protocol #1 were used during Interview Protocol #2.

Data Analysis Procedures

According to Creswell (2009) qualitative data analysis involves a cyclical process, which requires the researcher to recurrently contemplate the data. "It involves preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data (some qualitative researchers like to think of this as peeling back the layers of an onion)..." (p. 183). Throughout the contemplation process,

researchers are encouraged to postulate additional questions and to record the results of their continuing interpretations. In addition, data analysis consists of collecting copious amounts of open-ended data from participants to establish themes and meanings. Furthermore, Creswell (2009) suggests that researchers consider qualitative data analysis as a series of steps ranging from the specific to the general and including various stages of evaluation. "I urge researchers to look at qualitative data analysis as following steps from the specific to the general and as involving multiple levels of analysis" (Creswell, 2009, p. 184). Invariably, the data analysis process involves the organization and preparation of the data, reading through all the data, and beginning detailed analysis with a coding process (Creswell, 2009).

With regards to coding, Creswell (2009) suggested the following approach: (a) code based on expected topics, (b) code based on unexpected and unique themes, and (c) code based on theoretical perspective. "Some researchers have found it useful to hand code qualitative transcript or information, sometimes using color code schemes and to cut and paste text segment onto note cards; this is a laborious and time-consuming approach" (Creswell, 2009, p. 188). While my experience as a researcher is limited, I developed and employed my own coding system, which assisted in the data analysis process; however, it was determined that my coding system would be used in conjunction with a more established qualitative computer software program. Given my primary computer accommodated only Apple Macintosh (MAC) software programs, Creswell (2009) suggested "HyperRESEARCH (<http://www.researchware.com/>), a program available for either MAC or PC. It is an easy-to-use qualitative software package enabling users to code, retrieve, build theories, and conduct analyses of the data" (p. 189).

Limitations

First, as a researcher, I was a novice and had limited amounts of experience. As such, this lack of experience impacted the collection and interpretation of the data and findings. Next, the relatively small sample size restricted my findings to the school in which the data was collected, preventing generalization outside of this study. Third, the participants were my colleagues with whom I shared professional relationships and as such may not have reported accurately their opinions, which may have influenced the data collection and interpretation process. Fourth, I was constrained by the time needed to collect the data, during the second semester of the school year (February to June, 2013). Finally, conducting qualitative research brings with it some inherent concerns related to the preciseness and objectivity of the findings, which makes it more challenging when trying to establish validity, reliability, and truthfulness.

Delimitations

With regards to delimitations, as a novice researcher, I chose a research location that was known to me, the school where I work, which allowed me to have daily access to the participants in my study. In addition, the location provided resources such as places for interviews, access to research tools (computer, printer, librarian, etc.), and colleagues who offered input regarding quality, quantity, and emotional support. Next, I selected participants from a limited number of subject areas (Mathematics, English, Socials, Science, Technical Education, and Languages (ESL)), which assisted in the interpretation of the data, given that I was familiar and knowledgeable with all subject areas of participants selected. Finally, I decided to conduct interviews within the school environment, which permitted simplicity both in administering and decoding the data.

Furthermore, the location provided an ongoing opportunity for clarification of data collected as well as for member checks, when needed.

Trustworthiness and Credibility

Creswell (2009) suggested the use of multiple strategies to enhance the researcher's ability to assess the accuracy of the findings as well as to convince readers of that accuracy. To that end, I included five strategies used by Flowerday and Schraw (2000) to triangulate the results. First, the data collected from Interview Protocol #1 and #2 were evaluated for similarities. Second, both written and verbal responses were collected and assessed for common themes. Third, all participants were provided with my interpretations of the data collected, and I solicited confirmation and/or clarification of the conclusions advanced. Fourth, I requested that an academic colleague, independent to the research, review my written notes and the accompanying interview of one of the participants. Following the review, I convened a meeting with the interpreter to discuss their conclusions with the final goal of hopefully reaching consensus. Fifth, I conducted individual member-checks with three additional secondary school teachers independent to the research study. Member-check participants were debriefed following their interpretation of the results reviewed; formal interviews and outcomes were recorded using both written and audio methods. A final debrief was conducted to consider member-check participants' conclusions and to reconcile, through mediated discussions, a final result, hopefully supporting the findings of the research.

In this chapter, I sought to explain the qualitative methodology employed for this study, a qualitative analysis. A thorough outline describes the procedures used to answer the three research questions postulated. The next chapter presents the findings.

Chapter 4: Findings

Chapter 4 provides the findings of the research study related to the teacher-principal relationship from the theoretical perspective of followership. The chapter has been divided into three sections that include (a) thematic description, (b) structural description, and (c) triangulation strategy.

Thematic Description

Eight teachers and two principals responded to questions related to two interviews, a questionnaire, and a survey: Interview Protocol #1 (Appendix C), Followership Style Questionnaire (Appendix D), Effective Followership Survey (Appendix E), and Interview Protocol #2 (Appendix F). All responses were categorized using three broad thematic topics, as shown in Figure 1.

First, the *style of followership* category defined the behavioural characteristics associated with the style of followership specified by all participants. Next, the *criteria for followership* category outlined the professional qualities expected from the leader to enable followership. Finally, the *rationale for followership* category delineated the personal characteristics modeled by the leader to encourage followership.

Style of Followership

To evaluate accurately the style of followership associated with each participant and the degree to which each participant understood what it means to be an effective follower, participants were instructed to complete a research questionnaire and survey.

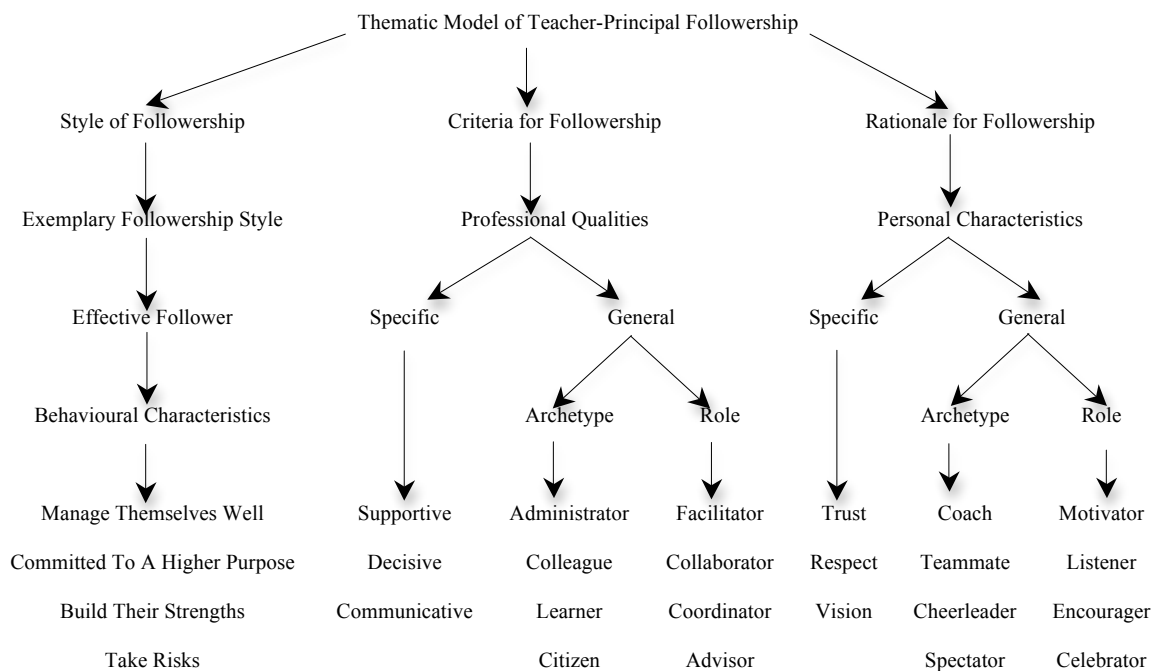


Figure 1 Thematic Model of Teacher-Principal Followership

Followership Style Questionnaire

The *Followership Style Questionnaire*, from Kelley's (1992) *The Power of Followership*, defined five (5) styles of followership based on two (2) dimensions (i) Independent, Critical Thinking versus Dependent, Uncritical Thinking, and (ii) Passive versus Active behaviour. The two dimensions outlined below, which illustrates degrees of thinking and engagement demonstrated by followers, form the basis for Kelley's five styles of followership: alienated, passive, pragmatist, conformist, and exemplary.

Independent, Critical Thinking vs. Dependent, Uncritical Thinking

Mushonga and Torrance (2008) concluded that independent, critical thinking followers are those who consider how their action affects the requirements of the organization. They are creative and provide feedback as necessary without solicitation, depending on the circumstances. In contrast, dependent, uncritical thinkers often assume the leader's point of view, following as requested without objection or expressed concern.

Passive vs. Active Behaviours

Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, and Bullock (2009) stated that active followers seek to solve problems based on what needs to be accomplish and seldom require direction regarding performing their duties. In addition, they regularly do more than is expected and usually go well beyond the call of duty in pursuit of accomplishing both required and unassigned tasks. Conversely, passive followers often wait to be told what they should do.

Results

After administering the *Followership Style Questionnaire* to each participant, the ratings related to the independent thinking items were summed and recorded on the vertical axis of the graph associated with the questionnaire (Appendix D). The procedure was repeated for the active engagement items and recorded on the horizontal axis. Subsequently, all scores were plotted on the graph by drawing perpendicular lines connecting both recorded scores.

Note that the coordinates, which resulted from combining both totals of the two dimensions included in the *Followership Style Questionnaire*, ranged from (37 to 47) for the Independent Thinking Questions (*x-coordinate*), and from (42 to 47) for the Active Engagement Questions (*y-coordinate*). Also note that any response totals that were greater than thirty points reflected a position in the first quadrant. As well, response totals that were greater than forty points reflected the (*Exemplary Followership*) style, on the graph (Appendix D).

According to the data resulting from the *Followership Style Questionnaire*, all eight participants were identified as demonstrating the *exemplary* followership style, results summarized in Table 1.

Table 1***Participants Results of Followership Style Questionnaire***

Participants (N = 8)	Independent Thinking Questions Total Score (x)	Active Engagement Questions Total Score (y)	Coordinates Plotted on Graph (x, y)
1	43	44	(43,44)
2	44	46	(44,46)
3	38	45	(38,45)
4	46	56	(46,45)
5	37	42	(37,42)
6	47	47	(47,47)
7	40	47	(40,47)
8	43	45	(43,45)

Effective Followership Survey

The *Effective Followership Survey*, from Walsh's (2010) *Followership: The Case For Promoting Followership Within Business* described the behaviours that lead to effective followership as outlined in Kelley's (1988) *In Praise of Follower*. Kelley identified four (4) essential qualities of effective followers: (a) manage themselves well, (b) committed to a higher purpose, (c) build their strengths, and (d) take risks. The four qualities outlined below, which illustrate independent and critical thinking skills as well as a degree of self-confidence, supports Kelley's further contention that effective followers demonstrate enthusiasm, intelligence, and self-reliance.

Essential Qualities

Bjugstad et al. (2006) suggested that the four essential qualities of effective followers are defined as follows: (a) *manage themselves well* – refers to the ability to define what's important and why, within a larger context, and to decide what role to assume at any given time; (b) *committed to a higher purpose* – refers to the capacity to work towards the goals of an organization and established ethical norms not necessarily shared by the follower; (c) *build their strengths* – refers to the willingness to acquire greater levels of proficiencies and to improving competencies already developed; and (d) *take risks* – refers to the ability to be courageous, honest and credible, and implies a proclivity to work well with others, being insightful and candid when required.

Results

After administering the *Effective Followership Survey* to each participant, responses related to independent and critical thinking skills and degree of self-confidence were evaluated based on grouping questions according to frequency of commonly occurring rating ranges, to evaluate commonalities (Appendix E). Subsequently, all questions were sorted to indicate the occurrence of similar responses.

Note that in addition to the twenty-six questions requiring a rating response (Disagree = 1, Not Sure = 2, Agree = 3) included in the *Effective Followership Survey*, there were two questions (#27 and #28) requiring choosing the most accurate responses (1: Very Limited, 2: Limited, 3: Moderate, 4: Considerable, 5: Extensive).

According to the data resulting from the *Effective Followership Survey*, all eight participants demonstrated an understanding of *effective* followership, and had a positive feeling regarding how their organization (a secondary school) encouraged team members (teachers) and their leader (principal) to demonstrate role-appropriate *effective* followership behaviours, results summarized in Table 2.

Question #27: How would you describe the extent of your experience working as a team member (but not a leader)?

Of the six teachers who participated, ($n = 4$) chose response number 4: Considerable; and ($n = 2$) chose response number 5: Extensive. Similar to the teachers' responses, of the two principals who participated, ($n = 2$) chose response number 4: Considerable.

Table 2***Participants Results of Effective Followership Survey***

Number of Questions (N = 26)	Question #	Score Range (1, 2, or 3)
14	1, 2, 5, 6, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26	2-3
4	8, 9, 11, 16	1-2
8	3, 4, 7, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15	0-1

Question #28: How would you describe the extent of your experience working as the leader of a team?

Of the six teachers who participated, ($n = 2$) chose response number 4: Considerable; ($n = 3$) chose response number 3: Moderate; and ($n = 1$) chose response number 2: Limited. Comparably, of the two principals who participated, ($n = 2$) chose response number 4: Considerable.

Finally, two written-response questions (#29 and #30) were included to assess each participant's personal viewpoints regarding the following questions:

Question #29: In your view what are the major barriers that stop people from contributing to the best of their ability when they are working as members of a team?

The following responses were typical of the six teachers who participated:

“Disagreement with the leader's decision or lack of making a decision. People stop contributing when they feel nothing is being done about specific problem that he or she might be working with a leader.”

People are not interested personally in the common goal of the group or lack the background or initiative of the work involved. If they do have the skills and initiative they may lack motivation if their independence is sacrificed due to over-control of their work by others or for the common goal.

The following responses were typical of the two principals who participated:

“Lack of trust for leader. Do not believe in the goals of the group. Do not like the leader. Do not like other members of team.”

“Lack of trust within the team. An inability to feel that risk-taking would be supported. A fear of failure (social, academic, etc.).”

Question #30: What actions could be taken to reduce these barriers?

The following responses were typical of the six teachers who participated:

Leaders have to work collaboratively with their team members, yet be able to make a final decision no matter if it makes everyone happy or not. Most people are content with a decision from a leader as long as they are heard.

“A clear leader that looks at broad goals but provides support and freedom to those who clearly have expertise in their field and have proven themselves successful in their careers or “group” contribution.”

The following responses were typical of the two principals who participated:

“Efforts to help all members of the group understand the goals of the group. Effort made to build and enhance relationship and hopefully, as a result, build trust!”

“Build upon reciprocal strengths. Approach challenges with as much synergy as possible, without allowing/worrying that some within the team may openly (or covertly) disagree.”

Together, the results of the *Followership Style Questionnaire* and the *Effective Followership Survey* addressed the first research question, how do teachers follow?

Research Question 1: How do teachers follow?

All participants outlined several ways in which they demonstrated characteristics indicative of an *exemplary* followership style. First, they described attempts to implement best teaching practices when delivering curriculum in the classroom or when exercising autonomy through seeking professional development opportunities that facilitated meaningful discussion and mentorship with peers. Next, they described a commitment to asking specific questions when needed of leaders (principals) to articulate exact needs and to assess the likelihood of support related to those needs. Third, they described an expectation that the leader would state clearly their requirements in a direct and timely manner to influence follower's (teachers) compliance and to encourage a willingness to follow what was requested. Finally, they described assuming a passive role which they defined as sitting back and listening to expectations and choosing to engage when motivated by their recognition of what needs to be done or by their acknowledgement of being directed to be involved.

Additionally, all participants reported demonstrating numerous behaviours conducive to *effective* followership. First, they described meeting the needs of their students with regards to providing a good educational experience that is valued; seeking to not only impact the students, but their parents and the school principal, which is arguably desirable. Next, participants indicated that the number of complains expressed by parents, administration, and others were a measure of their effectiveness as followers. Third, they expressed an awareness of the professional goals of the organization as well as the educational goals, while admitting that the political goals, although not directly pertinent, are important from the perspective of facilitating the organization's success.

Finally, participants indicated that the knowledge of doing a good job and the understanding that the quality of the job performed contributes to the goals of the school and the leader (principal) were paramount to their success as an effective follower.

Interview Protocol #1 and #2

Interview Protocol #1 and #2 consisted of questions designed by the researcher to establish a reference point regarding participants' beliefs about leadership, motivation, and followership within the context of the teacher-principal relationship and to evaluate teachers' criteria and rationale for followership; all questions were subdivided into four (4) distinct groups to assist with the final analysis: (a) initial, (b) follow-up, (c) supplementary, and (d) exit. Participants' responses were coded and are referenced in text, throughout the thematic description of findings.

Criteria for Followership

To establish accurately the criteria for followership associated with each participant and the factors contributing to their decisions as to who to follow, participants were invited to partake in two 1-hr interviews, results to follow.

Results

Participants' responses depicted three (3) specific *professional* qualities expected from the leader to encourage active followership: (a) supportive, (b) decisive, and (c) communicative.

Supportive

When asked to describe expectations of a leader (school principal), all participants described someone that was encouraging, allowing for risks, and are living the life with the teacher. Furthermore, they described leaders (school principals) who provided resources as requested and then simply getting out of the way, allowing the teacher to do as indicated. In contrast, some participants described situations when the leader (school principal) did not follow through when support was promised and the negative impact that resulted.

All participants, ($n = 8$) stated that being “supportive” was an important factor to facilitate successful followership. Participants were asked several questions related to their expectations of the leader (principal) and the following responses were typical:

“Someone that supports you and that’s going back to that characteristic of a good leader, someone that is very supportive.”

“I think a good principal leader is one that allows the teacher to have independence but will step in a supportive way even if they are trying to have that teacher change something they’re doing.”

“I think it’s going to be providing a sense of safety/support, that, that risk taking whether it’s again, a whole group or something I would want to try on my own that it’s not going to be a situation of judgment or conclusions drawn.”

Decisive

When asked to describe expectations of a leader (school principal), most participants described someone who is a decision-maker, committed to tough decision,

and maintains their stand. Also, they described leaders (school principals) who, when faced with making unpopular decisions that would impact the entire staff, were confident and provided opportunities for open dialogue. Conversely, some participants described leaders (school principals) who were indecisive, unethical in their decision-making approach, and made decisions without consultation.

Among the participants, ($n = 6$) declared that a leader who is “decisive” encourages effective followership. Participants were asked several questions related to their expectations of the leader (principal) and the following responses were typical:

“Someone who sticks by their decision so you know where they stand...the worst thing is to have someone who...says something but then doesn’t follow through.”

“It’s their ability to make a decision – I mean that can work for them or against them. If they want to make a decision without consulting anybody then that’s the worst quality I think they could have. On the other hand, if they are decisive and can think things through to a conclusion, that’s a really good quality.”

“I’ve had some who will just not listen to anyone and makes decisions and you must follow or else and don’t listen to reason – I’ve had those kinds of principals before...it’s really important that they are ethical, that’s a major issue with me.”

Communicative

When asked to describe expectations of a leader (school principal), most participants described someone is an effective communicator, open to feedback, and explains their decisions. Moreover, they described leaders (school principals) who were tactful at getting what they wanted because they knew how to present their expectations

in a measured and somewhat innocuous way. On the other hand, some participants described leaders (school principals) as lacking clarity with regards to objectives, and lacking confidence when expressing their ideas.

Among the participants, ($n = 6$) concluded that a leader who is “communicative” influences active followership. Participants were asked several questions related to their expectations of the leader (principal) and the following responses were typical:

“Communication is a big one, you’ve got to be able to talk exact – or I guess talk honestly to people and that everyone knows that everything is above board, there are no secrets involved.”

“It’s coming down to effective communication, you can say the same amount of words but if you are not going to get – I want the answer right away, I don’t want my time wasted.”

“So the not so good leaders they are not very good on communication, you don’t quite know where the school is heading as a goal, even though it may be written down it doesn’t seem to be part of the environment or the culture of it.”

Together, the responses collected from Interview Protocol #1 and #2 addressed the second research question, who do teachers follow?

Research Question 2: Who do teachers follow?

All participants expressed numerous professional qualities that were generalized and related to the *archetype* of the leader (principal) and their influence on the follower (teacher). First, they described the leader as an *administrator*, someone who led by example, presented a positive attitude, and demonstrated genuine enthusiasm and calm as

appropriate to the circumstances faced. Second, they described the leader as a *colleague* who provided support related to planning, teaching, and assessment in a non-judgemental approach. Next, they described the leader as a *learner* who sought to improve the educational perspectives of the individual constituents associated with each instructional department within the educational organization. Finally, they described the leader as a *citizen*, someone who understood the bigger picture, expressed a clear vision, and addressed the interests of the shared community—a secondary school.

In addition, all participants articulated numerous professional qualities that were generalized and related to the *role* that the leader (principal) undertakes, and their influence on the follower (teacher). First, they described the leader as a *facilitator* who allowed for independence, decent, and cooperation, within the context of realizing common goals and maintaining professional relationships. Second, they described the leader as a *collaborator* who, through aspects of decision-making, created opportunities to articulate and implement innovative ideas that were later evaluated for success. Next, they described the leader as a *coordinator* who assesses progress, evaluates needs, and clarifies objectives to further assist the successful completion of established tasks. Finally, they described the leader as an *advisor*, someone who was patient, competent, and non-judgemental throughout the execution of their responsibilities, demonstrating leadership through their experience.

Rationale for Followership

To establish accurately the rationale for followership associated with each participant and the reasons contributing to their decisions as to why to follow, participants were invited to partake in two 1-hr interviews, results follow.

Results

Participants described three (3) specific *personal* characteristics that the leader modeled which encouraged effective followership: (a) trust, (b) respect, and (c) vision.

Trust

When asked to describe expectations of a leader (school principal), most participants described someone that was honest, acted in a transparent manner, and fair-minded in their approach. Moreover, most participants described leaders (school principals) who created an environment, through their actions, which promoted mutual trust, where teachers were confident in what was said, based on what was being done. As a counter, some participants described leaders who lacked trustworthiness based on the absent of the professional qualities previously outlined: supportive, decisive, and communicative.

Among the participants, ($n = 5$) expressed that “trust” in the leader facilitated positive followership. Participants were asked several questions related to their impressions of the leader (principal) and the following responses were typical:

“I think once again, a follower is a person that puts trust in another person and you can say it’s for academics or skills or whatever but it’s ultimately your trusting another person is going to help you do your job better.”

“Does that mean that I trust all principals and that all the choices they were making were the correct ones? No, but I think it’s a balance between fairness and how much does their leadership truly effect my job and me.”

“I think where becoming a follower falls apart is when you find out that you either cannot trust the person who is the leader or they don’t have the education or experience and then I think the whole situation starts to fall apart.”

Respect

When asked to describe expectations of a leader (school principal), most participants described someone who was leading by example, respected the expertise of the teacher, and was mutually respectful. Additionally, most participants described leaders (school principals) who were role models that were able to attract and encourage positive outcomes and behaviours. Conversely, some participants described leaders (school principals) who imposed viewpoints, interfered with their approach, and were emotionally temperamental.

Among the participants, ($n = 6$) declared that “respect” for and from the leader encouraged effective followership. Participants were asked several questions related to their impressions of the leader (principal) and the following responses were typical:

“Well, I think a leader has to know who the followers are, respect their expertise, look at their needs, look at their opinions in regards to the whole goal of the organization.”

“They respect that the members of the group bring individual differences and that it is not always desirable to have everyone going in the same direction and that some diversity in perspective can be very helpful and healthy and lead to the effectiveness of the group.”

“I have not had very much respect for the majority of them mainly because too many of them do not really consult with teachers or respect teachers throughout the entire school according to their own personal subject areas of expertise.”

Vision

When asked to describe expectations of a leader (school principal), all participants described someone who was truly invested, espoused a unified direction, and motivated by the passion to ensure the best out of teachers. As well, all participants described leaders (school principals) who were articulate in establishing a clear vision concerning the ideas and objectives of the educational institution (a secondary school) its constituents (ministry, school board, trustees, parents, community). In contrast, some participants described leaders (school principals) who situated themselves above the common goal, were absent of direction, and unable to plan towards established goals.

Among the participants, ($n = 8$) concluded that the “vision” of the leader influences active followership. Participants were asked several questions related to their impressions of the leader (principal) and the following responses were typical:

“Well, somebody I respect professionally and who’s ethical as a person and who has a vision for the organization that he or she is leading.”

“Like, someone who pays attention to and understands the perspective of the majority of the people he or she is trying to lead, someone who has a clear vision, with the different degrees of buy-in that people would bring to a common goal.”

“A school principal who I saw as having self-serving motives that the person might put themselves above the common goal...someone who is a primadona.”

Together, the responses collected from Interview Protocol #1 and #2 addressed the third research question, why do teachers follow?

Research Question 3: Why do teachers follow?

All participants articulated numerous personal characteristics that were generalized and related to the *archetype* of the leader (principal) and their influence on the follower (teacher). First, they described the leader as the *coach* who offered guidance, as needed, by presenting themselves as an intelligent, knowledgeable, and experienced resource. Second, they described the leader as the *teammate* who provided ongoing feedback regarding the goals and objectives of the team through observation, suggestions, and demonstrations. Next, they described the leader as the *cheerleader* who provided moral support from the sidelines, through encouragement, motivation, and inspiration. Finally, they described the leader as the *spectator* who provided emotional support through expressions of appreciation, showed commitment to the needs of both the learner and the educator, and acknowledged the role that the follower (teacher) contributed to the organization's success.

In addition, all participants articulated numerous personal characteristics that were generalized and related to the *role* that the leader (principal) undertakes and their influence on the follower (teacher). First, they described the leader as a *motivator*, who exhibited genuine interest in all students and staff, was fully involved in all school-related affairs, and established a rapport that was fun, fair, and approachable. Second, they described the leader as a *listener*, someone who conveyed an attitude of understanding through body language, asked suitable questions based on concerns, and managed resistance to ideas as needed. Next, they described the leader as an *encourager* who

offered praise when appropriate, agreed as necessary based on the feedback sought, and accepted alternative points of view in place of his or her own, where merited. Finally, they described the leader as a *celebrator* of accomplished goals, individual success, and organizational milestones.

Structural Description

The themes summarized above established that teachers have numerous behaviours, factors, and reasons that contributed to their attitudes toward followership. While these attitudes were explored through the use of a survey, a questionnaire, and two face-to-face interviews, no prior knowledge was indicated regarding followership theory. Prominently, all participants acknowledged that the word “follower” evoked a negative connotation, prior to their participation in the research study; however, each participant identified themselves as a follower, specifically in the context of their role as a teacher.

Themes were initially partitioned into three broad topics, as shown in Figure 1. The first thematic category, *style of followership*, was identified based on participants’ (six secondary school teachers and two secondary school principals) responses to the *Followership Style Questionnaire* and the *Effective Followership Survey*.

The results were consistent and supported by the literature related to followership theory, which identified behaviours as useful indicators of followership styles and subsequently, followers’ effectiveness. For example, Zaleznik (1965) stated that there were distinctions to be made among followers, and that the distinctions are important both ideally and rationally. Likewise, Zaleznik and Kets de Vries (1975) concluded that if the leader understood the follower, it would advantage both the leader and the follower.

Notably, Kelley (1992) recognized five styles of followership and focused on the *exemplary* followership style, which he determined, was the best style of followership. As well, Chaleff (1995) acknowledged four different followership styles and focused on the support and challenge offered to the leader. Finally, Kellerman (2008) divided followers into five different types based on the level of engagement each exhibited.

The second thematic category, *criteria for followership*, was identified based on participants' (six secondary school teachers and two secondary school principals) responses to two in-person interviews: Interview Protocol #1 and #2.

The results were consistent and supported by the literature related to followership theory, which identified general and specific factors associated with the professional qualities expected of the leader that influenced followership. For example, Nanus (1998, p. 231) stated, "As the main person setting direction, the leader points the way". Similarly, Zárate Torres (2009) concluded that passion and effective communication, characteristics expected of leaders, are associated with articulating a vision, which inspires followers. Likewise, Winston (2002) noted, "Employees, who know that the leader has their interest at heart, are willing to commit themselves to corporate tasks" (p. 29). Finally, Kelley (1998, p. 201) asserted, "Leaders are partners who simply do different things than followers. But both add value and both contributions are necessary for success."

The third thematic category, *rationale for followership*, was identified based on participants' (six secondary school teachers and two secondary school principals) responses to two in-person interviews: Interview Protocol #1 and #2.

The results were consistent and supported by the literature related to followership theory, which identified specific and general reasons associated with the personal characteristics modeled by the leader that influenced followership. For example, Kouzes and Posner (1993) identified four personal qualities that induced a willingness to follow: honesty, forward-looking, inspiration, and competency. Likewise, Conger, Kanungo, and Menon (2002) concluded that the followers are more likely to follow a leader who they can trust. In other words, the leaders' success "depends on the leaders' ability to embody their followers' expectations" (Haslam, 2004, p. 44). Consequently, Hickman (1998, p. 345) suggested "a leader earns influence [over his followers] by adjusting to the expectations of followers." Finally, Kelley (1992, p. 194) stated that followers "want leaders who view them as partners in shaping the enterprise."

Triangulation Strategy

As outlined in chapter 3, two validity strategies were employed to evaluate the accuracy of the findings as determined by the researcher: (i) peer debriefing, and (ii) member checking.

Peer Debriefing

An academic colleague (secondary school teacher), independent to the research, reviewed the researcher's written notes and the accompanying interview transcript of one of the participants. Following the review, the researcher met with the interpreter to discuss their conclusions regarding the thematic content analysis of the data that was collected, collated, and codified. The results of the meeting were beneficial from three perspectives: (a) independent feedback, (b) critical questions, and (c) reaching consensus.

Results

First, through independent feedback, the interpreter provided comments, which served to strengthen the accuracy of the findings. For example, some feedback was provided regarding the interview questions included, “the questions related to motivation and engagement were important to further clarify the research questions pondered.” Next, critical questions were postulated regarding the number of participants included in the research study and its impact on the reliability, validity, and generalizability of the findings. For example, “how can you make these conclusions based on the number of participants included in the research study?” Given the types of critical questions advanced, the researcher was able to re-evaluate the accuracy of the findings by considering the procedures employed, and the reliability of the findings by reviewing the documented procedural approach integrated throughout the researcher’s study. Moreover, the researcher was reassured that the very process of the member checking was included to enrich the validity of the research study. In addition to the above, the question of generalization was addressed by clarifying, to the interpreter, the intent of employing the qualitative research methodology, “particularity rather than generalizability” (Greene & Caracelli, 1997), to structure the research. Finally, reaching consensus was a natural consequence of discussing the preliminary findings with someone external to the research, and provided the opportunity for the researcher to further scrutinized the procedures, timelines, and objectives within the research study.

Member Checking

Three academic colleagues (secondary school teachers), separate to the peer-debriefing participant, and independent to the research, were included as individual member-check participants. Member-check participants were recruited using the same criteria for the research study. The purpose of the member check was to verify that the research findings were consistent with the research participants. First, a formal face-to-face 1-hr interview was conducted with each participant and the results were audio recorded and transcribed for review. During the interview, member-checking participants were debriefed on the purpose of the member checking process and about the final research findings. Following the initial debriefing, member-check participants were instructed to review the thematic content analysis model of teacher-principal followership, as shown in Figure 1, and the researcher provided a brief synopsis of the themes included and a justification for the model. Subsequently, member-check participants were encouraged to reflect on the model and complete written comments. Lastly, a final debrief was conducted to request feedback and clarify concerns, results to follow.

Results

First, participants unanimously agreed that the thematic content analysis model of teacher-principal followership, illustrated in Figure 1, accurately relayed research participants' responses. All member-check participants, ($n = 3$) concluded that the research findings presented were compatible with their own opinions about leadership, motivation, and followership, as they relate to the teacher-principal relationship. For

example, when asked whether they shared similar behaviours associated with the *exemplary* followership style, member-check participants, ($n = 3$) concurred that “being proactive, taking the initiative, stating your position, and educating others on the benefits of your ideas” were among their values. As well, when questioned about the behavioural characteristics of an *effective* follower, member-check participants, ($n = 3$) agreed that “focus on educational goals, and commitment to students success” were among their priorities.

With regards to the *specific* professional qualities expected of the leader (principal) emphasized, there was agreement that teachers expected, among other specific professional qualities, “supportive, decisive, and communicative” leaders. In fact, member-check participants, ($n = 3$) reiterated the importance of communication to conveying a leader’s (principal’s) competence. Additionally, member-check participants, ($n = 3$) unanimously agreed that “confidence and vision” were of equal importance among teacher’s expectations. Likewise, the researcher’s decision to use archetypes and roles to describe the *general* professional qualities associated with followers (teachers) expectations of the leader (principal) was acknowledged as “noteworthy”. Collectively, member-check participants, ($n = 3$) supported the use of archetypes and roles to provide context and meaning to the desired qualities of the leader (principal).

Similarly, member-check participants, ($n = 3$) decisively agreed with the *specific* personal characteristics “trust, respect, and vision” outlined by research participants, ($n = 8$) and deemed relevant for the leader (principal) to model, to encourage active followership. Interestingly, member-check participants, ($n = 3$) noted that “honesty and ethics” were personal qualities that occurred more than once among research participants.

Finally, the archetypes and roles defined to explain the *general* personal characteristics expected to be model by the leader (principal) were consistently endorsed, following a thorough explanation of their use within the context of the current research findings and the past research associated to followership.

In this chapter, I have presented the findings using three main sub-headings: (a) thematic description of findings, (b) structural description of findings, and (c) feedback from final validity strategies. Additionally, I have presented the findings within the context of the three research questions proffered in this research study.

Research Questions

This qualitative study endeavours to answer the following research questions:

1. How do teachers follow?
2. Who do teachers follow?
3. Why do teachers follow?

The next chapter includes a discussion, conclusions, and recommendations.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusions

Chapter 5 will provide a unified connection of the research questions, the research findings, and the previous research related to the teacher-principal relationship from the theoretical perspective of followership. The chapter will be divided into three sections that include (a) discussion of findings, (b) major conclusions, and (c) recommendations.

Discussion of Findings

The purpose of this qualitative study was to understand, what motivates teachers to follow a school principal? Specifically, I was interested in examining the *process* of the interaction between teachers and a school principal, which arguably reflects the norms associated with the teacher-principal relationship, currently viewed as a leadership-followership relationship. Thus, three research questions were postulated:

Research Questions

This qualitative study endeavoured to answer the following research questions:

1. How do teachers follow?
2. Who do teachers follow?
3. Why do teachers follow?

In an effort to accurately establish the answers to the above questions, two resources were considered: (i) literature review—a review of previous research, and (ii) research findings—an organized reporting of present research. What follows is a continual knitting of the present material and the past research, “a dialogue between the present and the past” (Oakeshott, 1989).

Furthermore, the discussion of research findings that follows is organized using the researcher's model of teacher-principal followership: (i) descriptive behaviours—how do teachers follow, (ii) professional qualities—who do teachers follow, and (iii) personal characteristics—why do teachers follow?

Research Question 1: How do teachers follow?

Behavioural Characteristics

The research findings related to the *Followership Style Questionnaire* were quite conclusive, indicating that all participants (six secondary school teachers and two secondary school principals) possess the *exemplary* followership style. According to Kelley's (1992) *The Power of Followership*, those demonstrating the *exemplary* followership style perform well on two dimensions of leadership. First, they exhibit independent, critical thinking, separate of colleagues and/or administrators. Second, they display active behaviours, applying their skill-sets toward the betterment of their organization, despite obstacles associated to bureaucracy and/or perceived apathetic colleagues. Additionally, Kelley (1992) partitioned the behaviours associated with the *exemplary* followership style into three distinct areas: (a) job skills, (b) organizational skills, and (c) values components.

Exemplary Followership Style

Speaking to Kelley's first dimension, independent, critical thinking, many of the research participants verbalized the importance of keeping their mind on the end goal, demonstrating a commitment to the job, and having a sense of awareness and purpose, behaviours generalized by (Mushonga & Torrance, 2008). Furthermore, research

participants who specifically verbalized words like independence and autonomy, referred to each as *intrinsic* motivators, which assisted in the level of ease they felt when performing their duties. As well, participants who spoke about their commitment, referred to the quality of the job performed as an *intrinsic motivator* toward completing their tasks accurately and in a timely manner. In fact, several studies have concluded that how teachers follow is related to job satisfaction and a willingness to do a good job beyond what is expected and/or required (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Eres, 2011; Eyal & Roth, 2011; Moye, Henkin, & Egle, 2005). Finally, research participants indicated that their autonomy promoted a sense of overall wellness and contributed significantly to their feeling of happiness.

Addressing Kelley's second dimension, active behaviours, all research participants verbalized their behaviours related to active followership as, questioning the leader, taking the initiative, moving towards the leader's "line", and being engaged, behaviours conceptualized by (Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, & Bullock, 2009). Moreover, research participants who verbalized words like initiative and/or enthusiastic indicated that each were *intrinsic* motivators, which contributed to their competence and level of engagement when completing their duties. Additionally, participants who spoke about their questioning, referred to uniqueness of the job as an *intrinsic* motivator, which influences the amount of preparation and practice needed to achieve proficiency. Incidentally, there are some studies that address the question of how teachers follow from the perspective of intrinsic motivation and its link to the context of the work (Davis & Wilson, 2000; Eimers, 1997; Fresko, Kfri & Nasser, 1997). Lastly, research participants

articulated that their level of competence directly impacted their sense of confidence throughout their interactions with their student, co-workers, and the school principal.

Effective Follower

Next, the research findings related to the *Effective Followership Survey*, were equally conclusive, indicating that all participants (six secondary school teachers and two secondary school principals) demonstrated an understanding of the concept of *effective* followership, and had a positive feeling regarding how their organization (a secondary school) encourages team members (teachers) and their leader (principal) to demonstrate role-appropriate *effective* followership behaviours. In support, Kelley (1988) articulated four essential qualities of effective followers: (i) manage themselves well, (ii) committed to a higher purpose, (iii) build their strengths, and (iv) take risks.

Essential Qualities

Collectively, research participant cited some or all of the qualities outlined above as consistent with their own teaching practices. *Manage themselves well* speaks to research participants' responses associated to autonomy, where they are able to manage their motivations, engagement, and expertise. *Committed to a higher purpose* addresses research participants' responses connected to common goals, where they offer to the leader (principal) their feedback, adherence, and enthusiasm. *Build their strengths* expresses research participants' responses linked to professionalism, where they offer to themselves opportunities to improve knowledge, appreciation, and skills. *Take risks* convey research participants' responses related to character, demonstrated when autonomy, common goals, and professionalism are realized. Kelley (1988, p. 145) stated

“In an organization of effective followers, a leader tends to be more an overseer of change and progress than a hero. As organizational structures flatten, the quality of those who follow will become more and more important.”

Research Question 2: Who do teachers follow?

Professional Qualities

The research findings related to the two interviews, Interview Protocol #1 and #2, which research participants completed, supported substantially the previous findings related to the style of followership exhibited and their associated behavioural characteristics. First, there were three (3) *specific* professional qualities that were identified by the research participants as being expected of the leader to encourage active followership: (a) supportive, (b) decisive, and (c) communicative.

In addition to the *specific* professional qualities expected of leaders (principals), to encourage active followership, several *general* professional qualities were expressed and classified using *archetypes* and *roles*. The following is a brief summary of the four *archetypes* and *roles* organization, grouped in their respective classifications: (i) *archetypes*—administrator, colleague, leader, and citizen, and (ii) *roles*—facilitator, collaborator, coordinator, and advisor.

Specific

First, research participants discussed the importance that having a leader (principal) who is *supportive* had on their success as a follower (teacher). In fact, the extent to which the leader (principal) provided such support to the follower (teacher)

contributed notably to the quality of followership demonstrated, particularly the amount of effort necessary. It should be noted that such support was described as a responsibility of the leader, allowing the follower confidence to take risks where appropriate. While the leader being supportive was consistently stated, it should be noted that research participants emphasized the symbiotic nature of such support, whereby the leader's support encourages the follower's support. McGregor's (1960) *Theory Y* addresses the consequence of organizational leadership, which is dependent on workers as active participants in achieving organizational goals.

Second, research participants articulated the consequence that having a leader (principal) who is *decisive* had on their achievement as a follower (teacher). Specifically, they choose to relay numerous circumstances where the leader (principal) was indecisive, to illustrate their particular viewpoint. Of significance was the clear frustration expressed by each of the research participants as they describe their dealings with such a leader (principal). In fact, there were connections made to having a leader (principal) who is supportive and to the nature of the follower (teacher), in terms of their followership style and behavioural characteristics. In other words, the research participants noted how difficult it was for them to be successful in an environment where they were not the final decision-making authority, having to rely on leaders (principals) who presumably lacked the skill-sets necessary to be effective in this area. In contrast, research participants cited fewer examples of decisive leaders (principals); however, those noted were described as confident, competent, and highly motivated. Again, the expectation of the leader (principal) being *decisive* was put forth with the premise that if the follower (teacher) is to be active in their followership, then there needs to be leaders (principals) who are able

to contribute in a timely and intelligent manner towards this goal. Accordingly, Hersey and Blanchard (1996) noted that effective leadership was dependent on *maturity* factors related to the tasks undertaken and the individuals undertaking those tasks.

Finally, research participants discussed the implication that having a leader (principal) who is *communicative* had on their actions as a follower (teacher). Without question, the quality and frequency of the communication offered by the leader (principal) impacted the level of engagement the follower (teacher) exhibited. In fact, research participants linked communication to the success of realizing the ideas and objectives of the organizational institution (a secondary school). Furthermore, they described a holistic relationship between effective communication, and the supportiveness and decisiveness of the leader (principal). The research findings supported this apparent relationship in that numerous responses reflected the desired of followers (teachers) to have leaders (principals) who were adept at conveying their ideas and the specific objectives necessary to realize those ideas. As well, research participants expressed their need for the leader (principal) to demonstrate competencies regarding the receipt of feedback associated to the ideas and objectives put forth by the followers (teachers) to actualize the ideas and objectives successfully. Burns (1978) described this as an inter-reliant relationship between leaders and followers where each reinforced their respective position of influence over time. Interestingly, some research participants associated a lack of communication with a lack of honesty, ethics, and decisiveness; however, this viewpoint was predominant among research participants who possess the greatest amount of experiences based on the number of years as a teacher. So, on the

surface, there appeared to be a connection between years of teaching experience and the perceived impact of communication in the teacher-principal relationship.

General

Collectively, the *archetypes* and *roles* outlined above represent a generalized description of the research participants viewpoints related to who do teachers follow? While these classifications assisted in reinforcing the specific professional qualities identified thematically, they were not exhaustive and did not represent all research participants' opinions. However, it was clear from the research participants' responses that the leader (principal) was viewed in an overall positive way, and that there was a genuine appreciation expressed for the numerous responsibilities associated with the position of principal. Intriguingly, the leadership style of the leader (principal), which was not the emphasis of this study and not discussed in detail, has been highlighted by the above generalizations of professional qualities expressed by research participants. Interestingly, when the research participants were asked questions related to the leadership style employed by the leader (principal), they responded in the positive, indicating that it did affect their willingness to follow. In fact, Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) suggested that there might be a connection between the principal's leadership style and teacher motivation. It should be noted that the research findings, while supporting that leadership style had an influence, also suggested that the style of followership and the associated behavioural characteristics had a more significant impact on the action of followership.

Research Question 3: Why do teachers follow?

Personal Characteristics

The research findings related to the two interviews, Interview Protocol #1 and #2, which research participants completed, supported substantially the previous findings related to the style of followership exhibited and their associated behavioural characteristics. First, there were three (3) *specific* personal characteristics that were identified by the research participants as being important for the leader to model to encourage effective followership: (a) trust, (b) respect, and (c) vision.

In addition to the *specific* personal characteristics expected of leaders (principals) to encourage active followership, several *general* personal characteristics were expressed and classified using *archetypes* and *roles*, respectively. The following is a brief summary of the four *archetypes* and *roles* categorization, listed in their respective classifications: (i) *archetypes*—coach, teammate, cheerleader, spectator and (ii) *roles*—motivator, listener, encourager, celebrator.

Specific

First, research participants discussed the importance that having a leader (principal) who is worthy of *trust* had on their success as a follower (teacher). While numerous qualities have been discussed in relation to the leader (principal), none have spoken to the type of person that the leader (principal) represents. Overwhelmingly, research participants stated that trust was paramount, among the characteristics modeled by the leader (principal). Their responses were quite direct, passionate, and poignant when relaying their experiences related to their interactions with leaders (principals).

Trust, as described by all research participants, was the cornerstone on which their entire relationship with the leader (principal) was built. Many referred to trust as the single most important characteristic necessary for taken direction from the leader (principal) without questioning or at least being apprehensive with regards to said request. Again, research participants tied it all together, citing all the professional qualities outlined as contributing to the level of trust offered. It could be inferred, from the research findings, that trust is developed over time and requires of the leader (principal), an on-going commitment to those who follow (teachers). According to (Covey, 1989), “Trust is the highest form of human motivation because it brings out the very best in people” (p. 178).

Next, research participants articulated the importance that having a leader (principal) who garners *respect* had on their achievement as a follower (teacher). Similar to trust, respect ranked extremely high among the personal characteristics necessary for the leader (principal) to model, because of the implications associated with a lack of respect. Not surprisingly, research participants chose to express how a lack of respect would impact their willingness to follow, stating that without respect for the leader (principal), they would simply minimize their involvement and perhaps seek to have the leader (principal) replaced or in extreme circumstances change their own job location. Specifically, most research participants stated that when their professionalism, autonomy, and commitment were in question, they felt extremely disrespected. Notably, in addition to the leader (principal) garnering respect, research participants also stated conclusively, that the leader (principal) must be given respect throughout their interactions with followers (teachers), through premeditated actions; so, a reciprocation of respect appears to be required between leaders (principals) and followers (teachers). Fielder (1978) noted

that if the leader is accepted and respected by followers, if the task assigned is relatively well structured, and if the leader is perceived as being in complete control of all decisions, then the situation was favourable.

Finally, research participants discussed the implication that having a leader (principal) who has a *vision* had on their actions as a follower (teacher). Conclusively, all research participants made some mention of the awareness, articulation, and realizing of a vision by the leader (principal) through to the followers (teachers). Again, this single characteristic of the leader (principal) seems to encapsulate the entirety of the follower's (teacher's) expectations. When expressing the need to see this characteristic modeled in the leader (principal), followers (teachers) seemed to use words like supportive, decisive, communicative, trust, and respect; indicating, that in order for the leader (principal) to be able to realize an ultimate vision, he or she must demonstrate the qualities and characteristic indicative of a leader (principal) worth following. Contrastingly, research participants expressed consensus with regards to following a leader (principal) absent of a clear vision or the inability to actualize common goals. It should be noted that some research participants linked the word *vision* with the phrase "common goals". Therefore, I have chosen to consider these reciprocally in discussing the research findings.

According to Yukl (2002) a leader's success could be measured by an ability to express a clear vision, and an encouragement of the follower's vision. Likewise, Kelley (1988) defined leadership and followership independently, stating that an essential component of leadership was articulating a vision, and an essential component of followership was to perceive a vision.

General

Collectively, the *archetypes* and *roles* outlined above represent a generalized description of the research participants viewpoints related to why do teachers follow? While these classifications assisted in reinforcing the specific personal characteristics identified thematically, they were not exhaustive and did not represent all research participants' opinions. However, it was clear from the research participants' responses that the leader (principal) was viewed in an overall positive manner, and that there was a genuine appreciation expressed for the numerous personal sacrifices exhibited on a daily basis. Furthermore, research participants noted that while they considered themselves leaders, they were not prepared to assume the myriad of responsibilities surrounding the position of principal. As well, there was acknowledgement among the research participants that the level of personal attention contributed by the leader (principal) towards the establishing of trust, the building of respect, and the demonstrating of vision demands a collective effort that is not always present. Furthermore, research participants confided being on staffs where the goals of the leader were undermined by a group of very determined individuals preoccupied with their own needs and not necessarily the overall needs of the educational organization (a secondary school). However, research participants concluded that while they have seen many leaders (principals) in their tenure, those that demonstrated the professional qualities outlined (supportive, decisive, and communicative), and the professional characteristics described (trust, respect, and vision), exemplified the very best administrators who possessed "a clear passion and vision for education." It should be noted that all research participants acknowledged working with a leader (principal) who embodied many of the qualities articulated above.

Limitations

I conclude the discussion of findings section by briefly outlining the limitations associated with this research study. First, the *Followership Style Questionnaire* was used exclusively to evaluate the style of followership exhibited by each research participant. Likewise, the *Effective Followership Survey* was used singularly to determine research participants' understanding of the concept of *effective* followership, and whether they had a positive feeling regarding how their organization (a secondary school) encouraged team members (teachers) and their leader (principal) to demonstrate role-appropriate *effective* followership behaviours. While the questionnaire and survey used were validated by their designers and reliable based on their established use, they only provided a proximate measure of the two relevant factors discussed in the study, followership style and effective followership, respectively. Next, the sole use of two 1-hour (one-on-one, face-to-face) interviews to establish research participants (teachers) viewpoints about how, who, and why they follow a leader (school principal), only provided a disjunctive perspective, given that leaders' (principals') qualities and characteristics were not examined first hand; however, this limitation was addressed by including two secondary school principals in the research sample. Finally, I chose to limit this study to the analysis of individual research participants' responses associated to a single educational organization (Victoria High School); arguably, a number of the constructs discussed could be analyzed at both the individual and as organizational characteristics. In spite of these (and other) limitations, I have provided some insights on the three research questions that I posed earlier and their connection to the purpose of the study, and specifically to the thesis question, *what motivates teachers to follow a school principal?*

Major Conclusions

Style of Followership

Based on the findings associated with the *style of followership* demonstrated, I was extremely and admittedly surprised to discover that all of the participants included were identified as having the *exemplary* followership style, what Kelley (1992) described as the ideal type of follower. I considered this a major conclusion because it speaks directly to my feeling that the actions of the follower impacts significantly on the actions of the leader. Being identified as exhibiting the *exemplary* followership style further established the role that teachers as followers play in an organizational environment (a secondary school), which admittedly demands of its constituents, active engagement.

Also, the findings related to the style of followership demonstrated were supported independently, and conclusively determined that all participants understood what it means to be an *effective* follower. Additionally, participants had expectations of their work environment (a secondary school) pertaining to the modeling of the behavioural characteristics consistent with effective followership. Furthermore, it was quite apparent from the findings that participants exhibited, through their responses, the essential qualities associated with *effective* followers. Moreover, the behavioural characteristics described by participants highlighted why professional autonomy was extremely important, given participants desire as *effective* followers to, think for themselves, realize values outside of themselves, stretch themselves professionally, and challenge the authority (principal) of the educational organization, when needed.

Criteria for Followership

Based on the findings connected to the *criteria for followership*, I was surprised at the overall positive responses that participants articulated regarding their experiences with educational leaders (secondary school principals). I would have expected that the experiences would be more mixed, including a greater number of negative responses; however, responses reflected a feeling of a positive shift concerning qualities of individuals occupying the leader's (principal's) role. Additionally, this overall positive outlook further emphasized previously discovered finding related to the *exemplary* followership style and by extension, the *effective* follower. I consider this a major conclusion because it placed greater significance on the findings related to the criteria for followership that followers (teachers) sought in their leaders (principals). Notably, the specific and general professional qualities in a sense described the behavioural characteristic exhibited by the followers (teachers). So, I would argue that the followers (teachers) in the study expected of their leaders (principals) what they expected of themselves. Furthermore, while there were numerous qualities identified, the responses were articulated simply because they were solicited and not as some indictment of the leader (principal) and their value to the educational institution (a secondary school).

Rationale for Followership

Based on the findings related to the *rationale for followership*, I was not surprised at the overall positive responses that participants articulated regarding their experiences with educational leaders (secondary school principals). This was based on my overall impressions of the participants, given their confidence, knowledge, and experience in the

business of education. While this may not be considered a major conclusion, it was reassuring to see that similar findings resulted from examining another vantage point. Similar to my conclusions regarding the professional qualities chronicled, the personal characteristics outlined throughout the two interviews, while consistent, were not unique to the environment studied and in fact, was expected based on the present literature on leadership and followership. What was notable however, was again the connection between the *criteria for followership* and *rationale for followership* with the behavioural characteristic of the *effective follower* and therefore, the *style of followership*.

Summary

While there are numerous conclusions that may follow from this study, I have endeavoured to suggest that the behaviours of the follower (teacher) have a significant influence on the interactions between followers (teachers) and a leader (principal). While the role of the leader is predominant in the majority of literature related to leadership studies, it has been evolving. Consequently, as the current leadership perspectives change, so should the perspectives on followership, specifically the significance of the role of the follower. Baker (2007) concluded that *followership research* seeks to highlight the impact of followers on leaders by contemplating two primary questions: (1) how do the personal qualities of the followers influence leaders, and (2) how can followers, through their actions, engage in self-leadership? In fact, followership theory suggests, “leader and follower are not either/or propositions in which leaders and followers are found at opposite ends of a continuum” (Hollander & Webb, 1955). Therefore, if the findings of this study are considered conclusive, then it appears that active followership is an essential component of the teacher-principal relationship.

Recommendations

Given the findings of the research study, recommendations related to three (3) areas are considered: (i) practitioners, (ii) policy makers, and (iii) future research.

Practitioners

With regards to practitioners (teachers and principals), it is suggested that each continues to consider their role in relation to the other. Consequently, it has been postulated that the *intrinsic motivators* inherent to the style of followership employed and the presence of specific professional qualities and personal characteristics inherent in the leadership modeled, contributes to the significance of the follower's (teacher's) role in this relationship. According to (Crippen, 2012), "A simple dialogue between colleagues can reveal personal preferences for circumstances that encourage either leadership or followership and an appreciation for individual and group strengths and weaknesses. The question is, "Where are you now?"" (p. 4).

Policy Makers

With regards to policy makers (ministry, school districts, school boards), it is suggested that an identification protocol be established to determine whether potential leaders (principals) possess the professional qualities and personal characteristics identified in this study, and that a professional development strategy be implemented to encourage leaders (principals) in these areas. It is further suggested that steps be put in place to develop the essential qualities associated with *effective* followers to hopefully promote the behavioural characteristics related to the *exemplary* followership style.

Future Research

First, it is suggested that the population be expanded to include students. By expanding the population, it is hoped that the findings of this study can be used to inform the emerging conversation regarding followership style in schools from the perspective of the teacher-student relationship, considered in this context as a leadership-followership relationship. According to (Crippen, 2012), “understanding the leadership-followership dynamic in the school may promote inclusivity, transparent interaction, and authenticity for all members of the school community” (p. 1).

Next, it is suggested that the sample be expanded to include teachers from a greater number of schools and a variety of educational models (both private and public sector). By expanding the sample, it is hoped that the style of followership exhibited by participants in this study would be representative of a greater sample, thereby giving greater emphasis to the research findings. “We must understand the functions of both leadership and followership in our organization and that the role of followers and the motivation of followers will have an impact on the effectiveness of the group and the organizational leadership specifically” (Crippen, 2012, p. 193).

Finally, it is recommended that a different methodology be used to analyze the data from another perspective. To that end, perhaps a change of method (interviews, questionnaire, survey) could be employed to determine the style of followership displayed based on verbal and/or written responses to questions related to the behavioural characteristics identified by Kelley (1988) as essential qualities. At this point, further research is warranted to answer the myriad of questions resulting from this study.

References

- Agho, A. O. (2009). Perspectives of senior-level executives on effective followership and leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 16*(2), 159-166.
- Alcorn, D. S. (1992). Dynamic followership: Empowerment at work. *Management Quarterly, 33*(1), 9-13.
- Allio, R. J. (2009). Leadership – the five big ideas. *Strategy and Leadership, 37*(2), 4-12.
- Allport, G. W. (1937). *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York, NY: Henry Holt and Company.
- Atchison, T. A. (2004). *Followership: A practical guide to aligning leaders and followers*. Chicago, IL: Health Administration Press.
- Avolio, B. J., Waldman, D. A., & Einstein, W. O. (1988). Transformational leadership in a management game situation. *Group and Organization Management, 13*(1), 59-80.
- Avolio, B. J., Waldman, D. A., & Yammarino, F. J. (1991). Leading in the 1990s: The four I's of transformational leadership. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 15*(4), 9-16.
- Baker, S. D. (2007). Followership The theoretical foundation of a contemporary construct. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 14*(1), 50-60.
- Barnabé, C., & Burns, M. (1994). Teachers' job characteristics and motivation. *Educational Research, 36*(2), 171-185.

- Barnard, C. I. (1968). *The functions of the executive* (11). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1981). *Stogdill's handbook of leadership* (Rev ed.). New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (2000). The future of leadership in learning organizations. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 7(3), 18-40.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bass, B. M., & Stogdill, R. M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Bennis, W. G. (1989). *On becoming a leader*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Bennis, W. G., & Nanus, B. (1997). *Leaders: Strategies for taking charge*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- Bernard, L. L. (1926). *An introduction to social psychology*. New York, NY: Henry Holt and Company.
- Bingham, W. V., & Davis, W. T. (1927). Leadership. In H. E. Metcalf (Ed.), *The psychological foundations of management*. New York, NY: Shaw.

- Bird, C. (1940). *Social psychology*. New York, NY: Appleton-Century.
- Bjugstad, K. (2004). Internet book search on leadership and followership. Retrieved October 15, 2004, from <http://www.amazon.com.html>.
- Bjugstad, K., Thach, E. C., Thompson, K. J., & Morris, A. (2006). A fresh look at followership: A model for matching followership and leadership styles. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 7(3), 304-319.
- Blanchard, A. L., Welbourne, J., Gilmore, D., & Bullock, A. (2009). Followership styles and employee attachment to the organization. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 12(2), 111-131.
- Block, P. (1993). *Stewardship: Choosing service over self interest*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Bottum, B., & Lenz, D. (1998). Within our reach: Servant leadership for the twenty-first century. In L. C. Spears (Ed.), *Insights on leadership service, stewardship, spirit, and servant leadership* (pp. 157-169). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Briggs, A. R. (2004). Middle managers in further education colleges: The new professionals. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 42(5), 586-600.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Burns, J. M. (2003). *Transforming leadership*. New York, NY: Atlantic Monthly Press.
- Caldwell, C., Bischoff, S. J., & Karri, R. (2002). The four umpires: A paradigm for ethical leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 36(1-2), 153-163.

- Carlson, D. S., & Perrewe, P. L. (1995). Institutionalization of organizational ethics through transformational leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics, 14*(10), 829-838.
- Carlyle, T. (1902). The hero as king. In J. T. Wren (Ed.), *The leader's companion* (pp. 53-54). New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & McGregor, R. (2010). Exploring social constructions of followership: A qualitative study. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*(3), 543-562.
- Chaleff, I. (1995). *The courageous follower: standing up to & for our leaders*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.
- Chaleff, I. (2008). Creating new ways of following. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Blumen (Eds.), *The art of followership: how great followers create great leaders and organizations* (pp. 67-87). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Ciulla, J. B. (2003). *The ethics of leadership*. Belmont, CA: Thompson Wadsworth.
- Clawson, J. G. (1999). *Level three leadership: Getting below the surface*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Collinson, D. (2006). Rethinking followership: A post-structuralist analysis of follower identities. *The Leadership Quarterly, 17*(2), 179-189.
- Conger, J. A., Kanungo, R. N., & Menon, S. T. (2000). Charismatic leadership and follower effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21*(7), 747-767.

- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Four ways five factors are basic. *Personality and Individual Differences, 13*(6), 653-665.
- Covey, S. R. (1989). *The 7 habits of highly effective people*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches (3 ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Crippen, C. (2005). The democratic school: First to serve, then to lead. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy, 47*(5), 1-17.
- Crippen, C. (2012). Enhancing authentic leadership-followership: Strengthening school relationships. *Management in Education, 26*(4), 192-198.
- Crippen, C. (2012). The importance of followership in schools: First, teacher awareness. *Education Canada, 62*(5), 1-8.
- Crosby, P. B. (1996). *The absolutes of leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Crossman, B., & Crossman, J. (2011). Conceptualising followership—a review of the literature. *Leadership, 7*(4), 481-497.
- Davis, J., & Wilson, S. M. (2000). Principals' efforts to empower teachers: Effects on teacher motivation and job satisfaction and stress. *The Clearing House, 73*(6), 349-353.
- Den Hartog, D. N., & Koopman, P. L. (2005). Implicit theories of leadership at different hierarchical levels. In B. Schyns & J. Meindl (Eds.), *Implicit leadership theories:*

Essays and explorations (pp. 135-157). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Dixon, G., & Westbrook, J. (2003). Followers revealed. *Engineering Management Journal*, 15(1), 19-25.

Drafke, M. W., & Kossen, S. (1998). *The human side of organizations*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

DuBrin, A. J., Dalglish, C., & Miller, P. J. (2006). *Leadership: 2nd Asia-Pacific edition*. Milton, Australia: John Wiley & Sons.

Eimers, M. T. (1997). The role of intrinsic enjoyment in motivating faculty. *Thought & Action*, 13(2), 125-142.

Eres, F. (2011). Relationship between teacher motivation and transformational leadership characteristics of school principals. *International Journal of Education*, 3(2), E4.

Eyal, O., & Roth, G. (2011). Principals' leadership and teachers' motivation: Self-determination theory analysis. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 49(3), 256-275.

Eysenck, H. J. (1967). *The biological basis of personality*. Springfield, IL: Thomas.

Eysenck, H. J. (1991). Dimensions of personality: 16, 5 or 3?—Criteria for a taxonomic paradigm. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 12(8), 773-790.

Fielder, F. E. (1978). The contingency model and the dynamics of the leadership process. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 11, 59-112.

- Flowerday, T., & Schraw, G. (2000). Teacher beliefs about instructional choice: A phenomenological study. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92*(4), 634-645.
- Follett, M. P. (1949). *The essentials of leadership*. London, England: Management Publications Trust.
- Ford, L. (1991). *Transforming leadership: Jesus' way of creating vision, shaping values & empowering change*. Downers Grove, IL: Intervarsity Press.
- Foster, W. (1989). Toward a critical practice of leadership. In J. Smyth (Ed.), *Critical perspectives on educational leadership* (pp. 39-62). Basingstoke, England: The Falmer Press.
- Fresko, B., Kfir, D., & Nasser, F. (1997). Predicting teacher commitment. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 13*(4), 429-438.
- Frew, D. R. (1977). Leadership and followership. *Personnel Journal, 56*(2), 90-97.
- Gardner, H. E. (1997). *Leading minds – An anatomy of leadership*. London, England: Harper Collins.
- Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., May, D. R., & Walumbwa, F. (2005). Can you see the real me? A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The Leadership Quarterly, 16*(3), 343-372.
- Gibbons, P. T. (1992). Impacts of organizational evolution on leadership roles and behaviors. *Human Relations, 45*(1), 1-18.

- Glickman, C. D., Gordon, S. P., & Ross-Gordon, J. M. (2009). *The basic guide to supervision and instructional leadership* (2 ed.). Toronto, ON: Pearson Education.
- Goffee, R., & Jones, G. E. (2006). *Why should anyone be led by you?: What it takes to be an authentic leader*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Graham, P. (Ed.). (1995). *Mary Parker Follett: Prophet of management*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Greene, J. C., & Caracelli, V. J. (Eds.). (1997). *Advances in mixed-method evaluation: The challenges and benefits of integrating diverse paradigms*. (New Directions for Evaluation, No. 47). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1970). *The servant as leader*. Indianapolis, IN: The Robert K. Greenleaf Centre.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1972). *The institution as servant*. Indianapolis, IN: The Greenleaf Center.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness*. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1996). Leadership and the individual: The dartmouth lectures. In D. M. Frick & L. C. Spears (Eds.), *On becoming a servant leader* (pp. 284-338). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Grinin, L. (2010). The role of an individual in history: A reconsideration. *Social Evolution and History*, 9(2), 95-136.

- Gronn, P. (1998). Our playmates: The culture of teaming in a human resource management unit. *Leading and Managing*, 4(4), 294-318.
- Gronn, P. (2003). Leadership: who needs it? *School Leadership & Management*, 23(3), 267-291.
- Hackman, J. R., & Wageman, R. (2007). Asking the right questions about leadership. *American Psychologist*, 62(1), 43-47.
- Harvey, M. (2001). The hidden force: A critique of normative approaches to business leadership. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 66(4), 36-47.
- Haslam, S. A. (2004). *Psychology in organizations: The social identity approach* (2 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Haslam, S. A., & Platow, M. J. (2001). The link between leadership and followership: How affirming social identity translates vision into action. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27(11), 1469-1479.
- Heller, T., & Van Til, J. (1982). Leadership and followership: Some summary propositions. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 18(3), 405-414.
- Hemphill, J. K., & Coons, A. E. (1957). Development of the leader behavior description questionnaire. In R. M. Stoghill & A. E. Coons (Eds.), *Leader behavior: Its description and measurement* (pp. 6-38). Columbus, OH: Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research.

- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1982). *Management of organizational behavior* (4 ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1996). Great ideas revisited. *Training and Development*, 50(1), 42-49.
- Herzberg, F. (1966). *Work and the nature of man*. New York, NY: World Publishing.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Hickman, G. R. (1998). *Leading organizations: Perspectives for a new era*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hollander, E. P. (1992). Leadership, followership, self, and others. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 3(1), 43-54.
- Hollander, E. P., & Webb, W. B. (1955). Leadership, followership, and friendship: An analysis of peer nominations. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 50(2), 163-167.
- Hook, S. (1943). *The hero in history: A study in limitation and possibility*. Boston, MA: Beacon Press.
- Horsfall, C. (2001). Team leaders make a difference in raising achievement. In C. Horsfall (Ed.), *Leadership issues: Raising Achievement*. London, England: Learning and Skills Development Agency.

- House, R. J. (1977). A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership effectiveness. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge*. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Howell, J. M., & Costley, D. (2006). *Understanding behaviours for effective leadership*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Howell, J. M., & Shamir, B. (2005). The role of followers in the charismatic leadership process: Relationships and their consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(1), 96-112.
- Hughes, R. L., Ginnett, R. C., & Curphy, G. J. (1993). *Leadership: Enhancing the lessons of experience*. Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin.
- Hurst, D. K. (1992). Thoroughly modern-Mary Parker Follett. *The Business Quarterly*, 56(4), 55-58.
- Heifetz, R., Grashow, A., & Linsky, M. (2009). Leadership in a (permanent) crisis. *Harvard Business Review*, 87(7/8), 62-69.
- Jacobs, T. O. (1970). *Leadership and exchange in formal organizations*. Alexandria, VA: Human Resources Organization.
- James, W. (2005). *Great men and their environment*. Kila, MT: Kessinger Publishing.
- Janda, K. F. (1960). Towards the explication of the concept of leadership in terms of the concept of power. *Human Relations*, 13(4), 345-363.

- Jaussi, K. S., Stefanovich, A., & Devlin, P. G. (2008). Effective followership for creativity and innovation. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Blument (Eds.), *The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations* (pp. 291-307). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Johnson, C. E. (2007). *Ethics in the workplace: Tools and tactics for organizational transformation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(8), 949-964.
- Kark, R., & Van Dijk, D. (2007). Motivation to lead, motivation to follow: The role of the self-regulatory focus in leadership processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), 500-528.
- Kassin, S. M. (2003). *Psychology*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Keeley, M. (2009). The trouble with transformational leadership. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 5(1), 67-96.
- Kellerman, B. (2007). What every leader needs to know about followers. *Harvard Business Review*, 85(12), 84-91.
- Kellerman, B. (2008). *Followership: How followers are creating change and changing leaders*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.
- Kelley, R. E. (1988). In praise of followers. *Harvard Business Review*, 66(6), 142-148.

- Kelley, R. E. (1992). *The power of followership*. New York, NY: Doubleday.
- Kelley, R. E. (1998). Followership in a leadership world. In L. C. Spears (Ed.), *Insights on leadership: Service, stewardship, spirit, and servant leadership* (pp. 170-184). Toronto, ON: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kelley, R. E. (2008). Rethinking followership. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Blument (Eds.), *The art of followership: how great followers create great leaders and organizations* (pp. 5-15). New York, NY: Doubleday.
- Kilbourne, C. E. (1935). The elements of leadership. *Journal of Coast Artillery*, 78, 437-439.
- Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1996). Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(1), 36-51.
- Kochan, T. A., Schmidt, S. M., & DeCotiis, T. A. (1975). Superior-subordinate relations: Leadership and headship. *Human Relations*, 28(3), 279-294.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1993). *Credibility*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1987). *The leadership challenge* (1 ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Lawler, E. E., & Porter, L. W. (1967). The effect of performance on job satisfaction. *Industrial relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 7(1), 20-28.

- Lawrence, P. R., & Lorsch, J. W. (1967). *Organization and environment: Managing differentiation and integration*. Boston, MA: Harvard University.
- Lipham, J. M. (1981). *Effective school, effective principal*. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.
- Lubin, K. A. (2001). Visionary leader behaviors and their congruency with servant leadership characteristics. *Dissertation Abstract Online*, 3022943.
- Mack, N., Woodsong, C., MacQueen, K. M., Guest, G., & Namey, E. (2005). Qualitative research methods overview. In *Qualitative Research Methods: A Data Collector's Field Guide* (pp. 1-12). Family Health International.
- Maslow, A. H. (1959). *New knowledge in human values*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Matthews, K. M. (1979). Improving academic performance. *The Educational Forum* 44(1), 59-70.
- Matthews, K. M., & Brown, C. L. (1976). The principal's influence on student achievement. *NASSP Bulletin*, 60(402), 1-15.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(1), 81-90.
- McGregor, D. (1960). *The human side of enterprise*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- McKenna, E. F. (2000). *Business psychology and organisational behaviour: A student's handbook*. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

- Meindl, J. R. (1995). The romance of leadership as a follower-centric theory: A social constructionist approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(3), 329-341.
- Morgan, G. (1997). *Images of organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Moye, M. J., Henkin, A. B., & Egley, R. J. (2005). Teacher-principal relationships: Exploring linkages between empowerment and interpersonal trust. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 43(3), 260-277.
- Mumford, M. D., Antes, A. L., Caughron, J. J., & Friedrich, T. L. (2008). Charismatic, ideological, and pragmatic leadership: Multi-level influences on emergence and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(2), 144-160.
- Mushonga, S. M., & Torrance, C. G. (2008). Assessing the relationship between followership and the big five factor model of personality. *Review of Business Research*, 8(6), 185-193.
- National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research (US). (1979). *The Belmont report: Ethical principles and guidelines for the protection of human subjects of research*. Washington, DC: National Institutes of Health.
- Nye, J. L. (2005). Implicit theories and leadership perceptions in the thick of it. In B. Schyns & J. R. Meindl (Eds.), *Implicit leadership theories: Essays and explorations*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

- Oakeshott, M. (1989). *The voice of liberal learning*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Offermann, L. R., & Scuderi, N. F. (2007). Sharing leadership: Who, what, when, and why. In B. Shamir, R. Pillai, M. Bligh, & M. Uhl-Ben (Eds.), *Follower-centered perspectives on leadership: A tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl* (pp. 71-92). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Patterson, K. A. (2003). *Servant leadership: A theoretical model*. (Doctoral dissertation, Regent University, 2003). (UMI No. 3082719).
- Pawar, B. S., & Eastman, K. K. (1997). The nature and implications of contextual influences on transformational leadership: A conceptual examination. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(1), 80-109.
- Peters, T. J., & Waterman, R. H., Jr. (1982). *In search of excellence*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. (1996). Transformational leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 22(2), 259-298.
- Polleys, M. S. (2002). One university's response to the anti-leadership vaccine: Developing servant leaders. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 8(3), 117-130.

- Potter, E. H., & Rosenbach, W. E. (2006). Followers as partners: The spirit of leadership. In W. Rosenbach & R. Taylor (Eds.), *Contemporary Issues in Leadership* (pp. 143-158). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Rainey, H. G., & Watson, S. A. (1996). Transformational leadership and middle management: Towards a role for mere mortals. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 19(6), 763-800.
- Riggio, R. E., Chaleff, I., & Lipman-Blumen, J. (2008). *The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations* (p. 146). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Rodgers, M., Runyon, D., Starrett, D., & Von Holzen, R. (2006, August). *Teaching the 21st century learner*. Paper presented at the 22nd Annual Conference on Distance Teaching and Learning, University of Wisconsin, Madison.
- Rosenbach, W. E., & Taylor, R. L. (1984). *Contemporary issues in leadership*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Rost, J. C. (1993). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Rost, J. C. (1995). Leadership: A discussion about ethics. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 5(1), 129-142.
- Rost, J. C. (2008). Followership: An outmoded concept. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Blumen (Eds.), *The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations* (pp. 53-66). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Rowley, J. (1996). Motivation and academic staff in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 4(3), 11-16.
- Russell, M. (2003). Leadership and followership as a relational process. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 31(2), 145-157.
- Russell, R. F., & Stone, A. G. (2002). A review of servant leadership attributes: Developing a practical model. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(3), 145-157.
- Sashkin, M. (2004). Transformational leadership approaches. In J. Antonakis, A. Gianciolo, & R. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 171-196). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Schermerhorn, J. R., Hunt, J. G., & Osborn, R. N. (1997). *Organizational behavior* (6 ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Scott, W. R. (1981). *Organization: Rational, natural and open systems*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Selber, K., & Austin, D. M. (1997). Mary Parker Follett: Epilogue to or return of a social work management pioneer? *Administration in Social Work*, 21(1), 1-15.
- Seteroff, S. S. (2003). *Beyond leadership to followership*. Victoria, Canada: Trafford Publishing.
- Shamir, B. (1995). Social distance and charisma: Theoretical notes and an exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(1), 19-47.

- Shamir, B. (2007). From passive recipients to active coproducers: followers' roles in the leadership process. In B. Shamir, R. Pillai, M. Bligh, & M. Uhl-Ben (Eds.), *Follower-centered perspectives on leadership: A tribute to the memory of James R. Meindl* (pp. ix-xxxix). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization Science*, 4(4), 577-594.
- Sipe, J. W., & Frick, D. M. (2009). *Seven pillars of servant leadership: Practicing the wisdom of leading by serving*. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.
- Spencer, H. (1896). *The study of sociology*. New York, NY: D. Appleton and Company.
- Starratt, R. J. (2011). *Refocusing school leadership: Foregrounding human development throughout the work of the school*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Stech, E. L. (2008). A new leadership-followership paradigm. In R. Riggio, I. Chaleff, & J. Lipman-Blumen (Eds.), *The art of followership: How great followers create great leaders and organizations* (pp. 41-52). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Steger, J. A., Manners, G. E., Jr., & Zimmerman, T. W. (1982). Following the leader: How to link management style to subordinate personalities. *Management Review*, 71(10), 22-28.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1959). *Individual behavior and group achievement*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

- Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of the literature*. New York: NY: The Free Press.
- Stone, A. G., & Patterson, K. (2005, August). *The history of leadership focus*. Paper presented at the Servant Leadership Research Roundtable, Regent University, Virginia Beach, VA.
- Stone, A. G., Russell, R. F., & Patterson, K. (2004). Transformational versus servant leadership: A difference in leader focus. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25(4), 349-361.
- Tannenbaum, R., Weschler, I. R., & Massarik, F. (1961). *Leadership and organization: A behavioral approach*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Tead, O. (1935). *The art of leadership*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Thody, A. (2003). Followership in educational organizations: A pilot mapping of the territory. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 2(2), 141-156.
- Thompson, E. R. (2008). Development and validation of an international English big-five mini-markers. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 45(6), 542-548.
- Thompson, G., & Vecchio, R. P. (2009). Situational leadership theory: A test of three versions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(5), 837-848.
- Thompson, J. D. (1967). *Organizations in action*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Tolstoy, L. (2010). *War and peace*. Oxford, MA: Oxford University Press.

- Townsend, P. L., & Gebhardt, J. E. (1997). *Five-star leadership*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tracey, J. B., & Hinkin, T. R. (1994). Transformational leaders in the hospitality industry. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 35(2), 18-24.
- Uhl-Bien, M. (2005). Implicit theories of relationships in the workplace. In B. Schyn & J. R. Meindl (Eds.), *Implicit leadership theories: Essays and explorations* (pp. 103-133). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Uhl-Bien, M. (2006). Relational leadership theory: Exploring the social processes of leadership and organizing. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(6), 654-676.
- Walsh, A. (2010). Followership: The case for promoting followership within business. *Adrian Walsh Associates*. Retrieved May 13, 2012, from <http://adrianwalsh.com.au/followership.htm>.
- Wolcott, H. (1973). *Man in the principal's office: An Ethnography*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Woods, F. A. (1913). *The influence of monarchs: Steps in a new science of history*. New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Wortman, M. S. (1982). Strategic management and changing leader-follower roles. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 18(3), 371-383.

Wren, J. T. (1995). *The leader's companion: Insights on leadership through the ages*.

New York, NY: The Free Press.

Yukl, G. A. (2002). *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Zaleznik, A. (1965). The dynamics of subordinacy. *Harvard Business Review*, 43(3),

119-131.

Zaleznik, A., & Kets de Vries, M. F. (1975). *Power and the corporate mind*. Boston,

MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Zárate Torres, R. (2009). What followers want from their leaders: An analytical

perspectives. *Cuadernos de Administración (Universidad del Valle)*, 42, 11-23.

Appendix A: Approval for Human Participant Research – University of Victoria



Human Research Ethics Board
 Office of Research Services
 Administrative Services Building
 PO Box 1700 STN CSC
 Victoria British Columbia V8W 2Y2 Canada
 Tel 250-472-4545, Fax 250-721-8960
 ethics@uvic.ca www.research.uvic.ca

Certificate of Approval

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR	Robert Ammon	ETHICS PROTOCOL NUMBER	12-545
UVic STATUS:	Master's Student	ORIGINAL APPROVAL DATE:	15-Jan-13
UVic DEPARTMENT:	EPLS	APPROVED ON:	15-Jan-13
SUPERVISOR:	Dr. Carolyn Crippen	APPROVAL EXPIRY DATE:	14-Jan-14
PROJECT TITLE: Active Followership: An Essential Component in the Teacher-Principal Relationship			
RESEARCH TEAM MEMBERS: None			
DECLARED PROJECT FUNDING: None			
CONDITIONS OF APPROVAL			
This Certificate of Approval is valid for the above term provided there is no change in the protocol.			
Modifications To make any changes to the approved research procedures in your study, please submit a "Request for Modification" form. You must receive ethics approval before proceeding with your modified protocol.			
Renewals Your ethics approval must be current for the period during which you are recruiting participants or collecting data. To renew your protocol, please submit a "Request for Renewal" form before the expiry date on your certificate. You will be sent an emailed reminder prompting you to renew your protocol about six weeks before your expiry date.			
Project Closures When you have completed all data collection activities and will have no further contact with participants, please notify the Human Research Ethics Board by submitting a "Notice of Project Completion" form.			
Certification			
This certifies that the UVic Human Research Ethics Board has examined this research protocol and concluded that, in all respects, the proposed research meets the appropriate standards of ethics as outlined by the University of Victoria Research Regulations Involving Human Participants.			
<hr/> Dr. Rachael Scarth Associate Vice-President, Research			

Certificate Issued On: 16-Jan-13

12-545 Ammon, Robert

Appendix B: Approval to Conduct Research – Victoria High School**OFFICE OF
ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES**

556 BOLESKINE ROAD VICTORIA, BC V8Z 1E8 FAX (250) 475-4112
John Gaipman, Superintendent (250) 475-4159

January 28, 2013

Dear Mr. Ammon:

Thank you for your recent application regarding your research project, *Active Followership: An Essential Component in the Teacher-Principal Relationship*.

Please be advised that your application has been approved to conduct research at Victoria High School and permission to proceed with this project is granted during the 2012-2013 school year.

I wish you success with your studies.

Sincerely,

John Gaipman
Superintendent of Schools

JG/mc

Cc: Randi Falls, Principal, Victoria High School
Mandy Conrad

Appendix C: Interview Protocol #1

Please consider the following questions and share your answer with the interviewer. Feel free to say as much or as little as you would like regarding the questions provided. You may request, at any time, to edit any answers provided previously and may create written notes to assist in your response(s) to each question below. Interview Protocol #1 is a maximum of 1 hour in length.

Initial Questions:

1. What do you think it means when someone is referred to as a leader?
2. What are the characteristics of a leader?
3. Would you describe yourself as a leader?
4. What motivates you as a teacher?
5. What do you think it means when someone is referred to as a follower?
6. What are the characteristics of a follower?
7. Would you describe yourself as a follower?

Supplementary Questions:

8. Who do you follow (general)?
9. Who do you follow as a teacher?
10. How do you follow as a teacher?
11. Why do you follow as a teacher?

Exit Questions:

12. What role does a school principal play in your role as a follower/leader?
13. How would you describe the school principals you have had (leader/follower)?
14. Are there any commonalities among the school principals you have had?
15. Did gender have any influence in the role of the school principals you have had?
16. Why would you not follow a school principal?
17. What are the qualities of your ideal school principal?

Appendix D: Followership Style Questionnaire

Followership Style Questionnaire

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

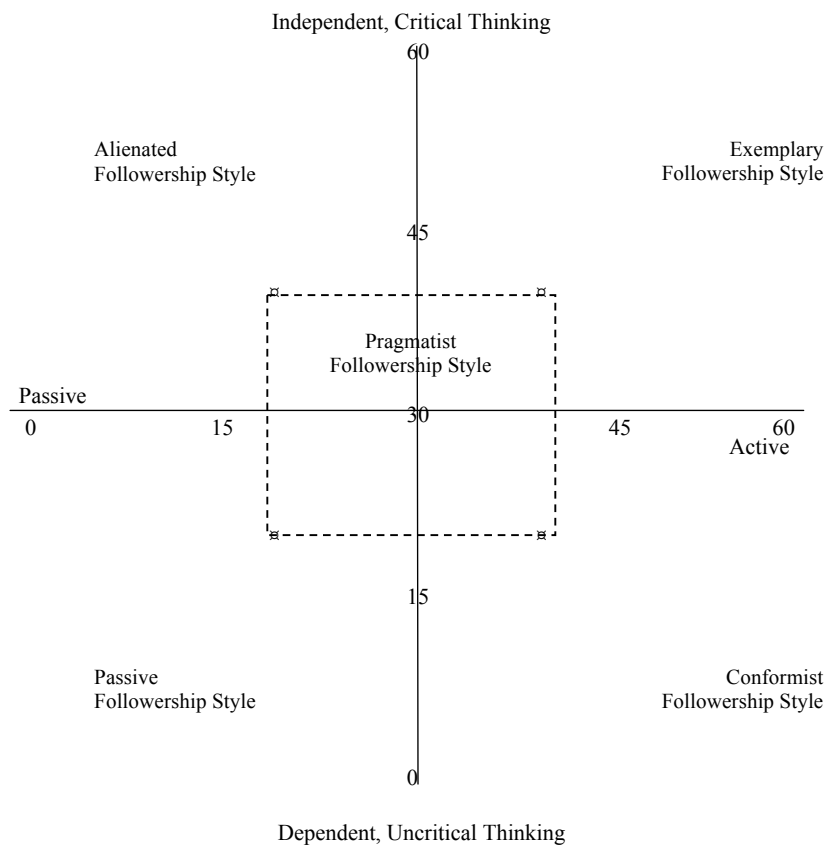
Rarely = 0 ... Occasionally = 3 ... Almost Always = 6

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?							
2. Are your personal work goals aligned with the organization's priority goals?							
3. Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?							
4. Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your co-workers?							
5. Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most crucial for achieving the organization's priority goals?							
6. Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?							
7. When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the leader?							
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 leader's or the organization's goals?							
12. Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the leader to do it for you?							
13. Do you help out other co-workers, making them look good, even when you don't get any credit?							

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

	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 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	



Followership Questionnaire from Robert Kelley's *The Power of Followership*

Appendix E: Effective Followership Survey

EFFECTIVE FOLLOWERSHIP SURVEY

Teams are seen generally as comprising a leader and other members sometimes called followers. Based on your experience working in formal and informal teams please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements:

		Disagree	Not Sure	Agree
1.	Leaders and followers depend on each other for the success of the team.	1	2	3
2.	The work done by followers is recognised and rewarded.	1	2	3
3.	The actions of the leader are of greater importance to the success of the team than are those of other members.	1	2	3
4.	Team members should speak their Minds at all times.	1	2	3
5.	The leader should make the final decision.	1	2	3
6.	The leader is accountable for the actions of the team.	1	2	3
7.	People should accept the decisions of the leader without question.	1	2	3
8.	The team is accountable for the actions of the leader.	1	2	3
9.	People should leave the team if they have serious disagreements with the leader.	1	2	3
10.	People are most effective if they simply do as they are told.	1	2	3
11.	Team members should place loyalty to the cause above all else.	1	2	3
12.	Leaders have difficulty managing effective team members.	1	2	3
13.	Leaders have all the power in teams.	1	2	3
14.	Leaders do not allow team members to perform to the best of their ability.	1	2	3
15.	Team members do not contribute to the best of their ability.	1	2	3
16.	People should make their own decisions independent of other team members.	1	2	3
17.	Team members should take the initiative even when they have not discussed a matter with the leader.	1	2	3
18.	The success of the team depends on the quality of the relationship between the leader and other team members.	1	2	3
19.	Team members hold themselves accountable for their own actions.	1	2	3
20.	Team members trust the leader.	1	2	3
21.	Team members should challenge the words and actions of the leader.	1	2	3

22.	Leaders provide team members with the opportunity to develop their skills.	1	2	3
23.	People have a clear understanding of their role as a member of a team.	1	2	3
24.	Leaders accept that team members know more about their own jobs than they do.	1	2	3
25.	Leaders respect and return the trust of team members.	1	2	3
26.	Leaders know how to get the best from team members.	1	2	3

In the following two questions, please circle whichever of the five responses most accurately describes your own experience:

27. How would you describe the extent of your experience working as a team member (but not the leader)?

1. Very limited
2. Limited
3. Moderate
4. Considerable
5. Extensive

28. How would you describe the extent of your experience working as the leader of a team?

- 1 Very limited
- 2 Limited
- 3 Moderate
- 4 Considerable
- 5 Extensive

In the final two questions, please write your brief comments below the question or, if more space is needed, continue your remarks on the reverse of the sheet:

29. In your view what are the major barriers that stop people from contributing to the best of their ability when they are working as members of a team?

30. What actions could be taken to reduce these barriers?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONTRIBUTION

Appendix F: Interview Protocol #2

Please consider the following questions and share your answer with the interviewer. Feel free to say as much or as little as you would like regarding the questions provided. You may request, at any time, to edit any answers provided previously and may create written notes to assist in your responses to each question below. Interview Protocol #2 is a maximum of 1 hour in length.

Follow up Questions:

1. Reflecting on Interview Protocol #1, are there any questions, impressions, clarifications?
2. Following the questionnaire and survey, are there any questions, impressions?
3. What is the most and least important quality/characteristic of a leader?
4. What is the most and least important quality/characteristic of a follower?
5. How would expect a leader to encourage you to follow?
6. How do you know when the school principal is an effective leader?
7. How do you know when you are being an effective follower?
8. Does the follower have to be engaged in order to be motivated to follow?
9. Does the leader have to model followership in order for you to follow?
10. How does a leader demonstrate being a follower?
11. Does the leadership style employed by the leader affect your willingness to follow?
12. Does the leader and the follow have to have the same perspective?
13. Does it matter if the leader is passive or active in their leadership?
14. Can a passive leader be an effective leader?
15. What do the terms “active follower” and “passive follower” mean to you?

Supplementary Questions:

16. Does the leader determine the follower’s styles or does the follower determine the leader’s styles?
17. Can you be motivated and not engaged? Can you be engaged and not motivated?

Exit Questions:

18. How has your viewpoint of the follower been impacted by participating in this study?
19. Did you ever talk about the follower, followers, or followership in your M.A?
20. Did you ever talk about a leadership philosophy called servant leadership in your M.A?
21. What do you think it means to be a servant-leader?
22. Do you think followership should be included in leadership studies?